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**PERCEPTIONS ON CAMBODIAN HIGH SCHOOL
DIRECTORS' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS**

Mok Sarom

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Doctor of Philosophy Program in Educational Administration**

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บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ เพื่อศึกษา เปรียบเทียบ หาความสัมพันธ์ และเสนอรูปแบบ พฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้บริหารและการรับรู้ของครูผู้สอนต่อพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำ ของผู้บริหารโรงเรียนมัธยมศึกษาชาวกัมพูชา กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ เป็นผู้บริหารโรงเรียนมัธยมศึกษาชาวกัมพูชา จำนวน 191 คน และครูผู้สอน จำนวน 386 คน ซึ่งได้มาโดยกำหนดขนาดกลุ่มตัวอย่างตามตารางเจซีและมอร์แกน การสุ่มแบบแบ่งชั้นภูมิ ตามจำนวนโรงเรียนในแต่ละจังหวัด และการสุ่มอย่างง่ายโดยการจับฉลาก เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัย ครั้งนี้ เป็นแบบประเมินการปฏิบัติภาวะผู้นำ (Leadership Practices Inventory: LPI) ซึ่งมีสองแบบ คือ แบบประเมินตัวเองและแบบประเมินจากผู้สังเกตการณ์ แบบประเมินทั้งสองแบบนี้ได้รับการตรวจสอบความเที่ยงและใช้เทคนิคการแปลงย้อนกลับเพื่อลดความคลุมเครือและข้อผิดพลาด แบบมาตรวัดภาษาเขมรใช้ในการทดสอบภาคสนาม หลังจากนั้นแบบประเมินการปฏิบัติภาวะผู้นำ กัมพูชา (Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory: CLPI) ได้สร้างขึ้นโดยนำผล จากการวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบของแบบประเมินการปฏิบัติภาวะผู้นำ ข้อมูลได้เก็บรวบรวม โดยใช้แบบประเมินตัวเอง และแบบประเมินจากผู้สังเกตการณ์ เพื่อทดสอบความสอดคล้อง ของรูปแบบกับข้อมูลเชิงประจักษ์ สถิติที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเป็นสถิติพรรณนาและสถิติอ้างอิง โดยโปรแกรมคอมพิวเตอร์

ผลการวิจัยสรุปได้ดังต่อไปนี้

1. ผู้บริหารมีพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำ จำนวน 4 ด้าน ได้แก่ 1) การทำตัวเป็นตัวอย่าง เพื่อให้กำลังใจต่อเจ้าหน้าที่ 2) การแปลงวิสัยทัศน์สู่การปฏิบัติ 3) การสร้างการมีส่วนร่วม จากเจ้าหน้าที่อย่างยั่งยืน และ 4) การผูกพันใจเจ้าหน้าที่กับการดำเนินการร่วม ครูผู้สอนมีการรับรู้ ต่อพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้บริหาร จำนวน 3 ด้าน ได้แก่ 1) การทำตัวเป็นตัวอย่าง เพื่อความเข้มแข็งองค์กร 2) การผูกพันใจเจ้าหน้าที่กับการปฏิบัติตามยุทธศาสตร์ของโรงเรียน และ 3) การแปลงวิสัยทัศน์สู่การปฏิบัติที่ถูกต้อง

2. ผลของค่าที่และค่าความแปรปรวนทางเดียวที่มีค่าสถิติที่แตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติเท่านั้นได้นำมาอธิบายสรุปในงานวิจัยนี้ เมื่อจำแนกตามอายุในด้านการแปลงวิสัยทัศน์สู่การปฏิบัติ ระดับการศึกษาในด้านการแปลงวิสัยทัศน์สู่การปฏิบัติ และประสบการณ์การทำงานในด้านการสร้างการมีส่วนร่วมจากเจ้าหน้าที่อย่างยั่งยืนของผู้อำนวยการ มีความแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p < .05$) เมื่อจำแนกตามอายุในด้านการแปลงวิสัยทัศน์สู่การปฏิบัติที่ถูกต้อง และระดับการศึกษาทั้งสามด้านของครูผู้สอน มีความแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p < .05$)

3. การวิเคราะห์ความสัมพันธ์แคนนอนนิกัล พบว่า ฐานพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้อำนวยการโรงเรียน ทั้ง 4 ด้าน และการสังเกตของครูผู้สอนต่อพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้อำนวยการทั้ง 3 ด้าน มีความสัมพันธ์กันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ($p < .001$)

4. ผลการทดสอบความสอดคล้องของรูปแบบการวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้อำนวยการโรงเรียนมัธยมศึกษาชาวกัมพูชา พบว่า มีความสอดคล้องกับข้อมูลเชิงประจักษ์ โดยพิจารณาจากค่าไค-สแควร์ (χ^2) เท่ากับ 215.7 ที่องศาอิสระ (df) เท่ากับ 386 ค่า p-value เท่ากับ 1.000 ดัชนี GFI เท่ากับ .934 ดัชนี AGFI เท่ากับ .920 และค่า RMSEA เท่ากับ .000 ส่วนผลการทดสอบความสอดคล้องของรูปแบบการวิเคราะห์องค์ประกอบการรับรู้ของครูผู้สอนต่อพฤติกรรมภาวะผู้นำของผู้อำนวยการโรงเรียนมัธยมศึกษาชาวกัมพูชา ปรากฏว่า มีความสอดคล้องกับข้อมูลเชิงประจักษ์ โดยพิจารณาจากค่าไค-สแควร์ (χ^2) เท่ากับ 358.1 ที่องศาอิสระ (df) เท่ากับ 371 ค่า p-value เท่ากับ .675 ดัชนี GFI เท่ากับ .944 ดัชนี AGFI เท่ากับ .930 และค่า RMSEA เท่ากับ .000 งานวิจัยนี้ได้ข้อเสนอแนะสำหรับผู้กำหนดนโยบายและนักการศึกษาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับภาวะผู้นำในโรงเรียนมัธยมศึกษาในประเทศกัมพูชา การศึกษารังนี้ อาจเป็นประโยชน์สำหรับกระทรวงอบรม เยาวชนและกีฬา และคู่มือการศึกษานานาชาติ

TITLE	Perceptions on Cambodian High School Directors' Leadership Behaviors		
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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this research were to study, compare, find out the relationship, and propose leadership model of school directors' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors. The number of selected sample included 191 school directors and 386 teachers from Cambodian public high schools, derived through Table of Krejcie & Morgan, stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling by drawing lots. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), Self and Observer were adapted as the research instruments. The validity of the instruments was verified and the forms were back-translated to minimize ambiguity and errors. The Khmer versions of the questionnaires were field tested. Using factor analysis of LPI, it was adapted as a Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI). Two forms of CLPI, Self and Observer, were collected to confirm the model. Collected data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics through computer program procedures.

The results of the study were summarized as follows:

1. School directors practiced four leadership behaviors, namely demonstrating to support the heart, translating a shared vision into actions, sustaining willing participation, and engaging the heart in a shared process. The teachers perceived the school directors' leadership behaviors in three dimensions including demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, engaging

the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation.

2. Only the statistically significant results were summarized for the independent samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA. When taking into account of age of translating a shared vision into actions, educational level of translating a shared vision into actions, and working experience of sustaining willing participation of school directors, it was found statistically significant difference ($p < .05$). When taking age into account, it was found that translating a shared vision into moral obligation, and educational level of all aspects of teachers, with statistically significant difference ($p < .05$).

3. The statistics maintained that the canonical correlation analysis of the four school directors' leadership practice bases and three teachers' observations of their school directors' leadership practice showed statistically significant difference ($p < .001$).

4. The goodness of fit of the structural equation model of school directors' leadership behaviors showed their consistency with the empirical data, considered from Chi-square (χ^2) was 215.7, $df = 386$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $GFI = .934$, $AGFI = .920$, and $RMSEA = .000$. The teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors showed its consistency with the empirical data, considered from Chi-square (χ^2) was 358.1, $df = 371$, $p\text{-value} = .675$, $GFI = .944$, $AGFI = .930$, and $RMSEA = .000$. Recommendations are made for policy makers and educators who engage in high school leadership in Cambodia. This study can potentially benefit for Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, and international education partners.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my parents, Mok Em and Chhim Kinlorn. Growing up in a warm and supportive poor family environment has given me the confidence to challenge myself and seek out truth. Their consistent encouragement to believe in myself allowed me to follow and achieve my dreams.

มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสุราษฎร์ธานี
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Mok Sarom

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CLPI	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory
DSH	Demonstrating to Support the Heart
DSD	Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables
DV	Dependent Variables
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EHS	Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision
EIO	Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
FCCT	Foreign Correspondents' Club of Thailand
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
IOC	Index of Item Objective Congruence
IV	Independent Variables
KMO	Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin
LBDQ	Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire
LEAD	Leadership Effectiveness Assessment Devise
LPI	Leadership Practices Inventory
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport
NFI	Normal Fit Index

RMSRA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SWP	Sustaining Willing Participation
TSA	Translating a Shared Vision into Actions
TSM	Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WTO	World Trade Organization

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background and Significance of the Study Problems

An era of high stake accountability has expanded the necessity for school districts to secure school directors with leadership behaviors that encourage successful academic performance. Cambodian school leaders are sought to deliver practices that guide and empower entire school communities through unprecedented times of educational change. Currently, leadership behaviors in Cambodia are contingent upon accommodating individual differences and the given situation. Thus, Cambodian school directors are challenged to employ qualities beyond those of merely being a school manager. The evaluation and understanding of present-day Cambodian school directors' leadership behaviors have become increasingly significant during the current period of political, social and educational reform. To be effective school leaders, school directors must execute versatile leadership behaviors that promote the total school setting. Thus, it is probably safe to rather generally state that the understanding of leadership behaviors is essential because educational leaders need to be aware of what behaviors are effective. They need to develop certain visionary leadership qualities, knowledge, organizational structure, and skills that will enable them to function effectively in their capacities as instructional and organizational leaders who are focused on excellence, and to inspire all members of the school community to a shared commitment.

Cambodia is a land of beauty with a rather troubled past, but the growing hope for a better future. Cambodia has a long history, but one marked with civil conflict, foreign invasion, and genocide. Cambodia, unfortunately, is remembered for Pol Pot and the Khmer Rouge government that came into power in 1975. During the four years of Pol Pot's communist leadership, approximately 1.7 million people lost their lives due to execution, torture, and starvation. Cambodia also targeted history and schools. Libraries were destroyed and schools were closed. The 20,000 Cambodian teachers perished or fled from the country. Since the end of 2006, all high schools in Cambodia would have become accredited by external quality assurance organization according to the Cambodian Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2009-2013 (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport - MoEYS. 2010: 4). The purpose of ESP is to increase Cambodian educational standards and create effective schools throughout Cambodia. To achieve the goals of ESP, leadership of each school plays a very important role. As a result, school directors and teachers need to prepare, equip, and change in order to comply with ESP. Cambodian educational reform has enormously affected public high schools (Stafford. 2000: 22; Thavin. 2001: 37; WTO. 2003: 15; Katayama. 2007: 11; Richardson. 2007: 55; Escamilla. 2010: 49; Soveacha. 2010: 35; Banal. 2011: 21). Teachers and school directors who are key persons in the reform must have the same goals, share a vision, and support one another. Leadership must be shared between teachers and school directors in order to move forward and meet the goals of the reform.

The move to educational reform in Cambodia has caused great change in Cambodian secondary education. This educational reform has potential to affect the leadership in schools; the background of this movement and problems in Cambodian education are essential for this study. Presently, there are forces in the Cambodian government to change the educational system: socioeconomic, educational,

technological, and globalization forces. The collapse of the Cambodian economy in 1979 forced the Cambodian government to find strategies to reduce funding for all public organizations, including schools, and to increase the Cambodian educational standard economy (Sin. 1991: 19-21; Innes-Brown & Chhuon. 2003: 32; Richardson. 2007: 56; Agosta. 2009: 41; Soveacha. 2010: 38; Banal. 2011: 24). The Cambodian government believes that education will help young Cambodians understand and maintain Cambodian culture and tradition. Most Cambodian people have been poorly educated.

The Cambodian government wants to educate more people so they will have deeper and wider knowledge and higher technical skills. Globalization has forced the world to rapidly become smaller and also has forced people in the world, including Cambodia, to study and learn much more. These forces have caused the Cambodian government to promulgate the ESP 2009-2013. As a result, Cambodian education has dramatically changed, especially at primary level, which is the foundation of other educational levels.

Educational standards and quality assurance stated in the ESP 2009-2013 (MoEYS. 2010: iii) are at the heart of changing the Cambodian educational system and creating effective schools. The system of educational quality assurance, both internal and external will ensure improvement of educational quality and standards at all levels. Quality assurance systems will be established in educational institutions as part of a systematic and continuous process. Annual reports of each educational institution must be submitted to parent organizations and made available to the public and external quality assurance agencies (Richardson. 2007: 56; Agosta. 2009: 43; Escamilla. 2010: 51; Soveacha. 2010: 39; Banal. 2011: 28).

Additionally, the Cambodian government re-organized the educational administrative structure to become more flexible and effective. Public education will be

administered and managed at three levels aiming at decentralization of authority to local organizations and educational institutions, such as the MoEYS, Provincial Education Services, and the District Educational Support Sectors. The ESP has affected public education. The Cambodian government will consider in formulation policies and implementing plans of education provided by the government, educational service areas, or local administrative organizations. The government will also provide support in terms of grants, tax rebates or exemptions, and other benefits, as well as academic support to public education institutions (Pit & Ford. 2004: 43; Chet. 2006: 12; Richardson. 2007: 58; Agosta. 2009: 43; Escamilla. 2010; MoEYS. 2010: iii; Soveacha. 2010: 39; Banal. 2011: 28).

The curricula and learning processes, which are the means to meet the goals of ESP 2009-2013 (MoEYS. 2010: iii), have been reformed. Formal education is divided into two levels: basic education and higher education. The core curricula for basic education are prescribed by the Basic Education Commission. Basic education institutions will be responsible for prescribing curricular contents in relation to the needs of the community and the society, local wisdom, and attributes of desirable members of the families, communities, society, and nation (Maeda. 2007: 23; Richardson. 2007: 43; Bredenberg & Sovann. 2008: 51; Agosta. 2009: 66; Crowley. 2010: 12; Escamilla. 2010: 39). The teaching-learning process will aim at enabling learners to develop themselves at their own pace and to their best potential.

The role and training of teachers, staff, and other educational personnel have been reformed as well. There is a central organization responsible for administering the personnel affairs of teachers. All teachers and educational personnel will be civil servants under this organization. The personnel administration will be decentralized to educational service areas and institutions. There will be a law with regard to salaries,

remuneration, welfare and other benefits of teachers and educational personnel (MoEYS. 2010: 1-2). To conclude, the move of the traditional Cambodian educational system to reform, according to ESP 2009-2013, has caused all schools to improve, change, and adapt to the new educational trends, to provide the standard of education for all Cambodian students. The standard education will promote lifelong learning and increase the performance and competence of students. To meet these goals, effective school leadership is needed.

Building leadership capacity in today's schools is becoming an increasingly challenging task. Hence, the need for meaningful and useful information about effective school leadership is essential. Schools will be successful in their missions when school directors, as leaders of schools, become more effective and skilled in carrying out their daily work. Because of globalization, internationalization, and technological advancement, the missions of schools are more complex, so school directors need to seek, define, and refine effective leadership skills (Pit & Ford. 2004: 11; Chet. 2006: 25; Richardson. 2007: 59; Agosta. 2009: 19; Escamilla. 2010: 33; Soveacha. 2010: 48; Banal. 2011: 59).

Presently, in Cambodian high schools, the school directors most often obtain feedback about the effectiveness of their leadership primarily from their immediate supervisors. These supervisors are often the school district's assistant superintendents or occasionally the school district's superintendents. These individuals may be limited in their visits to school sites and in their observance of actual school director performances. As a result, indirect or inaccurate information about the actual job performances of school directors is often conveyed rather than valuable information which can provide insight and meaning about his or her leadership behaviors. Unfortunately, without such information, school directors may be unaware of the ineffectively and potentially

damaging nature of their behaviors and continue their practices. With firsthand feedback regarding their leadership role, school directors could understand, learn, develop and change their understanding of what leadership characteristics are important and unimportant within their jobs.

As alluded above, school directors are political appointees in the hierarchical and politicized system. They must not only “manage” the schools, but do them in a way that closely follows the complex requirements of the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport. School directors had no preparation to become school directors (UNICEF. 2007: 12-13). Most newer school directors firstly become deputy directors or assistant principals. If they had the competent school director to work with, they had the opportunity to learn good practices. If not, they simply did what was modeled and operated in their own intuition. Almost all schools had one or two deputy directors, depending on the size of the schools (UNESCO. 2006: 44-46; Soveacha. 2010: 34-35). Besides, the school directors’ role had come under more and more scrutiny as expectations had grown for standard-based educational accountability. Cambodia’s National Education For All (EFA) Plan 2003-2015 (UNICEF. 2007: 15-16) argues that the responsibility for school accountability resides with the school directors.

“Contemporary school leaders are expected to perform better than ever before, being held accountable for teaching and learning while constantly striving for improvement and serving as positive change agents.” There are, however, quite a few research works that discuss the importance of how school directors perceive their practices and how they relate to teachers’ perceptions of their leadership behaviors as well as effecting academic success.

Obviously, as teachers interact with school directors on a daily basis, they are in the unique position to provide invaluable information regarding their perception of effective leadership characteristics possessed by the school director. Actually, teachers are seldom asked about leadership issues from their unique perspective. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, none of the research in Cambodia has explored teachers' preferences for leadership behaviors. This study will provide an opportunity at a particular point in time to propose information for short-and long-range planning for developing effective schools and professional development of both school directors and teachers. Importantly, teachers work closely with their school directors every day, so they are in a unique position to provide information for school directors to improve their leadership. School directors can use this information to improve, adapt, and implement their leadership more effectively. Communication between teachers and school directors enables schools to be effective, because effective leadership of school directors indirectly influences students' achievement. Today, there are many issues impacting upon education in Cambodia; such as job security, teacher turnover, teacher salary, working condition, and school director leadership. There are several factors which should be considered when examining the condition of schools, such as teachers' perceptions and principals' leadership practices. It is not known to what extent school directors' practices affects teachers' perception in public high schools. It is of utmost importance for today's schools to have great leadership - perhaps, more so than at any previous time in history. In addition to school directors' leadership practices affecting the overall perceptions of teachers, it could also affect highly qualified teachers staying within the educational organization. In Cambodian education context, the leadership practices of yesterday are not adequate to meet future needs. School leaders who do not adapt to this change remain equipped to deal with the world that no longer exists. School directors

now face the challenges of determining how to create leadership to effectively and ethically meet present needs.

In the study of leadership behavior, many theories or models have been developed by scholars in the field. Leadership is very important for both school directors and teachers in order to move forward and meet the goals of reform, but no one has actually applied them in Cambodia. To the researcher's knowledge and belief, there are only two previous studies on Cambodian leadership, but in fact these only make recommendations for appropriate leadership development program. Neither study touches on the difference within public high schools between school directors' perception of their leadership behaviors and teachers' preferences for school directors' leadership behaviors. In his journal report, *School Leadership Professional Development in Cambodia*, Morefield (2003) was the first scholar to attempt to examine school leadership development training opportunities for Cambodian school directors during 2003-2004. The study looked at the development of Cambodian school directors in general as well as leadership training for 40 directors, over a period of one year. In the Ph.D. dissertation, *Mom-Chhing (2009)* tried to study the factors that help establish a strong case for the importance of examining Cambodian cultural factors that may impact on the perceptions, behaviors, and participation in leadership roles of Cambodian American leaders in the state of Washington. Both these studies have been useful and important for this thesis. Nevertheless, the researcher is the first to study Cambodian school directors' reported behaviors, as well as to apply the models of leadership practices to Cambodia in recent time.

To analyze the gap between what school directors think they do and what teachers perceive them to be doing will lead school directors to adapt, change, and develop their own leadership behavior. The two forms of the Leadership Practices

Inventory (LPI), Self and Observer, were adapted as the instrument. This survey instrument was developed by Kouzes and Posner in western culture (2003). In this sense, leadership made a difference, regardless of culture (country) (Posner. 2010). For the purposes of this study, the researcher was granted the use of LPI by the developers, Kouzes and Posner (2003). The LPI is one of the most widely used leadership assessment instruments available. For example, few significant differences were found between leadership practices of American, Nigerian, and Slovenian MBA students which implies that some leadership behaviors may be universally practiced (Zagorsek, Jaklic & Stough. 2004; Posner. 2010). Abu-Tineh, Khasaswneh and Al-Omari (2008) reported that the Kouzes Posner leadership framework was being successfully applied by school principals in Jordan, as viewed by the teachers within their schools. In addition, Posner (2010) added that this finding was further substantiated by Al-Khalaileh (2008) in another set of Jordanian schools; as well as in Thailand with both school principals (Oumthanom. 2001) and nurses (Chitonnom. 1999). As the same manner, Oumthanom (2001: 98) examined the relationship in private elementary schools between principal's and teacher's perceptions of effective leadership behaviors. The LPI was adapted as a research tool. She concludes that "both principals and teachers perceived leadership practice as a means to achieve educational reform in Thailand." The message is clear: LPI is the most appropriate instrument to measure Thai principals' and teachers' perceived leadership behaviors. Additionally, the LPI questions are clear and understandable, which is particularly important given the population studies. The practices, through behavioral-anchored statements in Thailand, can be measurable in Cambodian educational context because Thailand is the country closest to Cambodia in both geographical and cultural senses.

From the background and significance of the study problems as mentioned above, the researcher is interested studying the perceptions on Cambodian high school directors' leadership behaviors by Kouzes and Posner (2003)'s Leadership Practices Inventory – LPI due to the fact that school director is the instrumental in keeping the school moving toward the goal of providing an excellent, and needs to know themselves by being cognizant of the leadership behaviors they actually perform and by inviting their teachers to provide information about the leadership behaviors they perceived. In essence, the present study then will help the school directors become aware of the extent to which they are exhibiting the kinds of behaviors that are described in the research instrument. Through this analysis, the school directors should also be able to develop the adequate growth plans and leadership training programs that will assist the entire school staff in the Kingdom of Cambodia in developing needed leadership skills in the long run.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were sixfold:

1. To study school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by school directors of high schools.
2. To study school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by high school teachers.
3. To compare the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by school directors as classified by gender, age, education level, and experience.
4. To compare the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers' perceptions as classified by gender, age, education level, and experience.

5. To find out the relationship between the school directors' behaviors admitted by school directors and teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors.

6. To propose leadership model for supporting school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system.

Research Questions

To accomplish the purposes of the study, six research questions were addressed by the quantitative study. The questions are:

1. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by school directors?
2. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by teachers?
3. Do school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?
4. Do school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?
5. To what extent is the relationship between school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?
6. What leadership behaviors model should high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?

Research Hypotheses

The research questions that focused on the leadership behaviors of Cambodian high school directors based on Kouzes and Posner Five Practices of leadership model correspond to the following research hypotheses:

1. There are differences in leadership behaviors of Cambodian high school directors as perceived by school directors when analyzed by age, education level, and experience.
2. There are differences in leadership behaviors of Cambodian high school directors as perceived by school teachers when analyzed by gender, age, education level, and working experience.
3. There is relationship between school directors' behaviors and school teachers' perception of school directors' leadership behaviors of leadership practice theory.

Scope of the Study

Content of the Study

The Kouzes and Posner (2003)'s Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) adopted for this study utilized all of the five leadership practices – modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. The modified version as Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventories (CLPI) – school directors (CLPI-Self) and teachers (CLPI-Observer) is used as the research instrument, leading to data collection and analysis.

Population and Samples

1. Population

The population were 378 public high school directors who are administering at

grades seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, and twelve, and 17,008 public high school teachers who are teaching at grades seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, and twelve in Cambodian high schools.

2. Samples

The samples for the study consisted of 191 school directors, and 386 teachers from public high schools in the Kingdom of Cambodia, who are administering and teaching seven-twelve grades. The samples were derived through Krejcie & Morgan, stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling by drawing lots.

Variables of the Study

The independent variables were school directors' and teachers' demographics, and five leadership practices developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) of school directors as perceived by school directors and teachers. The five leadership practices were 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart. The dependent variables were two forms of modified Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI) – school directors (CLPI-Self) and teachers (CLPI-Observer).

Duration of the Study

This study was conducted in the academic years 2012.

Significance of the Study

Effective leadership has been a critical topic of discussion for decades, especially for school leaders. In a time when schools are facing increased accountability, the role of the school directors has not only changed but has become more crucial. The research findings have both theoretical and practical significance as follows:

1. Taking the limitations of research studies on school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodian contexts into account, the researcher conducts this research because he wants to make education for young adults a priority. In addition, it is critical that this study will contribute to the growing body of knowledge on a school director's leadership practices and awareness of self-perceptions of leadership practices, and how this relates to academic success. It will also provide an opportunity at a particular point in time to propose information for short-and long-range planning for developing effective schools and professional development of both school directors and teachers. The school directors can also reinvent themselves and understand their identities, thereby bringing about meaningful, productive change for themselves and their staff, and students.

2. This study seeks to encourage reflection by school directors and a deeper understanding of perception of their followers. If school directors are better able to understand their own leadership behaviors, as perceived by themselves as well as others, it can reduce inaccuracies about their leadership style and allow them to focus on behaviors that will lead to a more positive and productive work environment. School directors can better understand and make personal improvements if they are aware of leadership behaviors that tend to occur more frequently at different stages of their career.

3. Cambodia's National Education For All (EFA) Plan 2003-2015 can use the findings from this study to 1) formulate professional development plans for school directors and school teachers, 2) to target areas for in-service training for administrators, teachers, and staff, and 3) to encourage further research into effective schools after reform.

4. By learning more about school director and teacher perception of school director's behaviors, the results of this study will be useful by providing the proposed

leadership practices model to directors of provincial education service that are responsible for preparation of aspiring school director candidates by providing a basis for future program development. This study will provide information regarding leadership behaviors that continue to emerge due to the changing demands of the directorship. In this sense, public administrators, urban and regional planners, and community development practitioners, as well as the donor communities could benefit from this study.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following key terms are defined to give preciseness to terms ambiguously used in education:

Leadership means an influence processes affecting the interpretation of events for followers, the choice of objectives for the group or organization, the organization of work activities to accomplish objectives, the motivation of followers to achieve objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships and teamwork, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organization. Leadership occurs whenever one person's behavior causes any behavior of another.

Behavior means the actions or reactions of persons or things in response to external or internal stimuli.

Leadership Behaviors mean those actions shown by school directors during the execution of their duties and responsibilities. In this study, leadership behaviors are measured by leadership practices inventory (LPI) questionnaire designed by Kouzes and Posner in 2003, consisting of 30 statements, six statements designed to measure each of five key leadership practices as below:

1. Modeling the Way means school directors show and act in such a way people should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. They create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow. They also set interim goals so that people can achieve small wins as they work toward larger objectives.

2. Inspiring a Shared Vision means school directors passionately believe that they can make a difference. They envision the future, creating an ideal and unique image of what the organization can become. Through their magnetism and quiet persuasion, school directors enlist others in their dreams. They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

3. Challenging the Process means school directors search for opportunities to change the status quo. They look for innovative ways to improve the organization. In doing so, they experiment and take risks. And the school directors know that risk taking involves mistakes and failures, they accept the inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.

4. Enabling Others to Act means school directors foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust among staff. They also strengthen others by sharing power and providing choices, making each individual feel competent and confident.

5. Encouraging the Heart means school directors encourage staff by recognizing contributions and celebrating values and victories while building a spirit of community. To keep hope and determination alive, school directors also recognize contributions that individuals make.

Effective Leadership Practice means the process of persuasion or example by which an individual or leadership team, induces a group to pursue objectives has the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers.

High School Directors mean Cambodian government officers who guide, direct, and coordinate all school functions for the purpose of instructional effectiveness.

They are also key players in school improvement and change and individuals employed full-time as high school directors administering lower grades: 7, 8 and 9 and upper grades: 10, 11 and 12.

High School Teachers mean Cambodian government officers who teach, and run activities for the purpose of instructional effectiveness. They are also key supporters in school improvement and change and individuals employed full-time as high school teachers teaching lower grades: 7, 8 and 9 and upper grades: 10, 11 and 12.

School Directors' Perception means the opinions to determine through observation and experience, a specific trait, behavior, happening, or "feeling" of the school directors' leadership behaviors as opining and determining these leadership behaviors of five practices.

School Teachers' Perception means the opinions to determine through observation and experience, a specific trait, behavior, happening, or "feeling" of the teachers toward the school directors' leadership behaviors as opining and deterring these leadership behaviors of five practices.

Public High Schools mean the Cambodian government schools that provide basic education for students who study lower grades: 7, 8 and 9 and upper grades: 10, 11 and 12 in the Kingdom of Cambodia.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of the literature concerning effective school directors and teachers' perceptions of the leadership practices of effective school directors. The following sections are included in the review.

1. Leadership

1.1 Definitions of Leadership

1.2 Leadership Characteristics

1.3 Leadership Behaviors

2. Major Theories of Leadership

2.1 Behavioral Theory

2.2 Situational Theory

2.3 Transformational Theory

2.4 Transactional Theory

2.5 Authoritative Theory

2.6 Trait Theory

3. School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

4. Effective School Directors

4.1 Leadership of Effective School Directors

4.2 Effective Directors in High Schools

4.3 The Roles and Responsibilities of Today's Effective School Director

5. Contemporary Leadership Theories

5.1 Definitions of Contemporary Leadership Theories

5.2 Reframing Organizations

5.3 Relational Model of Leadership

5.4 Vertical Dyad Linkage Model

5.5 Reciprocal Influence Theories

5.6 Substitutes for Leadership

5.7 The Leadership Challenge

6. Teachers' Perceptions of Effective School Directors

6.1 Teachers' Perceptions

6.2 Teachers' Job Satisfaction

6.3 Teachers' Trust

7. Kouzes and Posner' Leadership Theory

7.1 Modeling the Way

7.2 Inspiring a Shared Vision

7.3 Challenging the Process

7.4 Enabling Others to Act

7.5 Encouraging the Heart

8. Country Context: Cambodia

8.1 The Background and Context

8.2 Education in Cambodia

8.3 Challenges of Cambodian Schools

8.4 Challenges of Cambodian School Directors

9. Previous Related Studies

10. Conceptual Framework of the Research

Leadership

This section reviews definitions of leadership and leadership characteristics, discuss their differences, and describe their complementary functions. It then considers various misconceptions about leadership behaviors. Finally, it establishes a leadership model which is described as a process of behavioral influences within a group relationship.

Definitions of Leadership

Past and current scholars have taken several approaches to defining, conceptualizing, and studying leadership in their attempts to gain a comprehensive understanding of this complex phenomenon. The Oxford English Dictionary Online (2012) gives a shorter definition and etymology for the term *leadership* than it does for the terms *lead* and *leader*. Links are provided for the root word *leader* and *-ship*. The link to *leader* takes the reader back to what has already been shown for that term; however, the link for the suffix *-ship* provides some essential background on its evolution and usage. In Old and Middle English the suffix *-ship* (usually spelled, *-scipe*) is added to adjectives such as glad, wild, drunken, and hard to denote the state of being glad, wild, drunken, or difficult. In comparison with the Oxford dictionary, the World Book reference divides the usages or definitions of leadership into the three categories listed below. The Oxford has at least five divisions. A few examples are also given by the World Book to illustrate the various distinct definitions of the term, i.e.

1) the condition of being a leader; 2) the ability to lead, e.g.: Leadership is a great asset to an officer; and 3) guidance or direction, e.g.: Our group needs some leadership.

Additionally, the Online Etymology Dictionary (2012: 45-49) links the term *leadership* with the Greek word hegemony. The dictionary briefly states that the term

hegemony comes from a 1567, translation of the Greek word, hegemonia, which is translated as *leadership*. Hegemon, in Greek means *leader* and hegeisthai means to *lead*. According to this dictionary, the word originally referred to the predominance of one city state over another in Greek history. The Random House Dictionary (2006: 88-91) defines hegemony as: leadership or predominant influence exercised by one nation over others, as in a confederation. The Webster Revised Unabridged Dictionary (1998: 66-69) indicates that hegemony means to guide or go before, also leadership; preponderant influence or authority; usually applied to the relation of a government or state to its neighbors or confederates.

Leadership is arguably one of the most researched topics within the field of education. Bass (1990: 121-125) reveals that leadership is viewed from many different perspectives due to the variety of definitions surrounding the term. Chemers (1984: 87-89) divides the study of leadership into three distinct time periods: the trait approach, from around 1910 to World War II; the behavior approach, from the onset of World War II to the late 1960s; and the contingency approach, from the late 1960s to the present (Lechter. 2006: 92-96).

Traditionally researchers have defined leadership according to their individual perspectives and the components of leadership which are most important to them. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974: 259) concludes that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” While many definitions of leadership exist, Yukl (2002: 2), often cited as an expert in the field of organizational studies, concludes that “Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over another to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships within a group or an organization.”

Several key components continue to emerge amongst the definitions of leadership. The first key component states that leadership is a process involving the influence of others to achieve a common goal. The second component states that leadership involves influencing and impacting a group of followers. The third component states that leadership usually occurs within the confines of a group (Prince, 2006: 34). Bass (1985: 56) concurs by concluding that leadership is “the process of influencing group activities towards the achievement of goals.”

Kouzes and Posner (2003: 2) posit a more modern definition when they stated that leadership is a relationship. “Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow.” Seifert and Vornberg (2002: 30) agree by stating that leadership is thought of as “doing the leader’s wishes, achieving group or organizational goals, as management, as influence, as traits of the individuals, and as transformation of the organization.”

Educational leadership is possibly the single most important component of a productive and effective learning environment (Koopman, 2006: 41-44). Rost (1991: 123), in his review of the leadership literature, concurs when he states, “Leadership is about transformation.” Real transformation involves actively engaging people in influential relationships that bring about intentional, real changes to meet their needs. Leaders must understand procedures and processes, working to create situations that improve the overall health of the organization (Koopman, 2006: 76). Koopman (2006: 91) adds that skilled leaders possess a vision about the future, empowering others to bring the vision to fruition.

The study of leadership has a long history. The concept of leadership prompts the question, by whose standards? The concept of leadership using scientific methods is relatively new, and Orozco (1999: 41) notes that, as in other organizations, school

leadership can be viewed from the perspective of teachers, students, supervisors, parents and the community, which might complicate the process of confirming the most important qualities of leadership. Greenberg and Baron (1997: 433) describe the complexities of leadership when they note that “leadership resembles love. It is something most people believe they can recognize but often find difficult to define.” Leadership is partially based on the positive feelings that exist between leaders and subordinates and involves non-coercive influence (Greenberg & Baron. 2000: 56-74).

For Cashman (2000: 20), “leadership is authentic self-expression that creates value, it is not seen as hierarchical – it exists everywhere in organizations.” A causal and definitional link exists between leadership and team performance, posit Blanchard, Hybels and Hodges (1999: 85), who also note that leadership is about serving and starts on the inside and moves outward to serve others. Such leadership has the interest of others in mind, nurtures growth and development in others, is willing to listen, and thinks less about self while held accountable for performance.

However, Lambert (1998: 5-6) suggests that leadership involves “learning together and constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively to reflect on and make sense of work in the light of shared beliefs and create actions that grow out of these new understandings.” Numerous definitions of leadership exist (Jago. 1982: 315-336; Yukl. 2006: 3; Vroom & Jago. 2007: 17-24). According to Rost (1993: 21-25), many leadership treatises conceptually fail to distinguish leadership from other social relationships. Table 2.1 below provides a synopsis of various leadership definitions.

Table 2.1 Definitions of Leadership

Year	Definition and Authors
1957	Leadership is “the behavior of an individual...directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal.” (Hemphill & Coons. 1957: 7).
1961	“Leadership is the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants.” (Prentice. 1961: 143).
1977	“Leadership – going out ahead to show the way – is available to everyone in the institution who has the competence, values, and temperament for it, from the chairman to the least skilled individual.” (Greenleaf. 1977: 96).
1978	Leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.” (Katz & Kahn. 1978: 528).
1984	Leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement.” (Rauch & Behling. 1984: 46).
1986	“Leadership is about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished.” (Richard & Engle. 1986: 206).
1990	“Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose.” (Jacobs & Jacques. 1990: 281).
1992	Leadership is “is the ability to step outside the culture...to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.” (Schein. 1992: 2).
1997	“Leadership resembles love. It is something most people believe they can recognize but often find difficult to define.” Greenberg and Baron (1997: 433)
1998	Leadership involves “learning together and constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively to reflect on and make sense of work in the light of shared beliefs and create actions that grow out of these new understandings.” (Lambert. 1998: 5-6).
1999	Leadership is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization...” (House et al. 1999: 184).
2000	“Leadership is authentic self-expression that creates value, it is not seen as hierarchical - it exists everywhere in organizations.” (Cashman. 2000: 20).
2001	“Leadership is about vision. But leadership is equally about creating a climate where the truth is heard and the brutal facts confronted” (Collins. 2001: 74).
2002b	“Leadership is a relationship. Leadership is an identifiable set of skills and practices that are available to all . . . , not just a few charismatic men and women” (Kouzes & Posner. 2002b: 20).
2004	“Leadership, . . . is a prospective. It defines what the future should look like, aligns the organization with a common vision, and provides inspiration to achieve transformational goals” (Ahn, Adamson & Dornbusch. 2004: 114).

Two important threads run through the many definitions of leadership. The first is that leadership is a relationship between people in which power and influence are

unevenly distributed on a legitimate basis. This reflects the assumption that involves a process whereby the intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization (Yukl, 2006: 3-6). The second thread is that there can be no leaders in isolation. Leadership implies that followers must explicitly or implicitly consent to their part in this influence relationship. In effect, followers voluntarily relinquish their right to make certain independent decisions. The leader-member interaction thus involves some kind of psychological or economic exchange, which usually involves a wage or salary (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974: 8). As for Cambodian context, Chamroeun and Osot (2010: i), the Cambodian educators, promulgated the idea that leadership can be distributed amongst groups. They state, “Leadership is an interactional phenomenon, and interaction theory seems best fitted to provide a framework for studies of leadership.”

In summary, the definition of leadership is an influential process affecting the interpretation of events for followers, the choice of objectives for the group or organization, the organization of work activities to accomplish the objectives, the motivation of followers to achieve the objectives, the maintenance of cooperative relationships and teamwork, and the enlistment of support and cooperation from people outside the group or organization. Leadership occurs whenever one person’s behavior causes any behavior of another.

Leadership Characteristics

In an effort to describe leadership, Stogdill (1974: 64) identifies six traits linked to leadership: competence, accomplishment, dependability, involvement, position, and situation. Stogdill (1974: 64) asserts that individuals assume leadership roles “by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits.” His attempts to sort and differentiate

leadership traits led to the conclusion that no particular characteristic separates leaders from non-leaders. On the other hand, Hemphill and Coons (1957: 46) assert that leadership can be recognized by the actions of individuals as they assist people in navigating toward accomplishing a jointly established goal. Likewise, Kellerman (1999: 315-320) identifies leadership as the effort of either formal or informal leaders in guiding individuals within an organization on a journey for accomplishment of common goals that represent significant change as opposed to change that is disjointed and segmented. In addition, the role of a leader has been likened to that of an architect wherein he or she works to help others recognize potential and utilize resources (Bolman & Deal. 1997: 231). Wheatley (1999: 131) also asserts that leadership is the responsibility of an individual to support the entire organization in becoming reflective and learning-centered. She states that leaders are obligated to guarantee a “strong and evolving clarity about what the organization is.” Furthermore, leadership has been described as the initiation and facilitation of communication among a group of individuals (Bales & Strodtbeck. 1951: 485-495).

Leadership has also been characterized as an obligation to initiate, sort, clarify, question, stimulate, summarize, and put together conclusions in a group (Bass. 1985: 71). Sergiovanni (2004: 17-23) writes “...leadership is more about helping people gain an understanding of problems they face and about helping them manage these problems and even learn to live with them.” However, Lambert (2002: 37-40), contend that leadership extends beyond providing guidance, facilitation, and inspiration, they write, “leadership is about transformation of self, others, organizations, and society.” Likewise, Kouzes and Posner (2004: 3-4) assert that leaders are those who “challenge the process, search for opportunities, experiment, and take risks.” Covey (2004: 98) also defines leadership

as “communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves.”

In summary, the leadership characteristic is an attitude which informs behavior, rather than a set of discrete skills or qualities. The study of leadership has dealt with issues of styles and levels of decision-making, assessing the consequences of their variations for following satisfaction, individual compliance and performance, and organizational effectiveness.

Leadership Behaviors

Researchers define behaviors as observable actions. Behavioral theory is a leadership theory that considers the observable actions and reactions of leaders and followers in a given situation. Researchers assume that a person can learn to become a good leader (Northouse, 2007: 38). Researchers have identified several approaches to leadership. The approach that emphasizes the behaviors of the leader is identified as the style approach. The style approach focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act. This approach expanded the study of leadership to include the actions of leaders toward subordinates in various contexts.

Researchers studying the style approach determined that leadership is composed of two general kinds of behaviors: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. Task behaviors facilitate goal accomplishment which helps group members to achieve their objectives. Relationship behaviors help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves (Northouse, 2007: 38).

Researchers conducted several studies to investigate the style approach. Some of the first studies were conducted at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan. Kohtbantau (2008: 41-44) states that the Ohio State studies identify two behavioral

categories, initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure dealt with task-behaviors such as, work schedules, work roles, performance standards, and accomplishments. Initiating structure also dealt with the degree to which leaders were oriented towards accomplishing goals and the extent to which leaders' established distinctive patterns and support for challenging communication (Bass, 1990: 19-31; Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004: 36-41; Yukl, 2006: 12). People-oriented behaviors dealt with consideration. Consideration behaviors were identified as essentially relationship behaviors which included building camaraderie, respect, trust, and liking between leaders and followers. Initiating consideration also dealt with the extent to which leaders expressed appreciation and support to followers (Bass, 1990: 19-31; Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004: 36-41; Yukl, 2006: 14).

Researchers in the Michigan studies identify three types of leadership behaviors: task-oriented behaviors, relations-oriented behavior, and participatory leadership behaviors. Task-oriented behaviors involve work scheduling and planning, coordinating functions, providing adequate resources, and rendering technical assistance to subordinates. Subordinates also receive direction for setting high but realistic performance and achievement goals (Yukl, 2006: 49). Employee orientation is the behavior of leaders who approach subordinates with a strong human relations emphasis. These leaders treat their employees as human beings by valuing their individuality and giving special attention to their personal needs. Trust and confidence are highly demonstrated. Interaction is friendly and considerate and information is presented in a timely fashion to subordinates. Participatory leadership behaviors are demonstrated by the engagement of group supervision. Group supervision encourages participation in the decision-making process, fostered communication, enhanced communication, and facilitated conflict resolution.

Leadership behaviors that allowed school directors to develop positive learning environments have been widely discussed. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) have developed comprehensive leadership assessment processes to identify leadership strengths and areas needing improvement while others have utilized leadership style inventories. Some of the behaviors that have been identified using the assessment process as well as the leadership style inventories include the following: monitoring student progress, defining mission, managing curriculum, supervising teaching, promoting instructional climate, collaborative leadership, teacher collaboration, professional development, unity of purpose, collegial support and learning partnership, and trust (Bulach, Boothe & Pickett. 2006: 117).

Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005: 9) performed a meta-analysis which examined 69 studies looking for specific behaviors related to principal leadership. Their findings validate leadership theorists and bring new insight into the nature of school leadership. Researchers support the perceived claim that leadership does affect student achievement. These authors used a quantitative method to answer the question “What does the research tell us about school leadership?.” They wanted to correlate student academic success with leadership behaviors of principals. They found that a highly effective social leader dramatically influences student academic success. Their meta-analysis classified their findings into 21 categories of behaviors. Figure 2.1 identifies Marzano’s 21 leadership behaviors.

Whitaker (2003: 12-18), in his book, *What Great Principals Do Differently* identifies fifteen behaviors of effective school directors: hiring better teachers; improving the teachers they have; helping teachers develop high expectations of themselves; treating all people with respect daily; providing a sense of calm in all

situations; teaching the teacher by modeling; following through on expectations set during induction; focusing on students and not the test; promoting positive behaviors in teachers and students; considering how decisions make others feel; being sensitive to the needs of others and maximizing their abilities; demonstrate compassion and concern for others; and finally avoiding actions that hurt others and making repairs if others are hurt.

21 Leadership Behaviors	
1.	Monitoring and evaluation: Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.
2.	Culture: Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.
3.	Ideals and beliefs: Communicates and operates firm strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.
4.	Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessments: Is knowledgeable about current practices.
5.	Curriculum, instruction, and assessment: Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
6.	Focus: Establishes clear goals and keeps these goals at the forefront of the school's attention.
7.	Order: Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.
8.	Affirmation: Recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures.
9.	Intellectual stimulation: Ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices in education and makes the discussion of these practices integral to the school's culture,
10.	Communication: Establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and students.
11.	Input: Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.
12.	Relationship: Demonstrates empathy with teachers and staff on a personal level.
13.	Optimizer: Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.
14.	Flexibility: Adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.
15.	Resources: Provides teachers with the materials and professional development necessary for successful execution of their jobs.
16.	Contingent rewards: Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.
17.	Situational awareness: Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.
18.	Outreach: Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.
19.	Visibility: Has high-quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.
20.	Discipline: Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus.
21.	Change agent: Is willing and prepared to actively challenge the status quo.

Figure 2.1 Leadership Behaviors

Source: School Leadership that Works, Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005: 23-25)

Covey (1989: 98), in the book *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, presents seven behaviors of effective leaders which includes: being proactive to assist in the control of the environment with responses to circumstance; beginning with the end in mind which helps one focus on the goal of the organization; putting first things first which helps one focus on the behaviors that are most important to the organization; thinking win-win which helps ensure that the accomplished goals of an organization benefits all members; seeking first to understand and then be understood helps establish strong communication lines through listening and understanding the needs of the organization members; synergizing which helps one utilize cooperation and collaboration for greater organizational production instead of isolated efforts of members; and sharpening the saw which helps one learn from previous mistakes and develop skills to prevent repetition of similar errors.

Leadership Model

McGregor (1960, cited in Kohtbantau. 2008: 41-53) has developed and compared a leadership model, he refers to as Theory X and Theory Y. This model explains two opposing views leaders may have of employees. The first, Theory X or traditional view, holds three basic propositions:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristics of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

The second, Theory Y or the integration of individual and organizational goals, embraces very different ideas:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not inherently dislike work. Depending upon controllable conditions, work may be a source of satisfaction (and will be voluntarily performed) or a source of punishment (and will be avoided if possible).
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self direction and self control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, e.g., the satisfaction of ego and self-actualization needs, can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objectives.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Avoidance of responsibility, lack of ambition, and emphasis on security are generally consequences of experience, not inherent human characteristics.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is wisely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

Leaders accepting Theory X direct, control, and regulate their organization. On the other hand, leaders utilizing Theory Y management style are humanitarian, enlightened, and have more concern and trust for their employees and thereby are able to motivate them. McGregor (1960; cited in Kohtbantau. 2008: 41-53) has contended that

each view a leader holds about an employee is a self-fulfilling prophecy. If leaders behave toward their employees as lacking motivation and being lazy, the employees will be. Conversely, if a leader treats workers as being self-motivated and responsible, the workers will be that way too. It is clear that the leaders must provide conditions that facilitate achievement of personal goals of employees as they work toward achieving organizational goals. Human competencies must be used as it is through the process of utilization of individuals' potential that it is possible to achieve more effective decisions and implementations.

The major impetus for the Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973: 166), leadership model has come as a result of the challenge to the efficiency of directive leadership. The model ranges on a continuum from boss-centered (authoritarian) to subordinate centered (democratic). The continuum does not present "a choice between two styles of leadership, it sanctions a range of behavior...that allows leaders to review their behavior within a context of other alternatives, without any style being labeled right or wrong." This continuum of leadership behavior espouses the idea that selecting a leadership style is contingent upon the needs of the situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973: 166) have recommended that a leader carefully consider the following factors or forces before choosing a leadership style: forces in the manager, forces in the subordinates, and forces in the situation.

In summary, in this study, an examination of the trait, behavioral, and contingency theories of leadership and the model based on these theories has provided a stimulating and broader conception of leadership. The absence of a conclusive evidence regarding common leadership traits indicates that traits alone do not determine leadership neither do certain traits distinguish effective from ineffective leaders. The existence of personal attributes, activities of others, and the situation must be considered when

determining leadership styles. An effective educational leader must be aware of the various theory-based behaviors and styles of leadership and be able to use the most effective style as the situation demands.

Major Theories of Leadership

Throughout the generations, many scholars have postulated a great number of theories in leadership. As indicated by Maurik (2001: 31), while each theory has its own properties and limitations, it is important to recognize that none of the generations is mutually exclusive or totally time-bound. Maurik (2001: 37) notes that although it is true that the progression of thinking tends to follow a sequential path, it is quite possible for elements of one generation to appear much later in the writings of someone who would not normally think of himself or herself as being of that school. Consequently, it is fair to say that each generation has added something to the overall debate on leadership and that the debate continues (Maurik, 2001: 39).

The literature is rich on the earlier approaches to studying the notions of major classical models of leadership theories. Such classical models include situational, transformational, transactional, behavioral, authoritative, and trait theories. In their article related to leadership theories, Doyle and Smith (2001: 53) explain some of the classical models of leadership. In particular, they look at earlier approaches to studying the notions of behavioral, authoritative, traits theories, and to what has become known as contingency theory. From there they turn to more recent, transformational theories and some issues of practice. The following provides a brief description of major theories of leadership from different viewpoints.

Behavioral Theory

In the 1950s and 1960s psychologists began to conduct research on leadership behavior. Three widely recognized studies attempted to classify and examine the effects of leader behaviors upon organizations. These studies included The Iowa Studies, The Ohio State Studies, and The Michigan Studies (Prince, 2006: 10). Different patterns of behavior were grouped together and labeled as styles. Each of these studies focused on authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire styles of leadership (Prince, 2006: 11).

This theory is based on different patterns of behaviors demonstrated by different leaders (Doyle & Smith, 2001: 59). In other words, the theory is premised on the general belief that leaders demonstrate different behavioral patterns in exercising leadership, which, in turn, have a direct impact on group outcomes (Wheatley, 2001: 14-20). Throughout the years, different patterns of behaviors were grouped together and labeled as styles. This became a very popular activity within management training – perhaps the best known being Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid (1978: iii). Various schemes appeared, designed to diagnose and develop people’s style of working.

Despite different names, the basic ideas were very similar. The four main styles that appear are: 1) concern for task, 2) concern for people, 3) directive leadership, 4) participative leadership. Barge and Hirokawa (1998: 169) state that the style approach to leadership research suffers from several limitations: “1) the concept of style theory is difficult to translate into distinct and unique behavioral patterns and tendencies, 2) because various leadership styles are difficult to be categorized into unique sets of behaviors, the causal link between style and group performance is difficult to establish, and 3) the style approach neglects the influence of contingency factors.”

Additionally, authoritarian leaders are characterized as directive and not allowing others to participate in the decision-making process. Democratic leaders are

characterized as encouraging group participation and involvement within the decision-making process. The laissez-faire leaders are summarized as those who do not give direction, giving complete freedom to individuals within the group of subordinates to make decisions (Prince. 2006: 10).

The Iowa Studies considered a landmark in research determining the effects of leader behaviors on group attitudes and group productivity, despite some problems cited concerning their methodology (Prince. 2006: 11). The research of Lunenberg and Ornstein (1991: 132) outline some of the key results of The Iowa Studies. These results include the following.

1. Of the three styles of leadership, subordinates preferred the democratic style the best, which makes intuitive sense. The general trend today is toward wider use of participatory management practices because they are consistent with the supportive and collegial models of modern organization.
2. Subordinates preferred the laissez-faire leadership style over the authoritarian one. For subordinates, even chaos was preferable to rigidity.
3. Authoritarian leaders elicited either aggressive or apathetic behavior that was deemed to be a reaction to the frustration caused by the authoritarian leader.
4. Apathetic behavior changed to aggressive behavior when the leadership style changed from authoritarian to laissez-faire; the laissez-faire leader produced the greatest amount of aggressive behavior.
5. Productivity was slightly higher under the authoritarian leader than under the democratic one, but it was lowest under the laissez-faire leader.

Lunenberg and Ornstein (1991: 133) conclude that “today the three styles identified by the Iowa researchers ... are commonplace in the popular literature and in parlance among practitioners in the field of educational administration.”

Situational Theory

Hersey and Blanchard (2006: 124-128) have identified four different components of the situational leadership: 1) telling, which is considered as high task/low relationship behavior, 2) selling, which is considered as high task/high relationship behavior, 3) participating, which is considered as low task/high relationship behavior, and 4) delegating, which is considered as low task/low relationship behavior. In his critique concerning the limitations of situational theory, Fisher (1986: 111-115) asserts that: “Although the situational perspective reveals the obvious complexity of the leadership phenomenon, it fails to provide us with more than a superficial insight into that complexity. The situational approach exposes the oversimplification of the trait and style approaches, and forces us to acknowledge the enormous complexity of the leadership process.” Regardless of such criticism, however, the situational leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (2006: 129-132) has been used in numerous studies related to leadership styles of administrators within a variety of higher education institutions.

Transformational Theory

Bass and Avolio (2004: 87-90) define transformational leaders as those who are typically elevating the interests of their subordinates, who generate awareness and acceptance of the mission of the group, and who motivate their subordinates to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of their organization.

Transformational leadership, according to Burns (1978: 19), goes beyond traditional leadership’s focus on fulfillment of higher level human needs such as self-actualization. The focus of transformational theory is primarily based on the leader’s level of creativity, interaction, passion, empowerment, and vision, rather than elucidating how leaders should behave in given situations (Burns. 1978: 22).

Transformational theory, according to Bolman and Deal (1997: 43), is on the basis of a visionary approach where leaders appeal to their followers' better nature and move them toward higher universal goals and objectives. Wright (1996: 212-216) characterizes the leaders who use the transformational style to possess a number of qualifications including: 1) raising their followers' level of awareness, 2) altering their followers' need level, 3) expanding their followers' range of needs and desires, 4) having their followers compromise their own self-interest for the sake of the team, and 5) improving level of consciousness among their followers about the importance of designated outcomes. A number of studies have also focused on the various approaches to the transformational leadership of academic administrators within a variety of the higher education institutions (Dutschke. 2003: 42; Bast. 2004: 11; Barth. 2004:90; Pauls. 2005: 15; Stanley. 2004: 71).

Transactional Theory

The transactional leadership style is referred by Bass and Avolio (2004) to those leaders who typically exchange promises of rewards and benefits to subordinates to gain their confidence with the organization. In their study of leadership effectiveness, Bass and Avolio (2004: 91-93) reaches an interesting conclusion that the transformational behavior of idealized influence-attributed and the transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward were significant predictors of leadership effectiveness and level of satisfaction with the leader. A number of the studies conducted within institutions of higher education have also focused on the transactional leadership style of academic administrators (Greiner. 1972: 37-46; Smith. 1990: ii; Temple. 2001: 51; Stanley. 2004: 75; Baumeister. 2005: 28).

Authoritative Theory

According to Heifetz (1994: 175), this theory is often seen as the possession of powers based on the formal role. However, Doyle and Smith (2001: 87) categorize this theory to formal and informal authority. Having formal authority is both a resource and a constraint. On the one hand, formal authority can bring access to systems and resources. On the other hand, it may carry a set of expectations that can be quite unrealistic in times of crisis. Being outside the formal power structure, but within an organization, can be an advantage. Having this type of informal authority, a leader can have more freedom of movement, the chance of focusing on what he or she sees as the issue, and there is a stronger chance of being in touch with what other people are feeling at the frontline.

Trait Theory

According to Stogdill (1981: 31-71), the trait theory is based on the general assumption that leaders possess inherent personal characteristics which allow them to exercise leadership in an organization. In a critique of different leadership theories, Barge and Hirokawa (1998: 169) indicate that “although the trait approach to group leadership possesses a certain amount of common sense, it fails to provide us with a suitable theoretical mechanism for linking leadership behaviors to group performance outcomes.” Gardner (1989: 91-96) studied a large number of North American organizations and leaders and came to the conclusion that there were 15 qualities or attributes that did appear to mean that a leader in one situation could lead in another. These included: 1) physical vitality and stamina, 2) intelligence and action-oriented judgment, 3) eagerness to accept responsibility, 4) task competence, 5) understanding of followers and their needs, 6) skill in dealing with people, 7) need for achievement, 8) capacity to motivate people, 9) courage and resolution, 10) trustworthiness,

11) decisiveness, 12) self-confidence, 13) assertiveness, 14) adaptability, and 15) flexibility.

In summary, it can be concluded that, in the process of evaluating any human performances, the most important issue is to identify a set of appropriate criteria. In order to identify the criteria for measuring leadership effectiveness of school directors, the behavior theory plays the crucial roles in continuing to emerge and evolving with every educational period of reform. A considerable amount of research and funding has been invested in discovering leadership behaviors that will help improve the academic achievement of all school directors and the overall perception of government schools.

School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

School directors' leadership behaviors have grown as an area of study because of the many influences the school leader has on the culture and climate of an organization. Studies that have focused on teacher self-efficacy and leadership behaviors have a shorter time frame than the efficacy construct. According to Owens (1970: 125), three kinds of school directors' leadership behaviors have had profound effect in an educational setting. These behaviors are labeled laissez-faire, autocratic, and democratic.

Laissez-faire leadership refers to what Blake and Mouton (1978) have called impoverished leadership. In this setting, the leader has little or no concern for either members of the group or production. They abdicate, as it were, their formal leadership roles and allow members of the group to do whatever they want to do. Decision-making function resides in the individual members of the group with no policies to guide such decision. The effect of this type of behavior is that leaders free themselves from

responsibility and so have nothing to do. There is lack of purpose, frustration, and less employee satisfaction and production (Leithwood. 1992: 8-12).

Autocratic leadership gives leaders the opportunity to make decisions alone and to tell subordinates what to do, how, and when to do it. Worker participation in planning and implementing goals is inhibited. Although there is close supervision of worker and push of production, leaders stay aloof from the group. The strengths of this leader behavior are more production and quick decisions. Resistance to change, hostility, dependence and indifference among subordinates are some weaknesses of the style (Owens. 1970: 224-230, Cotton. 2003: 43-45).

Leithwood (2009: 43) indicates that leaders exhibiting democratic leadership behavior emphasize concern for human relationships. They participate in group activities, seek suggestions, involve non-leaders, delegate authority, and permit followers to participate in decision-making process. The democratic style of leadership is grounded on the belief that professional personnel and other staff are people who know enough and bring different skills to do the right thing. Advantages of this approach are several. Some of these are friendliness, increased morale, and job satisfaction for all group members, higher quality decisions and commitment to those decisions; clearer communication among members; and personal and professional growth as a result of participating in the decision-making process. The main problems are that leaders may sometimes be tempted to abandon individual responsibility and the approach slows down the decision-making process as group involvement requires time (Owens. 1970: 224-230, Blasé. 1987: 9-11).

Over the years as the terms *laissez-faire*, autocratic, and democratic seemed to have been used adequately and inadequately, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999: 679-706) have developed another group of terms to describe leadership behaviors in an attempt to avoid

any such connotations. The terms are nomothetic, idiographic, and transactional leadership. The nomothetic leaders emphasize role expectations and the needs of organization. The idiographic leaders pay attention to individual personality and need dispositions, transactional leadership maximizes and minimizes both organizational roles and personal needs of staff members as the situation demands. Consequently, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999: 679-706) have maintained that effective leaders must “integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling.”

Today, educational leaders face a growing number and complexity of demands; as a result, they overlook certain fundamental leadership behaviors that they need to be exhibiting. If they are to achieve maximum effectiveness in moving their organization and its members to accomplish desired goals and attain the organization’s mission, they must focus attention to and exhibit the desirable leadership behaviors. Effective leaders must ensure that jobs within the organization are clearly defined. They must be aware of what they and their members are capable and not capable of doing and assist staff members to set realistic and attainable goals (Marks & Printy, 2003: 370-397).

It is important that members of the organization have clear understanding of their job responsibilities. Leaders must infrequently remind staff members of their role as well as occasionally refocusing their attention on the essential tasks. In addition, leaders have the responsibility to clearly define the organization’s mission to its members once it is established. Helping staff members understand the mission enables them to be more committed to and more adequate in accomplishing the task (Leithwood et al. 1999: 171-173; Hallinger, 2003: 103).

According to Ross and Gray (2006: 195-242), since the school is a complex organization, leaders must help every person in the organization become aware of the

various organs and what others in the system are doing. The awareness of the roles and duties of each other is not only cohesiveness, and sharing of decisions by consensus that gives the group a plan.

Leaders must encourage autonomy. Members of the organization will contribute immeasurably to the organization's goal when they are giving discretion and are involved in planning and implementing school goals. Educational leaders must recognize that their followers are knowledgeable professional people and that they are more committed and accept responsibility for what they took part in planning. They must also realize that much more can be gained by professional stimulation and cooperation than by force and coercion since force and coercion hamper creativity and commitment (Bandura. 1996: 96-107).

Open communication must be nurtured. Communication is essential to integration of the psychological system of the individuals and in maintaining the interpersonal relations of school staff. Through communication staff members will acquire understanding of what the organization expects them to accomplish and how, as well as how the organization plans to achieve its objectives. This in turn will help the individuals to feel comfortable in getting the job done. Leaders must be open-minded and trust the creative capacities of their staff to work cooperatively in an atmosphere of trust to nurture support top to bottom level (Leithwood et al. 1999: 171-173, Hallinger. 2003: 103).

Leithwood and Jantzi (1999: 679-706) recommend that the educational leaders must support a climate which allows members of the organization to participate in the decision-making process. Leaders do not need to make all decisions. There are some decisions that members are capable of making; they should be encouraged to make those decisions and allowed to share their expertise and knowledge through an open

communication by meeting in groups. Staff members heighten their awareness by participating in the decision-making process in all areas of the total school environment, thereby enhancing their professional development.

Recognition of staff accomplishments is an important leader behavior. Leaders must provide a means of recognizing staff performance and other achievements. This will convey to employees that the organization cares and recognizes all they do. Recognition of staff members strengthens their morale even more than money (Blasé, 1987: 9-11). Also, school directors, as leaders at the school-building level, are in a position to promote and maintain school climate where teachers can function effectively and where students can learn. The key is being sensitive and having the ability to respond to concerns, expectations, and existing status quo or introducing new expectations and conditions. By becoming aware and sensitive to staff members' concerns and expectations, directors can choose suitable leader behaviors to respond to them.

A study of Roesner and Sloan (1997: 68-69) has indicated that there is no consensus among administrators and teachers concerning a director's behavior. Sara (1991: 29) finds that significant differences exist in the way teachers and directors describe the real leader behavior of the director. According to Caldwell and Spaulding (1990: 9-10)'s study, director leadership behavior has an effect on teacher militancy. Subsequent to these findings, it would be helpful for directors to know the perception of teachers and to refine such behaviors that do not encourage healthy relationship. Besides, Roesner and Sloan (1997: 69) observe no significant differences in the perception of a director's leadership style between directors by school size. But significant differences between directors and selected subordinates by school size have been reported.

In summary, it is believed that the educational leaders must constantly be aware and assess their interactions with those they are supervising and the situation in which leadership is being effected in order to keep abreast of the subtle, as well as more visible behaviors that may facilitate or impede their ability to provide adequate leadership. They must be aware of the need to make their staff more motivated and to make interpersonal communication more effective. In developing a quality supervisory approach, leaders must exhibit a supportive attitude that will provide human growth opportunities for all their staff as they cooperatively work towards successful attainment of educational goals.

Effective School Directors

The school directorship is very important for effective schools, because a school director can help to change, adapt, and prepare a school to have a cultural climate that is appropriate for the 21st century. Historically, leadership behaviors in education are influenced by the development and changes of society, economy, politics, and technology. In the 1920s and 1930s, Beck and Murphy (1992: 387-396) saw school directorship behavior as being forced by common sense-tempered, pseudo-religious beliefs about education's purposes and the contemporary force of scientific management. After World War II, two factors influenced school directors: the administrative theory movement and the opening of schools to a host of community concerns. By the 1960s, schools were in the midst of a social revolution. The school directorship was influenced by social and political turbulence although the conception of schools as rational, goal-driven systems dominated thought and practice. School directors were viewed as having

a specific role, differentiated by training, duties, and responsibilities within these systems.

In the 1970s, external factors exerted a heavy influence on administrative thought and practice. Schools are opened to outside scrutiny and governance. School directors were expected to be skillful in a number of roles. In the 1980s, school directors responded to communities which wanted to involve and educate “non-students” and sought to address not only academic issues but also psychological, physical, and social concerns. In the 1990s, schools were projecting changes for the 21st century. Change in education and the world lead logically to the development of particular metaphors for the school directorship in the 1990s and beyond. Many of the metaphors applied to the school directorship in the early 1990s grew directly out of the second wave of educational reform – the restructuring movement. The most important metaphors emerged to describe the school directorship were as follows: school director as leader, school director as servant, school director as organizational architect, school director as architect, school director as educator, school director as a moral agent, and school director as person in community (Beck & Murphy. 1993: 190). Major challenges confronted school directors who wished to shape activities that would carry them through this decade and into the next century.

Leadership of Effective School Directors

Research has long recognized the important role the school director plays in the success of a school. Edmonds (1979: 15-24), an Assistant Superintendent in New York City, identifies five characteristics which are needed for schools to successfully teach all children. At the top of his list was a strong school director who was dedicated to improving achievement. Edmonds believed that behind every successful school was a successful leader – the school director.

Valentine and Bowman (1991: 1-7) state that school director's leadership is a major factor contributing to schools that were effectively instructing students.

Additionally, William Bennett, Secretary of Education in 1987, recognized the crucial leadership role of the school director. He wrote in the United State Department of Education's School Director Selection Guide as follows:

Selecting good leadership is always important, but is absolutely essential when they from the educational vanguard that will lead our country into the 21st century. During the next ten years, almost half of all current school directors will retire. The quality of the men and women who take their places will greatly influence the kind of education we enjoy, and eventually, the kind of society in which we live. The leadership they provide will determine, to a large extent, what kind of teachers are recruited, how many good ones stay in the profession, and how many ineffective ones leave. We must take this opportunity to fill our schools with dynamic, committed leaders, for they provide the key to effective schools where we will either win or lose the battle for excellence in education. (1987: iii)

Sergiovanni (1995: 214-218; 1997: 23-27) states that the definition of a school director's roles and responsibilities have changed over time. Traditional definitions focused on the administrative processes and functions that must be emphasized for schools to work well. Effective school directors, for example, are responsible for planning, organizing, leading, and controlling. Planning means setting goals and objectives for the school and developing blueprints and strategies for implementing them. Organizing refers to bringing together the necessary human, financial, and physical resources to accomplish goals efficiently. Leading has to do with guiding and supervising subordinates. Controlling refers to the school director's evaluation responsibilities and includes reviewing and regulating performance, providing feedbacks, and otherwise tending to standards of goal attainment.

On the other hand, Thomson (1993: 121-126) proposes 21 domains for effective school directors. The formulation of this new knowledge and skill base for the school directorship established that school directors are also professionals, meaning they must have certain essential knowledge in order to act professionally. The National Policy Board developed the essential knowledge and skills included in the 21 domains according to the school directors' tasks and behaviors. Eleven domains were about process or were skill oriented, and ten domains focused on the synthesis of knowledge and skills. The effective school directors must be strong leaders in shaping school culture and values, sharing their vision while performing the specific tasks.

Recently, Rossow and Warner (2000: 690-695) presents the role of school director as leader in terms of three requisites: personal requisites, functional requisites, and contextual requisites. The personal requisites include modeling, consensus building, and feedback. Personal requisites refer to the behaviors of school directors needed for modeling as authority figures so that teachers and students would tend to imitate their actions, attitudes, and beliefs. The consensus building is the school director's behaviors that should encourage teachers to meet the school achievement together with high expectations of success.

Finally, the school director's role in feedback is the provider of basic stimulus-response psychology. Teachers' and students' trust would be rewarded for things done correctly; this was positive feedback. Functional requisites support school directors' personal characteristics by successfully monitoring the overall progress of the school. Contextual requisites demand that school directors learn to operate within the variables of community and school district philosophies. The school director's personal beliefs and previous experiences would influence decisions and activities as an instructional leader.

Effective School Directors in High Schools

The tasks and roles of school directors in elementary or high schools are specified, because serving the needs and stimulating the achievement of elementary or high students differs from other levels of students. The National Association of High Schools School directors (NAHSP) (1986: 2-23) provides a list of tasks and roles of high school directors which contained 74 proficiencies grouped into 10 categories that define expertness in the school directorship. These categories are: 1) leadership behavior, 2) communication skills, 3) group process, 4) curriculum, 5) instruction, 6) performance, 7) evaluation, 8) organization, 9) fiscal, and 10) political. Examples of proficiency in the first category are: inspired all concerned to join in accomplishing the school mission, applied effective human relation skills, and encouraged the leadership of others. Apart from leadership behavior, communication skills are very essential for school directors. NAHSP described proficiency in the communication skills category as follows: persuasively articulate their beliefs and effectively defend their decisions, write clearly and concisely so that the message is understood by intended audiences, and apply facts about data to determine priorities (Sergiovanni. 1995: 4-6).

Bradley (1988: 8-33), Scheerens (1992: 21-25), and LaPointe and Davis (2006: 16-38) propose 17 characteristics of effective school leaders in primary schools are as follows: 1) having a clear thinking vision and a sense of direction, 2) having the ability to see the whole picture, 3) being a competent planner and having the ability to get things done, 4) having a good relationship with people; 5) driving for achievement, 6) possessing intelligence, breadth and maturity, 7) having the ability to inspire and engender excitement about the work, 8) being concerned with what was happening in this classroom and the centrality of learning and teaching, 9) encouraging collegiate approaches, teamwork and sharing decision-making, 10) dealing effectively with

problems; 11) setting high expectations for self and teachers, 12) encouraging active reflection about teaching on the part of staff, 13) encouraging appropriate staff development; 14) accepting professional accountability, 15) encouraging parents to support the work of the school, 16) being well organized and making effective use of time, and 17) continuing to be a leader (Dean. 1999: 38-39).

However, Becker et al. (1971: 44-49) state that, according to high school directors, the most critical problem are the general ambiguity of the position in the education community. The central office and the teachers within a building and the parents, too, felt this ambiguity. Those school directors were affected by the nature of their positions, which performed a particular role within a school district. Becker et al. (1971: 50-56) proposed that the process through which goals were affected, policies were implemented, and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the school was achieved.

To conclude, school directors are very important (Sergiovanni. 1987: 213-226) at all school levels. They do their work and implement their leadership to achieve the goals and objectives of schools. The activities of school directors bring them into direct contact with teachers, students, staff, parents, and community (Lunenburg & Ornstein. 1996: 43). Thus, a school director's behavior affects all these groups. The perception of the school director's behaviors on the part of teachers who interact very closely with the school director is very important, because teachers need to cooperate with and support the school directors. The role, function and leadership of elementary school directors differ from leaders at other school levels. High students are young and innocent. They need special care, treatment, and education appropriate to their age. High school directors and teachers need to serve their particular needs.

Thus, the leadership employed by both high school directors and teachers should be different from the leadership in a high school, for example. Additionally, learning

and teaching systems of elementary education will be the foundation for further education of these students. According to Summary Report on the Education, Youth and Sports Performance in the Academic Year 2009-2010 (MoEYS, 2011b), the learning and teaching system of higher education emphasizes the learning process and lifelong learning so students can learn by themselves for the rest of their lives. Relatively, this focus is new in Cambodian education. Both high school directors and teachers, therefore, need to employ effective leadership to improve and change the traditional learning and teaching system and find new ways to academically achieve effective schools so that the schools are, as the summary stated, “reformed.”

The Roles and Responsibilities of Today’s Effective School Directors

The job description of today’s school directors, list numerous duties. Matthews and Crow (2003: 112-116) describe the school director in seven terms. First, the school director is a learner. As the learner, the school director thinks and creates knowledge. Next, the school director is a leader. The school director is the leader of the organization as well as the leader of learning. The school director maintains a culture in which learning was valued and shared. The school director is also seen as a mentor. This role involves helping students, teachers, and staff grow. The school director, as the supervisor, supervises and evaluates teachers as well as the school instructional program. The school director as the manager handled facilities, programs, activities, and reform. The school director is also seen as a politician. This role extends beyond the school into the community as the public relations manager of the school. The school director as advocate ensured that every child received the education he/she deserved.

In 1994, the National Association for Elementary School Principals (NAESP), the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA), and 23 state departments of education developed standards for school administrators. Two years later

the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISSLC) was created by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) in order to provide a set of standards to improve education in public schools. These standards are research-based, “focusing on indicators of knowledge, dispositions, and performances” (Kaplan, Owings, & Nunnery. 2005: 28-44) thought to be important to effective school leadership. The ISSLC (2008: 31) framework “redefines school leadership to reflect principals’ present leadership roles that centers on enhancing teaching and learning and creating powerful learning environments.” The ISSLC standards state what a school director should know and be able to do. These standards, which were revised in 2008, are used in many administrative preparation programs in more than 30 states.

Observationally, directorship today is complex and has evolved into a role that must address student achievement. Standards can be seen in university programs, assessment procedures for school directors and other administrators, and the development of professional learning for administrators (Doud & Keller. 1998: 76; Education Resource Service. 2000: 43). Many states have adopted the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA) which is developed from the ISSLC standards. These standards have helped principals develop goals and increase behaviors in different areas. The ISSLC standards have become road maps to keep school directors growing and learning as well as enhancing their leadership behaviors. Figure 2.2 describes the standards.

Standards	Descriptions
Standard 1	An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.
Standard 2	An educational leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
Standard 3	An educational leader promotes the success of every student by ensuring management of the organization, operations, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment.
Standard 4	An educational leader promotes the success of every student by collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs and mobilizing community resources.
Standard 5	An educational leader promotes the success of every student by acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner.
Standard 6	An educational leader promotes the success of every student by understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context.

Figure 2.2 ISLLC Standards (CCSSO. 2008: 20-30)

In summary, that the school directors greatly impact all areas of school life, including their critical roles in the effectiveness of their schools. Also, the effective schools are related to effective school directors see themselves as responsible for their schools. As such, they have high expectations for teachers, hold teachers accountable for their classrooms, and make teachers accept responsibility.

Contemporary Leadership Theories

Leadership in any organization is very crucial, especially in today's rapidly changing world. Leadership has long been studied and many researchers have tried to develop the most appropriate theory of leadership. A sampling of contemporary theories will be reviewed.

Definitions of Contemporary Leadership Theories

The definition of leadership, according to Yukl (1998), is not totally clear; numerous definitions have been put forth by individuals interested in this phenomenon. Bass (1990: 19-31) gives an in-depth review of the leadership literature and concluded, “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” Hemphill and Coons (1957: 7) define leadership as “the behavior of an individual ... directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal.” Katz and Kahn (1978: 528) propose that leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.” Rauch and Behling (1984: 6) explain that leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement.” And, Hosking (1988: 147-166) emphasizes behavior by sharing that leaders are those who consistently make effective contributions to social order by those who are expected and perceived to do so.

However, Heifetz (1994: 13) offers an interesting idea about leadership that he called adaptive work. Adaptive work consists of the learning required to address conflicts in the values people hold, and asks people to learn new ways. Leaders mobilized people to face problem, and communities make progress on progress on problems because leaders challenge can help them do so. Also, Schein (1992: 2) relates leadership to change, saying that leadership ... is the ability to step outside the culture ... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.”

Hoy and Miskel (1987: 23) describe leadership as a social influence process in which one person exerts influence over another. Lunenburg and Ornstein (1996: 114) conclude that there are two significant concepts of leadership. The first concept is that “leadership is a relationship between two or more people in which influence and power are unevenly distributed. The second concept is that leaders do not exist in isolation.”

They need to work with their peers or teachers. As Senge (1990: 340) wrote in *The Fifth Discipline* as below:

The new view of leadership in learning organizations centers on subtle and more important tasks. In a learning organization, leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers. They are responsible for building organizations where people continually expand their capabilities to understand complexity, clarify vision, and improve shared mental models—that is, they are responsible for learning.

Leaders provide guidance to organizations, especially to schools. Currently, at least seven contemporary leadership theories are employed widely in both business firms and schools. They are the following: reframing in an organization (Bolman & Deal, 1997: 65-69); the relational model of leadership (Drath, 1996: 31-38); vertical dyad linkage model (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975: 46-78); reciprocal influence theory (Gray & Starke, 1991: 67); substitute leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978: 375-403) and (Hovell & Dorfman, 1986: 29-46); transformational leadership (Burns, 1978: 98); and the practices and commitments of leadership conceptualized as the leadership challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 1997: 124-129).

Reframing Organizations

Accordingly, Bolman and Deal (1997: 88-95) propose that the practice of reframing in an organization reframing would add to organizational effectiveness. They propose that organizational theories could be divided into four perspectives or frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Each frame contributes a way for leaders to view problems and dilemmas within organizations.

From the first of those perspectives, the structural frame, leaders typically emphasizes rationality, goals and efficiency. Bolman and Deal (1997: 88-95) argue that from the structural perspective effective organizations have clear goals, divide people

into specific roles, and coordinate various activities through policies, rules, and chain of command. Valuing analysis as well as data, structural leaders watch the bottom line, give clear instructions, hold people accountable for results, and tackle organizational problems with systems, policies, rules, and restructuring.

According to Bolman and Deal (1997: 88-95), the human resource frame focuses attention on human needs assuming that organizations which meet basic human needs and coordinate work with people will be more effective than those that do not do this. Valuing relationship and feelings, human resource leaders require using openness, participation, and empowerment. They tend to define problems in individual or interpersonal terms, looking for ways to change the organization to fit people or to change people to fit the organization possibly, through training and workshops.

From the political frame, organizations are seen as arenas of ongoing conflict and competition for scarce resources between groups with various schedule and interests. Valuing pragmatism and realism, leaders operating out of the political frame are advocates and negotiators. They spend a great deal of their time networking, making coalitions, building a power base, and structuring compromises (Bolman & Deal. 1997: 88-95).

The symbolic frame views a chaotic world in which meaning and predictability are social creations, and facts can be interpreted in ways that are not objective.

Organizations create cultural symbols that quietly shape human behavior and give a shared sense of mission and identity. Through charisma and drama, leaders operating from the symbolic frame inspire enthusiasm and commitment, while paying close attention to myth, ceremony, ritual, stories, and other symbolic forms (Bolman & Deal. 1997: 88-95).

As educators, we must ask this question: How do we aid school directors in gaining flexibility to use the various perspectives, and increase school directors' skills as multi-frame leaders? From this researcher's viewpoint, schools are complicated dynamic organizations that school directors as school leaders cannot lead effectively from only one perspective. They need to use many perspectives as suggested by Bolman and Deal (1997: 88-95) in order to encourage changes, improvements, and reform in schools.

Relational Model of Leadership

Drath (1996: 31-38) proposes the relational model of leadership. A relationship of people arises when people participate in an activity or work together. Leadership is created by people making sense and meaning of their work together. Leaders and followers could cooperate in their organization. Both learned how to participate effectively in the process of leadership together. In the process of people becoming participants, they are making sense and meaning of their work together. They learn how to take responsibility, how to make decisions, and to understand authority. "Leadership in such an organization can be understood as the meaning-making of the whole structure of interdependence, agreements, work flows, decision streams, sense-making protocols, and problem naming and solving methods by which the interlinked teams create marketable product" (Drath. 1996: 3). The leader and the followers need a model to allow development and adaptive change continuously. A new model of leadership practice as relational leadership could help leaders to extend the new way to continue to develop our ability to work together.

Drath and Palus (1994: 231-240) define leadership as a process of connecting people to one another and to some social activity, work, and enterprise. They present the people in positions of authority from the meaning-making perspective in five concepts as follows: 1) influence could lead people in positions of authority to view the leadership

process effectiveness related to the individual in leadership, 2) move from individual leader action on followers to people participating in a shared process, 3) move from motivate the people by need to increase the followers feelings of significance and the actual importance to the organization, 4) the relationship between authority and leadership in the exercise of power and the organization effectiveness, and 5) the new understanding of the people's role proposed the relational model of leadership, a model created by the interaction of leaders as well as followers. Leadership occurs in the relationships people form while they are doing something together. A relational model calls for different organizational practices.

Leadership is being created by people working together and arises as a property of their collective effort. Individual leadership is the idea that a leader is a single person. Relational leadership is the idea that leadership is a property of a social system, because of the way it arises in the systematic relationships of people working together (Drath, 1996: 31-38). Relational leadership, according to Drath, is a "new way to think about leadership" (Drath, 1996: 4). He explains that we commonly assume that leadership is a quality or an ability of a person rather than a phenomenon that happens to people. This assumption may keep leaders from acting out difficult ideas, such as shared leadership, self-managing teams, and decision-making at the operational level.

Meaning making, according to Drath (1996: 31-38), is a common practice among Generation X leaders, as well as people starting up smaller companies. It is a process where leadership becomes a group project and one that makes it clear that leaders do not exist alone without followers.

Vertical Dyad Linkage Model

Another approach to leadership is vertical dyad linkage (VDL). This leadership approach sees leadership as an exchange developing in the vertical dyad, which is the

leader/follower relationship over time during role-making activities (Danserau, Graen & Haga. 1975: 46-78). Two major assumptions accompany this theory: 1) members of an organizational unit reporting to the same superior or leader-one-dimensional-and can be considered a single unit, and 2) a superior acts the same way toward each of his/her member. Clearly, VDL in more recent years has been change somewhat and renamed the leader-member exchange model (LMX). LMX is based on the idea that role-development will naturally result in differentiated roles and, therefore, in a variety of leader-member exchanges. In this LMX, the leader develops a close relationship with only a few key subordinates (Dienesch & Liden. 1986: 618-634). Leadership theories mainly propose that an authority figure acts in the same manner toward all members or workers of a work group.

Commonly, the VDL theory looks like a dyad, with each leader-subordinate relationship by itself instead of the leader group. Each leader-subordinate relationship will be a different quality; therefore, a leader could have a poor personal relationship with some subordinates and an open relationship with other subordinates. These dyads, or paired relationships, could be in-group pairings.

In the dyadic relationship, the leader begins either an in-group or out-group relationship with an organization's members. In-group members are decision makers and have more responsibilities in their relationships; leaders raise the special subordinates to roles of "trusted lieutenants." These subordinates have more leadership and benefits on the job, including taking part in making decisions and communication, and have greater confidence in the superior. The subordinate is able to have a say in his role, although it is a non-contractual exchange. This special subordinate, in turn, puts in more time and effort, accepts more relationships, and has a part in the success of the organization. In contrast, the out-group members are kept within their formal contract

restraints; group members are bound by their contracts. The subordinates' out-group members are "hired hands" who do not perform outside their duties; they are bound by their contracts as a result of the authority over them rather than leadership (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2000: 148).

Generally, Eden (1993: 271-305) states that both trait theory and situational theory concentrate attention on the leader, while the leader-member exchange model (LMX) focus is on the dyad. LMX does not assume leaders behave the same to every member of the group; therefore, members of a group will not report the same leader traits or behaviors, remarkably.

Graen (1976: 1201-1245) indicates that the role theory of Katz and Kahn (1996: 54) is the original theoretical base of the LMX. According to the theory, leaders accomplish their work through the role set, in which the leader is most influential. The leader communicates to the member a set of expectations regarding the appropriate role behavior of the member (role expectation). The member then receives and interprets these sent expectations (received role) and may modify his or her behavior. Finally, the member's role behavior transmits feedback to the leader (monitored behavior).

Burns and Otte (1999: 225) summarize LMX in a 3-phase model of leader-member roles: 1) in the first phase, role taking, the leader communicates the desired role to the member, with no reciprocal contribution from the member, 2) in the second phase, role making, the relationship continues to develop and both parties contribute to defining the role of the member. During role making, members of the dyad initially employ the process of organizing the roles. A traditional work unit becomes differentiated during role making, and 3) in the final phase, role reutilization, the nature of the exchange becomes routine and established, respectively.

Reciprocal Influence Theories

In the reciprocal influence theory, an organization's authority or influence not only flows from leaders to subordinates, it also flows reciprocally from the subordinate to the leader. The reciprocal influence states that leader behaviors can cause subordinates to act in certain ways, while subordinates' actions can modify a leader's behavior. Orderly, the trait theory of leadership, leadership behavior approaches, and contingency theories of leadership commonly share one underlying assumption – leader behavior affects subordinate behavior. Particularly in correlational studies, any association between leader behavior and group effectiveness has been interpreted as measuring the impact of the leader's actions on subordinate satisfaction, motivation, or performance.

More recently, however, it has been recognized that in any complex organization, the flow of influence or authority is not unilateral and downward – from leader to subordinate – but also upward from subordinate to leader. Additionally, Gray and Starke (1991: 219) state that certain leader behaviors in Reciprocal Influence theory cause subordinate behaviors, and certain acts of subordinates for example, low performance can cause leaders to modify their behavior.

Obviously, the reciprocal influence theory characterizes most organizations. For example, a dedicated school director who wants to raise students' achievement scores can closely supervise teachers who are not performing well. The school director can then allow those teachers performing their jobs effectively and loosely supervised. This example shows that subordinates are influencing the leader by their performance. In the same manner, the leader is influencing the subordinates. Consider a university dean who employs a volatile professor. The dean; therefore, has authority over the professor's performance and can order him to perform job-related activities, but they can

be afraid of the professor's volatile temper and change his leadership style because of that professor. In that case, the professor is possibly exerting more influence on the dean than the dean is influencing the subordinate.

Importantly, Szilagyi and Wallace (1994: 3-34) present several studies that support the theory of reciprocal influence between leaders and subordinates. The results are as follows:

1. Leader consideration or employee-centered behavior and a leader's positive reinforcement can result in employee job satisfaction.
2. Lower employee job satisfaction can be the result of production-centered leadership with rigid structuring.
3. Leaders must punish and exert initiating structure/production-centered leadership when subordinates perform poorly.
4. If a leader issues a positive reward, this leads to better performances by subordinates, but few studies have shown any conclusive evidence that leaders cause subordinates to change their performance. This observation shows the value of rewards as an influence in determining subordinate behavior.

In an organization, leaders and their subordinates engage in complex interactions; both leaders and subordinates influence each other. School administrators and researchers are interested in looking at and exploring this influence, especially when considering the leadership make-up in schools. This notion of leadership recognizes that leadership is about reciprocal, purposeful learning that allows participants in a community to construct meaning and knowledge together. In other words, leadership is the reciprocal processes that enable participants in a community to construct meaning that lead toward a shared purpose of schooling.

Substitutes for Leadership

The theory of substitutes for leadership has evolved in response to dissatisfaction with the progress of leadership theory in explaining the effects of leader behavior on performance outcomes. Kerr and Jermier (1978: 375-403) and Hovell and Dorfman (1986: 29-46) studied the substitutes for leadership in their research; they demonstrated that, in many instances, leadership may be unimportant or unnecessary. Certain subordinates, tasks, and organizational factors are substitutes for leadership, thus neutralizing the leader's effect on his subordinates.

Subordinate experience, ability, and training could be a substitute for instrumental leadership. Professionals, such as teachers, may have experience, ability, and training, and they may not need instrumental leadership to perform their jobs effectively. Leadership acts then become unnecessary and could be resented by the teachers; this activation can even cause the teachers' performance to suffer. When subordinates such as professional teachers do not seek or need the reward a leader could give, this cancels the wish for the leaders' role.

Some kinds of work, such as teaching, are very structured and immediate feedback is provided through students' oral and written responses; this feedback is a substitute for instrumental leadership. When tasks are intrinsically satisfying, such as teaching, there is little need for supportive behavior on the part of the leader to make up for poor design. Lastly, if an organization is composed of clear goals—for example, through plans, rules, policies, and standard operating procedures—the structure itself lessens the need for instrumental leadership. This is particularly true in socio-technical and autonomous work groups in schools. Sometimes a strong union will have the same result with collective bargaining, limiting an administrator's position of power.

It appears that leadership matters most when substitutes are not present in the subordinates' skills, task design, or the organization's structure. When substitutes are present, the impact of leadership is cancelled out.

Interestingly, when looking at transformational leadership, Bass (1997: 66-69) contrasts two types of leadership behaviors: transactional and transformational. According to Bass, transactional leaders decide what subordinates need to do to meet their own and the organization's objectives. The transactional leaders classify those requirements, help their subordinates gain confidence in order to attain the objective by making the necessary effort, and then reward them in accordance with their accomplishment. Transformational leaders, in contrast, motivate subordinates to exceed their own expectations. They accomplish this in three ways: 1) by raising subordinates' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes and about the method to use in order to achieve the goals, 2) by getting followers to go above their own self-interest for the sake of the team, the organization, and 3) by raising subordinates' need levels to the higher-order needs, such as self-actualization, or by expanding their portfolio of need.

In summary, these theories are enhancing the understanding of the complexity, subjectivity and dynamic of leadership. Also, they overviewed the basic theoretical approaches of today's leadership research. These approaches conceive leadership as an interactive and complex process. Leadership is understood as the product of complex social relationships embedded in the logic and dynamic of the social system.

Teachers' Perceptions of Effective School Directors

Teachers interact with school directors on a daily basis; therefore, teachers are the first persons who provide direct, relevant, and useful information for the school director. The teachers' perceptions of leadership employed by school directors can lead to effective practice of the school directorship, if school directors use this information to change and adapt their leadership behaviors. When school directors pay attention to teachers' perceptions, schools will become more effective, teachers will be more satisfied with their jobs, teachers will trust school directors, and school directors will have credibility with their teachers.

Teachers' Perceptions

Educators have conducted studies to determine effective leadership behaviors of school directors. Ubben and Hughes (1992: 32-37) state that the teachers who work closely with school directors were asked to provide this information. Also, Daw and Gage (1967: 181-188) examine teachers' perceptions of effective school directors by obtaining information from the teachers. They also examine the effects of teacher feedback on the school directors' behaviors, and how teachers felt about the school directors' role. Teachers are asked to describe their actual school director and their ideal school director based on 12 roles of the following list: 1) encourages teachers with a friendly remark or smile, 2) gives enough credit to teachers for their contributions, 3) does not force opinions of teacher, 4) enforces rules consistently, 5) criticizes without disparaging the efforts of teachers, 6) informs teachers of decisions or actions which affect their work, 7) gives concrete suggestions for improving classroom instruction, 8) enlists sufficient participation by teachers in making decisions, 9) demonstrates interest in pupils' progress, 10) interrupts the classroom infrequently, 11) displays much

interest in teachers' ideas, and 12) acts promptly in fulfilling teachers' requests.

The results of the above research comparing the teachers' perceptions of their actual and ideal school director were analyzed and presented to the school director. After an appropriate time, Daw and Gage (1967: 181-188) conduct the same procedure as a follow-up study. The results indicated that the school directors changed their behaviors based on information provided by the teachers' responses.

Stevenson (1987: 49) studies how teachers perceive a school director's effectiveness. She concludes that the most significant attribute of a school director is the ability to communicate, especially in establishing the goals and directions of the school. Later, Stevenson (1989: 49) posits that school directors must have not only good speaking skills but also good listening skills. As Stevenson (1985: 49) states, "If our teachers' perceptions of us are strongly influenced by the way we communicate, this should take high priority as we strive to become more effective school directors."

In addition, Blasé and Anderson (1995: 99) present two other studies. In the first study, they saw a continuation of control-oriented leadership exercised through an open leadership style. In this study, although the teachers describe an open style of leadership, organizational goals are determined elsewhere, and school directors are expected to motivate teachers to achieve them. Here, they begin to see less emphasis on a "power-over" approach and more reliance on a "power-through" strategy, in which a more motivational, productive, and human school culture is nurtured, and goals developed largely externally are achieved through the motivation and manipulation of groups and individuals.

In the second study, Blasé and Anderson (1995: 106) remain within a transactional, power-through model, but see the beginnings of a "power-with" approach to leadership, in which some organizational goals are decided at school level by school

directors and teachers. This is made possible through the creation of shared governance structures and the introduction of site-based inquiry. The shared governance model described in this study has a long way to go to be a democratic, empowering site in which a power-with approach is dominant. However, the potential for teacher empowerment becomes apparent as shared governance models of school leadership gain acceptance.

Invaluable information from studies such as these will help school directors reflect on their own actions. The process of reflective practice has the potential for powerful enhancement of the supervisor-teacher interaction (Blasé & Blasé, 1988). Reflective practice is founded on the assumption that increasing awareness of one's professional performance results in a marked improvement of performance. A most important component in understanding effective school leadership is the understanding effective leadership from the perspective of those being served. In addition, effective schools need more effective teachers, and every school needs to guarantee that all teachers are given real opportunities and are encouraged to mature as positive contributors (Manogran & Conlon, 1993: 249-253; Brailsford, 2001). Teachers interact with school directors every day; therefore, teachers are the first persons who can give direct, relevant, and useful information to the school directors. School directors should be receptive to teachers' perceptions of them instead of fearing negative comments.

Teachers' Job Satisfaction

Workers' job performances often rely on job satisfaction. Teachers are no exception, since job motivation and performance are linked to job satisfaction (Lawler, 1973: 43; Leong & Vauz, 1992: 26-29). A number of factors contribute to job satisfaction such as pay, the work itself, promotions, supervision, the work group, and the work conditions (Luthans, 1989: 141-168). Thus, school directors need to consider

the physical and mental needs of teachers in order to receive high quality production from teachers who are satisfied with their jobs.

Obviously, Baughman (1996: 19-22) proposes that numerous studies on the relationship between the work environment or job climate and job satisfaction have been initiated by recognizing the valuable impact of job satisfaction on teacher behavior. Satisfaction with the work climate has been definitely connected to positive teacher performance, student achievement, work motivation, organizational commitment, teacher efficiency, and reduced teacher absenteeism (Bridges. 1980: 41-56; Reyes. 1990: 327-335; Hoy, Tarter & Bliss. 1990: 260-277; Reyes & Imber. 1992: 291-302).

Another study, Rodgers-Jenkinson and Chapman (1990: 299-313) explore the relationship between Jamaican elementary school teachers' job satisfaction and their school administration. Results have showed that school prestige was the best predictor of job satisfaction, with working conditions next; then, interpersonal relationships with peers; relationship with parents; and finally, organizational culture.

Ruhl-Smith and Smith (1993: 321-327) examine teacher job satisfaction in the rural area of the Texas Panhandle and found that over 90% of teachers were satisfied or very satisfied with teaching. The sample included 156 teachers from 15 small school districts with an average daily attendance of 200 or less. The factors which affected the level of satisfaction were respect for and the relationship with other teachers in the school, a positive attitude toward the students, and the teacher's involvement in governing the school. The positive comments from the teachers were due to small class size, student attitude, fellow teachers' collegiality, and the relaxed atmosphere. At the same time, negative comments showed the relationship with the school board, school closing, rural, and isolation were the reasons for dissatisfaction.

By interacting with the staff, a school director sets up the work climate; this can be accomplished by creating work procedures, the organization of the school, and by establishing work expectations for teacher. By looking at the organization, a school director can influence the teachers' job satisfaction after clearly discovering the specific organizational attributes that need special attention or improvement.

More interestingly, job satisfaction can do much more than helping retain teachers. It can improve the teaching, even if only indirectly. Smith and Bourke (1990: 213-218) found that teacher satisfaction plays an important part in alleviating job-related stress. This is important, they noted, because stress is so common for teachers. Nearly three-fourths of the respondents in a MetLife survey reported feeling job-related stress at least once or twice a week. Such stress can reduce teachers' commitment and effectiveness. Logically, Smith and Bourke (1990: 213-218) ask the important questions of parents: Would you rather have your child taught by someone who finds teaching challenging but rewarding, or by someone who dreads going into the classroom every day?

Intelligent school directors use their leadership skills to facilitate teacher job satisfaction. Teachers satisfied with their jobs are happy and will dedicate themselves to teaching, while at the same time these teachers trust their school director. The more teachers trust school directors, the more school directors will have credibility with teachers.

Teachers' Trust

To be fully effective professionals, persons must feel that they work in an environment of trust. In an atmosphere of trust, "we are able to work together to identify and solve our problems" (Blasé & Blasé. 2001: 23). Trust, viewed as a faith or confidence in others under a set of circumstances (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman. 1995:

709-734), is an elusive concept. Trust is established and maintained through a process of confidence building among professionals who make and keep an agreement. "Manifest trust is reflected in individual and collective commitments to contribute ideas and extra effort in support of school goals" (Henkin & Dee. 2001: 48-62).

In studies by Alutto and Belcasco (1972: 27-41) and Bennis (1967: 12-18), trust is perceived by teachers as the friendliness of their social atmosphere. Some researchers have visualized trust as a global personality trait (Rosemberg. 1956: 690-695; Rolter. 1971: 1-7), while others (Gamson. 19680: 54-59) have considered it from an organizational point of view.

Henkin and Dee (2001: 48-62) propose that the study of trust is very important in self-managed schools where school directors, teachers, and parents are equal partners. The members of their sample were the school director, teachers, staff, and parents in poverty-level elementary schools. The researchers indicate that trust was an important factor in strengthening relationships and performance. The importance of openness, honesty, and trust in teamwork at the school resulted in persons willing to contribute ideas and extra effort to support the school's goals. Although the students were in a low socioeconomic class, their academic achievements were on high level.

The significance of trust as a factor in the cohesiveness and effectiveness of teams in restructured schools is not completely understood (Ellis & Fouts. 1994: 45; Mayer, Davis & Schooman. 1995: 709-734). Stikin and Stikin (1996: 196-215) note that the "link between trust and organizational features-such as structure, formal role relations, or task characteristics-has only begun to be examined systematically." Bennis and Nanus (1985: 43) state that trust is the lubrication that makes it possible for an organization to work. It is hard to imagine an organization without some semblance of trust operating somehow, somewhere. An organization without trust is more than

an anomaly; it's a misnomer, a dim creature of Kafka's imagination. Trust implies accountability, predictability, reliability.

Trust makes it possible to examine motives and to have mutual understanding between each other when people interact. Gibb (1978: 20) develops the TORI theory, which explained trust of people within organizations. In such groups, trust functions as a lubricant to individual and social life. He explained the meaning of TORI as follows:

To trust with fullness means that I discover and create my own life. The trusting life is an inter-flowing and interweaving of the processes of discovery and creation. These processes have four primary and highly-interrelated elements: 1) discovering and creating who I am, tuning into my own uniqueness, being aware of my own essence, trusting me-being who I am (T), 2) discovering and creating a way of opening and revealing myself to myself and to others, disclosing my essence, discovering yours, communing with you- showing me (O), 3) discovering and creating my own paths, flows, and rhythms, creating my emerging and organic nature and organic nature, and becoming, actualizing, or realizing this nature- doing what I want (R), and 4) discovering and creating with you our inter-being, the ways we can live together in interdependent community, in freedom and intimacy-being with you (I). (Gibb. 1978: 20)

Trust is based on consistent dependable action over time. School directors can best develop trust by behaving consistently and by honoring their verbal commitments.

Credibility (Kouzes & Posner. 1993: 29-33) is about how leaders earn the trust and confidence of their constituents. It's about what people demand of their leaders and the actions the leaders must take in order to intensify their constituents' commitment to a common cause. Two factors top the list are improving product quality and enhancing service. Even achieving a perfect quality of products and services does not guarantee that businesses, public agencies, nonprofit groups, independent sector organizations, and communities will be successful in the next century, because constituents' demands and expectations change over time. It is the quality of leadership that is the common

foundation that will allow these organizations to anticipate and commit themselves to meeting the requirements of the future (Kouzes & Posner. 1993: 29-33).

Bergmann, Hurson, and Russ-Eft (1999: 115-116) propose that credibility and trust are hard to earn, easy to lose, and once credibility and trust are lost, they are hard to regain. This strategy is about making the right versus the expedient choice. Publicly revealing personal credibility and trust through a series of tests, leaders exhibit their willingness to face challenging situations.

Behaviors that destroy credibility and trust include playing it safe, unethical actions, passing the buck, blaming others, and flying off the handle. The best practices of the successful grassroots leader are as follows: 1) they make credible presentation, 2) they do the right thing, 3) they take on tough challengers; 4) they leverage strong emotions, 5) they believe in themselves.

Blasé and Blasé (2001: 468-478) conclude, “as successful shared governance school directors demonstrate, the challenge is to build a trusting environment by 1) encouraging openness, 2) facilitating effective communication, and 3) modeling understanding, the cornerstone of trust.”

In summary, it can be concluded that through school directors being leaders of their schools, leadership can occur at all levels in the school, and it is important that others in the school share the leadership functions. However, they guide, direct, and coordinate all school functions for the purpose of instructional effectiveness. They are also the key players in school improvement and change and the individuals employed full-time. Besides, leadership involves inspiring others, supporting and helping them to analyze and solve problems, encouraging them, and creating a situation of trust in which people feel they can safely try out new approaches.

Kouzes and Posner' Leadership Theory

The leadership theory conceptualized by Kouzes and Posner resulted in the development of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) to measure the extent to which leaders exert the five practices of exemplary leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) begin a research project in 1983 that focused on discovering what ordinary people did when they were at their personal best. Kouzes and Posner conducted over 550 in-depth interviews which led to thousands of leadership stories by managers, community and student leaders, government leaders, and others in non-managerial positions. The interviews led to the framework of the five best practices used by leaders: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart. The actions that make up these practices were then translated into behavioral statements that constitute the quantitative instrument, the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). These behavioral statements were based on theoretical research and in congruence with the Leadership Behaviors Index, personal success stories by leaders, and surveys.

Kouzes and Posner conducted preliminary interviews to discover personal best practices (LPI Online, 2007b). They then had thousands of constituents list the characteristics and values they admired most in leaders. A list of over 225 characteristics was formed but then narrowed to 25 characteristics with further questioning and analysis. From the 25 characteristics, four continually remained as the top characteristics with over a 50% response rate. Kouzes and Posner's (1990, 2002a, 2004) research findings indicate co-workers most valued honesty, competency, forward-looking, and inspiring as the top characteristics admired in leader. Honesty has been selected more than any other characteristic with a respondent rate of 88%.

These characteristics align with current research completed by McEwan (2003). However, she gave her constituents a list of characteristics comprised from previous research and asked them to pick the top ten characteristics they thought were essential for effectiveness. The characteristics that received the highest percentage of notes were communicator, educator, envisioner, and facilitator. “Overall, it can be said that respondents believed that highly effective school directors were mission-driven individuals with strong communication skills, a high level of knowledge about teaching and learning, and the ability to provide instructional leadership” (McEwan. 2003: xxvii). McEwan’s characteristics align with Kouzes and Posner’s top characteristics in the following ways: 1) honesty and communication, 2) forward-looking and envisioner, 3) competent and instructional leader, and 4) inspiring and facilitator.

Kouzes and Posner (2002a) list five best practices based on the demand for accountability, change in leadership environments, change in perception of leadership, and analysis of common behaviors and practices of leaders. Believing that leadership can and should be learned, Kouzes and Posner offer five best practices in their model; they are 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart. Kouzes and Posner’s practices focus not so much on who the leader is but, instead, on what the leader does. A detailed description of each of the five leadership components is provided as follows.

Modeling the Way

“Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and the respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan” (Kouzes & Posner. 2002a: 15). Effective leaders develop goals, a vision and expectations for an organization. This outlook requires the leader to decipher which outcomes are most important and through what means the end product will be achieved.

Leaders must be careful not to let the attainment of the vision and overall goal(s) overshadow the importance of the influence of the leadership behaviors one has on organizational relationships.

In essence, a leader must remember or set reasonable and achievable expectations. An effective leader must remember to set reasonable and achievable expectations. An effective leader cannot set reasonable expectations for an organization without first delving deep into personal values and beliefs. Kouzes and Posner state that “the quest for leadership, therefore, is first an inner quest to discover who you are, and it’s through this process of self-examination that you find the awareness needed to lead” (2006: 93). In order to do this, a leader must analyze and make critical judgments about himself and, most importantly, be honest about his attributes, abilities, and charisma. Shields (2005: 169) quotes Csikszentmihalyi suggesting as follows:

Being a leader requires first and foremost, knowing oneself. It means reflecting seriously on one’s own experience asking: What are the things that matter most to me? Who are the people I admire most? What kind of person do I definitely not want to be? What are the values I would not compromise under any circumstance?

Without honesty, a leader will have misperceptions about the effects his behavior is having on an organization. Covey (1991: 213) states that one must operate with the assumption that one does not have all the answers or all the insights and should value different viewpoints, judgments, and experiences the followers have. To lead an organization to success, the leader must be able to model acceptable behavior and expected outcomes, show enthusiasm and commitment, as well as accept criticism for improvements and take responsibility for mistakes. “Exemplary leaders go first. They

go first by setting the example through daily actions that demonstrate they are deeply committed to their beliefs” (Kouzes & Posner. 2002a: 14).

It is concluded that modeling the ways means the school directors show and act in such a way people should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. They create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow. Besides, people will follow a leader who inspires them. They also set interim goals so that people can achieve small wins as they work toward larger objectives.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

Standard 1 of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) (2008: 66) states: An education leader promotes the success of every student by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of vision of learning that is shared and supported by all stakeholders.

As Kouzes and Posner (2003: 13) state, “Leaders inspire a shared vision by envisioning the future and enlisting others in common vision.” Regardless of the changing role of leadership and additional responsibilities with which school directors have been in charge, they are responsible for articulation goals to move an organization into the future for increased academic achievement. School directors must get others to accept the vision as their own by examining and executing their core beliefs and building a community of inspired stakeholders. School directors need to know where the school is going to have a plan to get there, and recruit others to help achieve the vision.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2007a: 24), school directors communicate the vision to others and they, too, share the desire and passion to create something better for the future. Co-workers need to believe that the school director understands their needs and has a vested interest in the future. “Buy-in” can only be accomplished by the school director’s enthusiastic and energetic actions that communicate a commitment to the

organization and positive change for the future. “Leaders uplift people’s spirits with an ennobling perspective about why they should strive to be better than they are today.” (Kouzes & Posner. 2003: 3). Envisioning the future and enlisting others requires a school director to unify and focus people to what the outcomes could be, promote growth by allowing the means to reach the vision, and empower others to hold beliefs that they can make a difference (Zepeda. 2002: 12).

Kouzes and Posner (2007a: 7) state that having a vision for an organization is not a means to an end. A leader is not determined by this aspect alone. Determining an authentic vision for an organization, while setting intermittent and attainable goals, is only part of becoming an effective leader. “To enlist people in a vision, leaders must know their constituents and speak their language. People must believe that leaders understand their needs and interests at heart” (Kouzes & Posner. 2007a: 17). One can have a vision, but it may be unattainable without proper constituent support. “A person with no constituents is not a leader, and people will not follow until they accept a vision as their own. Leaders cannot command commitment, only inspire it” (Kouzes & Posner. 2002a: 15). An effective leader enlists support in the development of a vision by earning trust through credibility and character, thus giving empowerment and ownership, avoiding self-interests while focusing on the outcomes, and motivation others toward organizational goals.

In short, inspiring a shared vision focuses on means the school directors passionately believe that they can make a difference. They envision the future, creating an ideal and unique image of what the organization can become. Through their magnetism and quiet persuasion, leaders enlist others in their dreams. They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

Challenging the Process

As Kouzes and Posner (2003: 4) mention, “Leaders challenge the process by searching for opportunities and by experimenting, taking risks, and learning from mistakes.” Effective leaders take the initiative to challenge the status quo in order to better meet the needs of an organization. “Leaders are pioneers – people who are willing to step out into the unknown. They search for opportunities to innovate, grow, and improve” (Kouzes & Posner. 2002a: 17). They anticipate change and plan possible courses of actions. “Synergy is the state in which the whole is more than the sum of the parts. Principle-centered people are synergistic. They are change catalysts. They improve almost any situation they get into” (Covey. 1991: 37). Effective leaders recognize that a vision is not stagnant and, therefore, are innovative in taking risks and experimenting with new ideas that challenge established or traditional procedures.

Proactive leaders are risk takers. They encourage others to experiment while providing opportunities for the possibility of change. Leaders challenging the process create change through synergy thus creating a safe environment where co-workers feel confident amidst failed attempts. “Principle-centered people are constantly educated by their experiences” (Covey. 1991: 33). An effective leader will build confidence through incremental achievements thus providing a sound environment where others are willing and encouraged to learn from experimentation and failures (Kouzes & Posner. 2003).

It is summarized that challenging the process means the school directors search for opportunities to change the status quo. They look for innovative ways to improve the organization. In doing so, they experiment and take risks. They also know that risk taking involves mistakes and failures, they accept the inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.

Enabling Others to Act

Leadership is in the eye of the beholder. Effective leaders understand that realities are achieved based on team efforts and not isolated power. Leaders build mutual environments where all are empowered toward meeting goals, therefore increasing confidence, competency and capacity. “People are at the heart of any organization, particularly a school, and it is only through changing people – nurturing and challenging them, helping them grow and develop, creating a culture in which they all learn-that an organization can flourish” (Hoerr. 2005: 7).

Remarkably, effective leaders, the kind that people want to follow, don't gather things just for themselves; they do it in order to give it to others how to be leaders. These leaders teach the good of the organization by teaching others how to be leaders. These leaders teach others who exceed their own expectations. They do not hoard power but instead give ownership to others and teach them how to act on their own initiatives while providing scaffolds. Kouzes and Posner (2002a: 9) state that when a leader gives power away so that workers feel strong, capable, and committed, the workers are more likely to use their energies to produce extraordinary results.

In short, the enabling others to act means the school directors foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust among staff. They also strengthen others by sharing power and providing choices, making each individual feel competent and confident.

Encouraging the Heart

Effective leaders realize successful organizations are operated by employees who are motivated and exhibit high staff morale. Employees are motivated to perform at higher levels by personal and thoughtful acts of caring. However, this enhanced performance does not come without a concerted effort from the leader to uplift and

encourage worker continuously through difficult and trying times. Leaders encourage the heart of the constituents to carry on despite difficulties by showing appreciation for individual excellence (Kouzes & Posner, 2003: 19).

Leaders must understand the importance of their power influence over individuals and strive to inspire others by building a nurturing community through celebrations of successes. A climate of celebration will encourage and fuel will power. “Genuine acts of caring uplift the spirits and draw people forward. Encouragement can come from dramatic gestures of simple actions” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a: 19). Leaders must recognize others’ contributions publicly and genuinely. Pretentious celebrations are received as thoughtless and insignificant. Leaders must create and sustain team spirit by acknowledging individual accomplishments based on key values and milestones that maintain the focus of the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2003: 22).

As for encouraging the heart, it is meant the school directors encourage staff by recognizing contributions and celebrating values and victories while building a spirit of community. To keep hope and determination alive, the school directors also recognize contributions that individuals make.

In summary, the Kouzes and Posner’ leadership theory, called leadership practices inventory (LPI) is a tool to help the school directors to asses their leadership practices. The LPI assessment is able to identify strengths of the leader as well as to provide feedback such that the leader can set goals for improvement provides with information about leadership behaviors. It is consisted of 30 statements, six statements designed to measure each of five key leadership practices: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart, respectively. Six questions regarding leadership practices address each of the five leadership areas.

Country Context: Cambodia

Cambodia is a good case in point for this study as it is a developing country facing the complexities of improving the quality of basic education while reforming the educational system in light of decentralization.

The Background and Context

Geographically, Cambodia is a relatively small Southeast Asian country near the Gulf of Thailand. It has a land area of 181,035 square kilometers and is enclosed by Thailand, Laos, and Vietnam. Cambodia had 13.7 million inhabitants in 2005, in a country that is roughly five times the size of the Netherlands. The majority of the population lives in the countryside, but between one and two million Cambodians live in towns, of which over a million are living in the capital, Phnom Penh. Cambodia's population exists mainly of ethnic Khmer (85%). The rest of the population is formed by the Cham (Khmer Muslim 4%), Chinese, Vietnamese and a number of small ethnic communities living in the northeast, known as 'highland tribal people', but who belong to different tribes like the Phnong, Tomphoeun and Kroeung (Save Cambodia's Wildlife (SCW). 2006). Life expectancy is relatively low in the country, at 58 years for females and 54 for males (SCW. 2006). 60.8% of the population is below 25 years of age, while those over 65 years of age are under-represented at only 3.7%. There are more women than men, in a ratio of 6: 5. These unbalanced ratios are attributed to the Pol Pot regime, which lasted from 1975 to 1979, and the long civil war that followed it (SCW. 2006).

Historically, on 17 April 1975, the Khmer Rouge army, led by Pol Pot, marched into Phnom Penh and took over control of Cambodia from the Lon Nol regime. This power shift started the "Year Zero" era of the Khmer Rouge, with its killing fields and

harsh living conditions. Within hours of taking control of Phnom Penh, the Khmer Rouge soldiers started to evacuate the city. In the space of three days almost every city-dweller was deported to the countryside to work as a farmer in the fields. In the ideology of the Khmer Rouge, a peasant society like the ancient Angkor Empire was the ultimate goal to be achieved. In such a society there was no place for intellectuals, or anything that reflected their lifestyle. Almost two million people died during the regime, including the majority of Cambodia's intellectuals and educated people (Livingstone, 1996). During the period of Khmer Rouge control, there was no formal schooling and most educated people were systematically slaughtered. Many libraries, archives and other sources of knowledge were destroyed. Art collections did not have any value for the new rulers and were at best neglected or sold, and at worst, destroyed. Some intellectuals survived the harsh years by pretending to be uneducated in order to avoid detection and death.

Later on, on 7 January 1979, the Vietnamese overthrew the Khmer Rouge regime, after a relatively small offensive. The country was in a bad condition and soon after the start of the Vietnamese rule a famine took place: because of the turmoil after the defeat of the Khmer Rouge, there was not enough rice planted for the following season. In addition, the violence had not stopped, and civil war continued in parts of the country. This caused many people to flee to neighboring states, with most refugees seeking refuge in Thailand. Many Cambodians lived in the refugee camps for nearly ten years, until the Paris Peace Treaty of 23 October 1991 was signed and people were encouraged to move back to Cambodia, even though some parts of the country were still not safe. According to Peterse and Petri (2004), some Khmer Rouge factions remained active until 1994, but the 1996 Lonely Planet Guide for Cambodia describes many towns, the railway system and some roads as being "off-limits" to foreigners due to ongoing Khmer Rouge activity

(Taylor, Wheeler & Robinson. 1996). Anecdotal evidence from some Khmers suggests that the Khmer Rouge remained active in some parts of the country as late as 1998, which corresponds with Verkoren's (2005) findings that factions remained active until that year.

Nowadays, Royal Government of Cambodia (RGoC), together with donor organizations and NGOs, is rebuilding the country, which is finally at peace. Although the speed of the rebuilding process is relatively fast, life is only improving slowly for the people who live in more rural areas. Development of the cities, of which Phnom Penh is in the lead, is proceeding fast. The infrastructure in and between cities is improving and businesses and community systems are developing. Hand in hand with this progress, is the development of corruption. Corrupt practices make life harder for many, with the heaviest burden falling on the people at the lowest levels in the system. Official school fees, for example, are abolished, but have been replaced by unofficial school fees in at least some areas. On the other hand, RGoC is actively promoting "Education for All" and makes an effort to include children with disabilities in the education system. Clearly, negotiations are proceeding to develop a "Human Resource Management Plan". Capacity building plans are written and were recently officially approved. RGoC is making an effort to decentralize power to the provinces and districts. However, all these initiatives to improve the education system still have a long way to go.

Education in Cambodia

Globally, education refers to the process which knowledge, ideas and concepts are being passed down through generations. If we look at the past, we would see that education has been an invaluable weapon for mankind. It has played a major role in the development of any country and thus, people would say that prosperity of a country depends on the level of the education system used in that country.

Turning back the pages in the history books, one can clearly see that, in the 1960's, Cambodia used to have a very good education system. Under the reign of King Sihanouk, schools were built all over the country and education was spread far and wide to rural areas which the French colonists refused to do (Dy. 2004). Even, people from other ASEAN countries like Singapore, used to come to study here. However, during the civil wars and the Khmer Rouge period, many educated people were killed and countless documents were destroyed. As a result, after the Khmer Rouge period, Cambodia was left with a few professional teachers and learning materials. Therefore, all that Cambodia possesses nowadays is a very low-standard education system with lots of problems. These problems include poverty of the population, lack of budget and resources and finally, corruption.

RGoC, in 2010, officially released a plan for achieving Education For All (EFA) by 2015 - its fundamental thrust being to ensure that all Cambodia's children and youth have equal opportunity to access formal and non-formal basic education. One of the main policy objectives of this plan is "capacity building for decentralization through enabling operational autonomy of schools and institutions" (UNESCO. 2003: 1). For implementing its educational decentralization policy, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS) (2010) introduced a budget-allocation system to provide a school-operating budget to each school. Each school with the school-operating budget has been given autonomy over how to use the budget for school matters such as maintaining school buildings and purchasing educational equipment.

In its assessment of implementation of the policy, Asian Development Bank (ADB) (2010) emphasizes the importance of establishing systematized mechanisms for maintaining the accountability of the education sector for its performance to the various

stakeholders, especially parents and other community members. An ideal mechanism for maintain accountability is as follows.

In one school, the school director and other staff report the school's performance to the district education officer as well as to parents and other members in the community, the district education officer reports all the school performance records to the Provincial Education Director, and the Provincial Office of Education reports these records to the secretary in the central ministry. That is, the new budgeting system gives individual schools autonomy in their day-to-day educational activities, and at the same time, the accountability mechanism throughout the education sector enables the central ministry to monitor the progress of the schools.

A reason why MoEYS (2010: Introduction) places individual schools under an obligation to produce school performance records and school development plans, and to report them to the ministry is:

In the educational sector, the persons who make the students' educational achievement possible are the teachers and school directors. They are the direct provides of education to the children and youth, with the support from education management officers in the district, the province, and the Ministry. Therefore, in order to achieve success in school management, the teachers and school principals have to coordinate well to make the improvement in planning their own work in schools based on actual school information as well as on existing resource ability, and on availability of community support, and encouragement of managers at all levels.

Among school staff, the government regards school principals in particular as the lever bringing about "the greatest impact on policy implementation" (RGoC. 2010. 235). School directors are now responsible for various kinds of school activities from school administration such as integrating the national policy plan into school objectives to pupils' learning such as following up pupils' progress and evaluations (MoEYS. 2010).

In the centralized educational system, schools and school directors ran these school activities with little flexibility, or even they had no authority to determine some of the activities. Yet, the views on education have changed. MoEYS (2010: Introduction) emphasizes that the change should be brought about by school directors in collaboration with other teachers, and gives a reason why school principals have to cooperate more closely with other teachers as follows:

In Cambodia, especially after 1979 (after the period of the Khmer Rouge), people in communities contribute to schools in many way. ... Community support for Cambodia primary schools has been one of the important sources in education. ... Therefore, the school directors and staff have to cooperate more closely and play a significant role in acquiring support from the community, and using these funds effectively for yearly education programs and school activities.

In summary, Cambodia's education reforms have loaded new and additional responsibilities onto individual schools and school directors, and these responsibilities should be discharged in participatory styles in one way or another. This is a challenge for school directors given that they have never been tried on their ability to successfully manage their schools with little government intervention.

Challenges of Cambodian Schools

1. Financing Education at the School Level

In Cambodia, education at school level is largely financed by private contributions by households and communities, the share of which within the total amount of input to schools was approximately 60 per cent in 1997 whereas that of RGoC was less than 15 per cent, and enrolment at private schools is small as a proportion of the total (Bray. 1999). Also, apart from these private contributions, schools are traditionally taking advantages of Buddhist ceremonies and festivals held at the temples nearby in order to finance some of the school activities (Komai. 1997; Kim. 2001). The

considerably high share of private contributions compensates for the shortage of the government's provision.

RGoC; however, now prohibits schools from receiving financial contributions including tuition fees directly from parents because the government considers that the existence of this type of private contributions prevents some parents from sending their children to schools (MoEYS. 2010). In return for this prohibition, RGoC introduced the school-operating budget system. Yet, as ADB (2004) assesses, the Education Finance Management Committee (EFMC) in Cambodia, which is in charge of releasing the budgets to schools, has had less success in securing timely release of the funds. Davies (1990: 27-28), writing on Venezuela, comments that this kind of unreliable release of government funds is caused partly by the administrative procedures designed for use in ideal conditions where everything is predictable and controllable whereas in reality worn-out materials and frequent needs for building repairs are completely unexpected.

In addition to the unreliable release of the budgets, there is another difficulty which schools have to deal with. Pheng, Sovonn and Soly (2001) point out that notwithstanding the autonomy given to schools by virtue of the school-operating budgets, schools in Cambodia have almost no say in the budget preparation since the budgets provided by provincial offices of education in reality provide little else than the teachers' salaries. After the teachers' salaries are deducted from the budgets, there is little left for actual everyday school activities.

In regard to teachers' salaries the government now plans to increase the share of performance-based payment within the total amount paid as teachers' salaries, expecting that this will eliminate the need for informal parental payments to teachers (RGoC. 2010). For introducing this plan, the government plans to spend more public expenditure on education. Yet, an increase of public expenditure on education primarily for an

increase in the performance-based teacher salaries cannot resolve the difficulties of either little flexibility in the use of the school-operating budgets or the unreliable release of the budgets. These will remain as the challenges at the school level.

2. Regulating Education at the School Level

Related to regulating education at school level, one of the foremost changes is to formalize double-shift schooling for the purpose of a more efficient use of classrooms and thus expanding access to schooling (RGoC. 2010). On the one hand, approximately 65 per cent, i.e. more than 3,000 of the total number of primary schools in Cambodia operate on a double-shift while more than 100 schools operate a triple shift (RGoC. 2010). On the other hand, given the extensive migration to more urban areas, some of the schools in rural and remote areas are now stopping operating on a double-shift and starting to introduce multi-grade teaching.

More interestingly, double-shift schooling increases the supply of school places while avoiding serious strain on the budget (Bray. 2000). This system; therefore, seems to be one of the last resorts to help Cambodia to move toward EFA by 2015. However, to make this system work successfully, each school has to carefully organize and arrange its classes and timetables, and staffing and managing are particularly challenging in overlapping shift systems (Bray. 2000). In Cambodia, arranging classrooms and timetables, and deploying teachers between shifts are now responsibilities of schools, particularly of principals (MoEYS. 2010). Schools need to consider which teachers should teach in either the morning or the afternoon, or even all day long, and whether the same teacher should teach different grades in the morning and the afternoon. In regard to deploying teachers on a double-shift, Morefield (2003a) argues that if teachers work in the morning or afternoon, these results in two or three completely different sets of

teachers, which thus makes it difficult for principals to establish team building among teachers.

Specifically, multi-grade teaching seems to be relevant for the reason that around 40 per cent of the schools in Cambodia do not offer the full grade range (ADB. 2004). These incomplete schools are usually located in rural and remote areas, and repetition and dropout rates of the incomplete schools are higher than those of the schools offering the full range of primary grades (RGoC. 2010). For example, the dropout rates in rural and remote areas in 1997 were 15.2 per cent and 29.2 per cent respectively while that of urban areas was 9.2 per cent (MoEYS. 2000f). In spite of some advantages such as expanding access to schooling of children who otherwise would remain left out of schooling, multi-grade teaching can have disadvantages especially in terms of the quality of education.

3. Providing Education at the School Level

As Naidoo and Kong (2003) stated, provision of education differs from the financing of education in that the former deals with provisioning and managing the educational system while the latter relates to the sources of funding to maintain the system. The decentralization policy on education in Cambodia has made the responsibility of provision of education shared with schools. However, ADB (2004) assesses implementation of the policy and says that despite the fact that schools now annually receive the school-operating budgets and the allocations are to be adjusted to meet specific local circumstances, target setting and planning processes are still being driven by central allocation criteria with little room for flexibility at school level. ADB (2004: 23-24) continues: “[t]his constitutes a potential constraint on accelerating decentralization of education planning and management and greater dialogue between [schools] and communities on school performance oversight.”

It seems to be saying that more bottom-up approaches are required to contribute to the greater quality of education in terms of improving and accelerating the individual schools' accountability to the communities. Yet, the suggestion above does not consider the extent to which teachers and school directors possess professional capacity for taking on the responsibility to stimulate dialogues with communities and parents. Naidoo and Kong (2003: 26) indicate that without teachers with appropriate experience and ability in place, any educational system and reform are little more than "empty exercises" or "organograms decorating the walls of bureaucratic offices." Regarding teachers' professional capacity, the number of qualified teachers in schools in remote areas still remains 71 per cent while according to the governments' estimation, over 90 per cent of the teachers nationwide became academically qualified by 1999 (RGoC, 2010). Under such circumstances where there is a shortage of qualified teachers on the ground, particularly in remote areas, it is in doubt whether any system and reform for stimulating accountability to parents and communities could work successfully.

As for organizational structure, schools in decentralized systems have more school-based management structures than those in centralized systems (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). Financial resources determine what schools can or cannot do, and thus schools which raise revenue themselves such as those in Cambodia can also more or less control the distribution of these resources. For example, the rapid expansion of the number of pupils who enter schools requires individual schools to appeal to parents and communities as well as international NGOs and political parties to find any financial resources in order to build new buildings and equip schools with teaching and learning materials, which is often the principals' task (Morefield, 2003a). Therefore, according to Dimmock and Walker (2000), the decision-making processes and structures concerning

the distribution of these resources reflect leadership and management styles of the schools.

Curriculum as well as teaching and learning are at the heart of schooling. One of the characteristics of any curricula is their goal which varies in line with how and by whom the curricula are developed (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). However, in Cambodia although MoEYS (2010) states that schools and principals are responsible for developing curriculum plans, target setting and planning are still driven by the central ministry. Thus, individual schools and principals do not have enough capacity and flexibility to adapt the national curriculum to their own goals and targets. There may be little room for demonstrating leadership in this field.

Dimmock and Walker (2000) mention that the styles of teaching and learning affect, and are affected by, styles of leadership and management. Similarly, O'Leary and Nee (2001) analyze pupils in Cambodia, and say that they are given little, if any, opportunity to think independently or use their own initiative: passive learning is predominantly seen in schools in this country. Beliefs about education are formative in the development of learning processes: listening to the teacher, waiting for the teacher to start the lesson and copying the exercises from the blackboard. Also, formalizing multi-grade schools may further this attribute and the teachers' didactic teaching styles.

Challenges of Cambodian School Directors

1. Cambodian School Directors and Teachers' Perceptions

In accordingly to once with implementation of decentralized education management in Cambodia, school directors have been given an important say on matters concerning school management such as preparing school development plans and managing school-operating budgets. In regard to the school development plans, RGoC (MoEYS, 2010: 6) says that the processes of developing the plans should be

participatory, i.e. involving other teachers not only in their implementation but also in their planning processes:

The old-way is one-person plans and the other group or departments implement the plan. This takes a lot of time, create[s] misunderstanding, generate[s] poor relationships, and result[s] in sub-standard quality. The modern way is the responsible group plans and implements their work together. More ideas are combined into a common objective. The same people or group plan the work, and implement their plan. The result is then acceptable as expected and of a good quality.

As a result, a reason why the government encourages school directors to cooperate with other teachers is that changes in school structures towards better school performance require changes in management styles and collective will (MoEYS. 2010). MoEYS (2010) proposes that in order to prepare the school development plans which should be produced annually, Cambodian school directors have to list almost all the school activities planned within each school year, and then propose these planned activities to school support committees to obtain their consensus.

In reality, despite these rapid changes and increases in school directors' workloads, the school directors in Cambodia, have no training to become principals: before becoming the principals, they were in many cases assistant principals and appointed as principals by the ministry (Morefield. 2003a). Furthermore, Morefield (2004: 14) argues as follows:

Khmer [Cambodia] principals have little practice in building relationships with teachers, parents or especially children. Current relationships in education are hierarchical. The top people order the people below them, who order the people below them. It is the way the principals are treated by DOE [district office of education] and it is how they treat the teachers. Increasingly, however, they are hearing the message [from the central ministry] that they must change, that they must work to build relationships. But no one shows them how to do it.

Concerning with other teachers, not only in the implementation stages but also in the preparation processes, this style of school leadership and management is what the literature on school management and leadership reviewed earlier recommends as being effective and ideal. MoEYS (2010) intends that this leadership and management style motivates other teachers to work together in order to achieve their shared and common objectives. Yet, the government documents describing the school directors' new roles specially emphasize only an importance of collaboration with and participation of other teachers. They do not explain which school directors can mobilize other teachers' will to achieve the targeted goals of the schools. In other words, documents do not consider how other teachers react to this style of school director leadership and what kinds of interpersonal relationships the school directors in Cambodia, in general, possess with other teachers.

Besides, under representation of female teachers in management in schools is another concern when school directors attempt to stimulate other teachers' participation in decision-making. Davies (1992) notes that in decision-making positions in schools, female teachers are less influential than male teachers, and they are often assigned more private and caring tasks such as pupil welfare and school cleanliness while male teachers do more public work such as chairing meetings and making examination arrangements. In this regards, Global Campaign for Education (2003) states that the school directors in Cambodia need to pay attention to the possibility of this female under the representation, especially given the decline in gender parity within the active teaching force in Cambodia.

Additionally, MoEYS (2010) adds that the school directors in Cambodia have now become required to commit themselves to pupils' learning in classrooms, its assessment and evaluation as well as to school administration. In evaluation and

assessment, they are required to show pupils' and schools' performance and progress with some clear indicators. Accordingly, these indicators help school directors to understand how far their schools have progressed and have to go in order to achieve the set goals (MoEYS. 2010). As some of the reasons for this new task set to school directors, MoEYS (2010) says that pupil evaluation by school directors are for giving feedback to both other teachers and pupils, for modification of learning activities and for selection of pupils according to their needs. In order to realize this change, school directors and other teachers have to share as much information of pupils' academic performance as possible, which is another demanding challenge for school directors.

In this regard, Morefield (2004) notes that since school directors in Cambodia have been accustomed to seeing themselves just as managers who are responsible for the operations of their schools such as worrying about crumbling buildings and filling in the reports for the ministry, they feel uncomfortable with the concept of leadership which requires them to do something about teaching and learning. Morefield (2003b: 17) encapsulates this rapid change and increase in school directors' workloads as follows:

Things are changing very quickly for school directors in Cambodia. For many years after Pol Pot [the Khmer Rouge], the job of the school directors was simply to manage, to worry about the buildings, resources etc. It was the teachers' job to worry about teaching and learning. Now, they are encouraged to reach out to the community and engage them in school life and to expand their role to include teacher supervision. They are being asked to reach out to parents and to become a leader for teaching and learning. This evolution of the job is very challenging for some. Few of them have role models of strong school directors, so it is hard for them to picture what this form of leadership actually looks like.

2. Traditional Role of the School Directors

Traditionally, school directors in Cambodia have been limited to school building management and maintenance responsible for repairs and placing orders for school

supplies and learning resources with the appropriate authorities. The role of the school directors in Cambodia has traditionally been constrained by directives from the central office leaving little authority over school improvement initiatives. The school directors have been obliged to follow orders and mandates passed down from the Central and regional offices that define and determine the quality of education. The school directors have also been obliged to implement the national curriculum passed down from the central office without revision or modification. The school directors have had little or no authority over the management of school funds or procurement of school supplies and learning materials. Funds disbursed to the school have been managed by the regional office. Similarly, the procurement of school supplies and learning materials has been the responsibility of supply officers at the regional office. Also, school directors have had very little influence over hiring new teachers. Teachers have traditionally applied for jobs directly to the central office.

3. Cambodian Culture and Values

As for the hierarchically structured society in Cambodia, O'Leary and Nee (2001: 48) say the following:

In Cambodia society social stratification and differences in status are extremely important. Everyone knows, and needs to know, their place relative to that of others. This is exemplified through the everyday language people use to address each other which acknowledges their respective age and statuses.

Similarly, Ovesen (n.d., as quoted in O'Leary and Nee. 2001: 48) explains:

The all-pervasive guiding principle for Khmer [Cambodia] social life is the notion of hierarchy. All social relations are hierarchically ordered. The hierarchy is primarily expressed in terms of age. An elder is a person who has authority through his/her higher social status. Such status is not exclusively a function of chronological age, but is determined as the sum of a number of dimensions including-

apart from chronological age - gender, wealth, knowledge, reputation of the family, political position, employment, the character of the individual and religious piety. The social order felt to depend upon everyone observing the status hierarchy and keeping his/her place in it.

Besides, looking specifically at relationships between peoples' education levels and their social status, Robert (1993) notes that in Cambodia one's social class is defined by formal education, and given the fact that there are still few people with any appreciable level of formal education, only the very limited number of people with educational certificates do non-agricultural work such as running the machinery of business and working for the government, whereas large numbers of people remain farmers and simple workers. That is, the social structure of Cambodia having few people with a certain level of formal education contributes to people feeling that their social status is determined by employment, knowledge and positions.

In this regards, following Hofstede's (1980) notion of power distance, Cambodia is classified as a high power distance country, i.e. a country where people accept the fact that power is unequally distributed in society. To understand why Cambodians accept the unequal distribution of power, respect social status and even accept such highly divided social stratification, the country's historical background has to be looked at. Ayres (2000: 11-12) states that the historical background of the existing hierarchical structure in Cambodia goes back to the pre-colonial period. According to these quotations above, it clearly shows that a patron-client relationship has been embedded and cultivated in Cambodia since the pre-colonial period, and interpersonal relations between those higher-up and those lower-down in terms of authority and social status were one-sided dependencies. People were identified as either those who "have" or those who "do not have" according to their social status relative to others (Ayres. 2000).

With regard to education in the temple schools during the pre-colonial period, Dy (2004) says that education in the temple schools was operated in order to maintain the existing socio-cultural systems: this echoes the above quotation from Ayres (2000). In the temple schools, pupils were taught by monks, i.e. their religious leaders (Dy. 2004). This made it possible for children to accept their teachers as essential “conduits” in the support and maintenance of the social and cultural systems (Ayres. 2000: 14). Further, a predominant teaching and learning style in these temple schools in pre-colonial Cambodia was copying the written characteristics, reading the Buddhist sacred texts and learning the texts by heart (Clayton. 1995: 2). These didactic ways of teaching and learning are still widely seen in present-day schools in Cambodia.

Apart from the teaching and learning styles in the temple schools, the curriculum of instruction employed was also playing a significant role in maintaining the social system of reciprocal relationships between those with power and those with less power, and promoting the dependencies of the latter on the former (Ayres. 2000). Ayres (2000: 14) also argues that in the education processes in the temple schools, the relationships of those higher-up with those lower-down were replaced with “the lop-sided friendship between a teacher and student.” Chandler (1998) comments that the reciprocal and patron-client relationship are still normative in Cambodia and the curricula introduced in schools emphasize the importance of the relationships.

Even during the French colonial period, education in the temple schools was more popular among people than French-sponsored education (Clayton. 1995; Ayers. 2000). Dy (2004) says that a reason why the French modern education system could not gain popularity among local people is because Cambodian people feared that the French modernity would lead to the end of their traditional culture and values inherited from their ancestors. The French governors underestimated the strength of this locally

embedded social system and patron-client relationships (Ayres. 2000). Although the Khmer Rouge excesses disrupted the educational system, the societal norms and value systems which took root and were embedded in this country were not completely destroyed. After the Khmer Rouge period, traditional monk teachers assisted children and other people to recreate the normality of everyday life once lost (Duggan. 1996).

As for the present-day social system in Cambodia, Turner (2002: 361) claims that the system is still “the one-side dependency relationship” and the hierarchical personal relationships and patron-client relations embedded in Cambodia work against realizing the predicted effects of people’s participation in decision-making on any matter and making those with authority and power accountable to other people. Charya et al. (1998) analyze the present-day decision-making processes in villages in Cambodia, and comment that decisions are normally made only among community representatives, and other members of the communities are just provided with information rather than being allowed to involve in the decision-making processes. Similarly, but referring to the current movement towards decentralizing education management in particular, Turner (2002) indicates that school directors are seen as community representatives in virtue of their societal position, levels of formal education and authority, and thus, people’s participation depends much upon their leadership.

It could be argued that this attitude of principals has to be changed for other teachers to participate in both implementation and planning of school activities as the government emphasizes the importance of this. Yet, before discussing any leadership style appropriate to the schools in Cambodia, the country’s highly hierarchical societal structure and values need to be carefully considered.

Challenges of Cambodian School Leadership

In countries such as Cambodia where the hierarchical social structure is widely seen and people accept the fact that authority and power are unequally distributed in society, the leadership style which the literature reviewed earlier suggests, transformational leadership, seems to be inappropriate given that this style of leadership assumes an equal relationship between school directors and other teachers. On the other hand, another style of school leadership which is situated at the other end of the leadership spectrum, transactional leadership, cannot be recommended, either (Robert. 1993; Morefield. 2003a; Dy. 2004). This is because this style of leadership just maintains the status quo and thus, does not bring about any change in school management.

There are two explanations for these issues. First, the value systems embedded and cultivated in this country are created from the country's historical background, and the education system itself plays a pivotal role in maintaining the hierarchical societal systems. Cambodia's societal norms and power concentrated national culture will constrain school principals from demonstrating fully collaborative styles of leadership which assume that leadership can be shared between principals and other teachers (O'Leary & Nee. 2001; Morefield. 2003a). Also, considering the social norms of Cambodia, other teachers may not expect their principals to behave in a democratic way. They will accept school directors' didactic ways as school leaders. Second, there is the matter of the structure that leads principals to show their leadership in less collaborative ways. This is because the limited financial resources, centrally driven curricula and didactic ways of teaching and learning leave little room for the school directors to collaborate with other teachers and fully enjoy their autonomy.

In this sense, the school leadership styles which are most likely to be exercised by and appropriate to principals in Cambodia may be those whereby the school directors still take the lead in decision-making and inform other teachers (Ayres. 2000; Turner. 2002; Dy. 2004). However, at the same time and most importantly, school directors need to make sure that other teachers understand that they have a right to know why they are expected to do something. Dy (2004) namely states that the school directors have to be aware that it is of importance that there is a consensus between them and other teachers about why they are doing it, and towards which goals the school is moving. Conversely, the worst scenario is that principals go straight into the tasks on which they make decisions without giving any explanation of the whys and the wherefores to other teachers.

The point now is how school directors in Cambodia can obtain such styles of leadership. The examples from other countries below provide some useful guidelines. In Thailand, Oumthanom (2001) and Chartchai (2002) say that when a hierarchy among people such as that between school directors and classroom teachers is obvious, small groups work better for people to contribute than the whole group, and subsequently the opinions are provided to the whole group. Oumthanom (2001) and Chartchai (2002) further state that these people prefer being called upon to give a response to participating and standing out above others in open and critical discussions: they respond more easily to factual-recall type queries and more willingly recount their own experience in narrative terms.

Thus, Cambodia has a hierarchical culture similar to Thailand. While taking the lead and informing other teachers, school directors can consult other teachers in small and informal groups rather than in whole teacher meetings. This may make other teachers feel more comfortable to contribute their opinions. Also, it will work

successfully for principals to formally ask some specific teachers to give some comments and share their own experience in order to deal with the challenges and new tasks loaded onto them.

As an example of a principal training program in other developing countries, in its national principal training program, the government of Thailand designed one unit for school directors and some other senior staff to examine and evaluate their attitudes and ways of interacting with other teachers. The government of Thailand (Ministry of Education. e.d.) regards leadership which is shared and fulfilled by everyone in the school communities, i.e. transformational leadership, as effective leadership and suggests that principals delegate some tasks to others with the ultimate responsibility being retained by them. However, in evaluating this training program, Kaew Daeng (1996) notes that notwithstanding a number of improvements in school directors' management knowledge and skills, they are still reluctant to share with other teachers some issues which they feel may undermine their authority. School directors in high schools in Thailand hide some information from their staff if they think the information contradicts their practice. Kaew Daeng (1996) argues that we can espouse new attitudes, but cannot easily put these attitudes into practice.

Lessons learned from Thailand's case above are that delegating and letting others do some tasks, and allowing them to come to a decision might motivate some teachers only if successfully implemented. This implies that school directors must be willing and classroom teachers must be prepared to take on new responsibilities: any change in attitudes and behavior of both school directors and other teachers should receive special attention.

Although Morefield (2003a) proposes a training program to expand Cambodia school directors' understanding of the leadership role, the program will need

reconsideration since the program is only designed to provide school directors with the opportunity to create leadership shared with other teachers and community members: this will meet some obstacles to implementation as seen in Thailand's case. In order for the leadership styles appropriate to school directors in Cambodia suggested earlier to be realized, both school directors and classroom teachers should be targeted in any school director training program. This will give school directors some opportunities to become aware of the values, beliefs and norms of other teachers who they work together with.

School directors in Cambodia need to acquire not only the managerial skills but also the necessary knowledge and skills for establishing team building within the schools. They need to understand that: other teachers do not necessarily expect school directors to entirely delegate some tasks; smaller groups will work better than whole group meetings for other teachers to contribute their opinions; and other teachers will feel easier to express their actual experience and share with others. School directors can obtain these necessary knowledge and skills through actually communicating with other teachers.

Previous Related Studies

The study of leadership is replete with opinions, ideas, and paradigms.

The leadership field incorporates many frameworks, models, and concepts. Leadership matters organizationally because the term implies the existence of multiple leaders. Leadership, by implication, is integral to human consciousness and being. Relatively, the concepts of school improvement and school effectiveness are not new. The history of education documents numerous attempts to improve education. From the time public schools are first established, they have been challenged about their practices, content, and ideas. Leadership aimed at the school improvement process is highly complex from the school director's perspective. The school director must now be more visionary. For example, the leader's role can focus on planning and facilitating professional development, inspiring and influencing teacher to implement innovations in the building, allocation of resources to support these efforts, cultivating a network of relationship among staff toward the achievement of curricular goals, enabling teacher success, formulating a shared vision, recognizing student and teacher achievement, facilitating direct and indirect services to students, observing the classrooms, and promoting the development of student self-responsibility. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) has been utilized to not only measure leadership practices in the school environment, but also in business, civic and other organization between self and others rating agreement and leadership effectiveness. Hence, central to the following section is a review of previous research studies that have shed light on a series of issues on the nature of relationship in public high schools between school directors' perception of their leadership behavior and teachers' preferences for school directors' leadership behaviors.

Sandbakken (2004) conducted a research on leadership practices, and the relationship between these practices and organizational performance in a Norwegian context. The hypotheses were tested in a survey of N=347 MBA and Master of Management alumni evaluating their leaders and respective organizations. Results confirmed an overall positive relationship between transformational leadership practices and organizational performance. Rather than five LPI leadership practices as proposed by Kouzes and Posner, the study found three distinct leadership practices better fit a Norwegian context. Each leadership practice was found to have a different relative influence on organizational performance. Practical implications of findings for leaders and organizations are discussed, and areas for further research are suggested.

Rouse (2005) conducted a research on school directors used the same leadership practices as the school directors reported they use. The research samples were 897 teachers, and 29 school directors. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003a) was used to gather information regarding the school directors' leadership practices. School directors self-reported their perception of their leadership practices, whereas teachers reported their perceptions of their school directors' leadership practices. Two major findings of this study were that school directors reported significantly higher levels of each leadership practice than both the Kouzes-Posner norms and their teachers' perceptions of their school directors' leadership practices. In addition, there was no difference between male and female teachers' perceptions of their male school directors' leadership practices. However, there were significant differences between male and female teachers' perceptions of their female school directors' leadership practices for all five behaviors. In each case, male teachers evaluated their female school directors' leadership practices higher than did female teachers.

Malcom (2007) conducted a research on the relationships between teachers' perceptions of school director leadership behaviors and teachers' attitudes towards assessments evaluating AYP and their use of assessment results. Data were collected from 321 third- through twelfth-grade teachers in 59 Class 3 districts in Nebraska. A researcher-developed survey instrument using five-point Likert scales was used to measure respondents' perceptions of the leadership behaviors, attitudes toward assessments, and use of results. Mean scores were calculated for each behavior, attitudes toward assessments, and use of the results for each respondent. Correlation coefficients were calculated to identify significant relationships between the variables. Analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and t-tests were used to identify differences between demographic groups. Analyses of the data identified significant relationships between the leadership behaviors and teachers' attitudes towards assessments as well as teachers' use of results ($p < .05$). Further examination of the differences in these relationships revealed significant relationships between variables for some demographic groups studied. No significant differences in teachers' attitudes were found based on the demographic factors under study.

Bilton (2008) conducted a research on school district's school directors' and teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors. A random sample of three hundred forty-five urban school educators, (40 school directors and 305 teachers) were selected to participate in the study. These school directors and teachers were asked to respond to twelve behavioral patterns of school directors as measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Form XII. The findings in this study revealed that school directors perceived themselves as providing more leadership in the human relations aspects inherent in their job than did teachers. Another significant finding of this study pointed out that school directors' felt that they possessed the

necessary managerial skills to supervise their subordinates in a way to maximize teachers' abilities to be productive. School directors also had significantly more favorable perceptions than did teachers in the area of influencing subordinates to perform routine tasks at a high level of efficiency. Finally of the twelve leadership behavior dimensions measured by the LBDQ instrument, school directors perceived their total leadership behavioral patterns as being more effective than did teachers.

Fee (2008) conducted a research on school director's perception of his/her behavior and the teacher's perception of their school director's leadership behavior. A sample of 61 schools, including 61 school directors and 1,628 teachers from all regions of the state of Tennessee participated in the study. Subjects completed the Leadership Effectiveness Assessment Devise (LEAD), an instrument that measures the school director's leadership behavior. This instrument specifically measures activities relating to eight leadership roles which included: 1) the innovator role, 2) the broker role, 3) the producer role, 4) the director role, 5) the coordinator role, 6) the monitor role, 7) the facilitator role, and 8) the mentor role. Significant differences were found between the school director's self-assessment of his/her leadership behaviors and the teacher's perception of their school director's leadership behaviors in 37 of the 61 schools, while no significant differences in perceptions were found in 24 of the 61 schools. Of the 37 cases with significant differences in the school director's perception and the teacher's perceptions, 22 school directors rated themselves higher than their teachers, and 15 school directors rated themselves, lower than their teachers. Of the 24 cases with no significant difference, 12 school directors rated themselves with higher raw scores than their teachers and 12 school directors rated themselves with lower raw scores than their teachers. Findings of this study revealed the strongest areas of disagreement between the teachers' perceptions and school directors' perceptions were

found in the coordinator role, the facilitator role, and the producer role. The school director ratings exceeded the teacher ratings on all scales with the exception of the scale for broker.

Garner (2008) conducted a research on teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors in elementary, middle, and high schools. The population included 349 elementary teachers, 428 middle school teachers, and 305 high school teachers. Teachers were selected from 190 elementary schools, 190 middle schools, and 190 high schools from across the state of South Carolina. A causal-comparative research design was utilized in this study. The instrument used for the study measured the leadership behaviors of school directors as perceived by teachers. Five leadership behaviors were identified on a Likert scale. The behaviors identified were: 1) vision, 2) curiosity and daring, 3) empowering others, 4) leading from the front, and 5) integrity. The results of the study indicated strong differences among elementary, middle, and high school teachers' perceptions of effective leadership behaviors of school directors. The mean perceptions of middle school teachers were significantly higher than the mean perceptions of elementary and high school teachers. Integrity received the highest mean score by elementary, middle, and high school teachers. This indicated that all teachers valued integrity in their leaders at the highest levels. On almost every survey honesty was selected as the number one characteristic of successful leaders. Honesty was also believed to be the most important ingredient in the leader-constituent relationship. The lowest rated school director behavior was curiosity and daring. This finding indicated that elementary, middle, and high school teachers do not view their school directors as risk takers.

Parsons (2008) conducted a research on high school directors and school directors of restructured small learning community (SLC) high schools in their use of

instructional leadership behaviors. The subjects were five school directors from traditionally structured high schools and five school directors from restructured SLC high schools. Additionally, twenty teachers from traditionally structured high schools and twenty teachers from restructured SLC high schools were included in this study. School directors responded to a survey assessing the importance and frequency of use of particular instructional leadership behaviors. Teachers responded to a survey assessing the frequency of use of each instructional leadership behavior of their school director. A two-tailed t-test of the null hypothesis was considered for rejection at the 10 percent (.10) level of significance. The Wilcoxon's Sign test was also used in this analysis. The researcher engaged in an unstructured interview with selected school directors and teachers to enhance and include antidotal data to this study. The findings revealed that there is no significant difference between traditional high school directors and school directors of restructured small learning community high schools in their use of instructional leadership behaviors.

Shannon (2008) conducted a research on the relationship between South Carolina elementary school directors' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership practices and academic success as measured by the schools' state report card. This study utilized Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practice Inventories (2003) as a tool for measuring perceptions of leadership practices. Three types of relationships were analyzed: 1) overall self and teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership practices, 2) total scale scores and sub-scale scores, and 3) total scale scores and academic success. The researcher surveyed 128 South Carolina elementary school directors and 124 teachers to assess leadership practices and congruence of perception from South Carolina schools that housed pre-k to fifth grade. School directors and teachers assessed leadership practices on inventories measuring an engagement of

30 behaviors on a ten-point Likert scale. The 30 behaviors were divided into five areas: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart. Based on the findings of this study, school directors generally scored their leadership practices higher than did the teachers on all survey items. This study did not find a statistically significant difference between the school directors perceived leadership practices and their schools' academic success.

Charf (2009) conducted a research on the various levels of teacher efficacy and the individual perceptions of teacher in regards to school director leadership behaviors, specifically, at the middle school setting. A mixed methodology approach is used to explore both the quantitative data of two efficacy surveys and qualitative interviews with ten individual teacher volunteer candidates. A sample of 277 survey respondents was obtained on the Bandura's Instrument of Teacher Efficacy and Gibson and Dembo's Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale. Data analysis reveals that there is a difference in teacher efficacy based on gender, degree level, years of experience and socioeconomic status of the school building. Qualitative themes that emerged from the ten interview transcriptions regarding the perceptions of specific school director behaviors that enhance their teaching included: 1) specific valued feedback, 2) meaningful support and trust with parents and students, and 3) active movement about school and in classrooms. A mixing of data occurs when two specific survey questions are discussed in regards to individual responses on the survey and statements made during the interview that add depth to these efficacy descriptors.

Fulton (2009) conducted a research on high school director instructional leadership behavior in high and low need and high and low achievement schools. This quantitative study used a validated survey distributed to 1,200 high school teachers across New York State of different need and achievement statuses. Independent samples

t-test described differences in teacher perceptions between high-achieving and low-achieving schools. A 2X2 multivariate analysis of variance, analyzed differences in teachers' perceptions when categorized into high-achieving and low-achieving, and high and low need high schools. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation determined the relationships among teacher perceptions of their school director's leadership behaviors, years served with the current school director, years experience as a teacher, teacher's school need, and teacher's school achievement status. The results followed, beginning with the highest calculated means: 1) frame the school goals, 2) communicate the school goals, 3) protect instructional time, 4) provide incentives for learning, 5) promote professional development, 6) coordinate the curriculum, 7) supervise and evaluate instruction, 8) monitor student progress, 9) provide incentives for teachers, and 10) maintain high visibility. Independent samples t-test found that there were significant differences between teacher perceptions for the variables provide incentives for teachers, and promote professional development when divided into high-achieving and low-achieving schools. There was a moderate difference between teachers' perceptions of the variable Provide Incentives for Learning. Factorial analysis illustrated there was a significant difference found between teachers' perceptions for the variable maintain high visibility, and an important difference for the provide incentives for learning variable. A correlation analysis indicated promote professional development and years experience as a teacher was positively related, and accounted for 14 percent of the variance associated with student achievement. Results of the stepwise multiple regression indicated that promote professional development, years experience as a teacher, and coordinate the curriculum accounted for 11.8 percent of the variance with student achievement.

McCarthy (2009) conducted a research on 353 teacher perceptions of secondary school directors' instructional leadership behaviors in seven Pennsylvania high schools as compared to the school's Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). The survey contained 50 questions that were assigned to 10 subscales of school director instructional management. The 10 subscales were assigned to three dimensions of instructional leadership: 1) defining the school's mission (DSM), 2) managing the instructional program (MIP), and 3) promoting a positive school learning climate (PPSLC). The seven high schools were in districts that received 55% or more aid from the state in the form of market value/personal aid ratio (MV/PI) and/or 60% or more of the high schools student body had to qualify for free and/or reduced-priced lunches. The researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics to report data from participants' survey responses. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) confirmed that statistically significant differences existed among all seven schools on all three dimensions of the PIMRS. When significant differences were found among the schools, the study sought to determine whether they existed primarily between schools that Met AYP or did Not Meet AYP. A post-hoc test (a contrast t -test) confirmed that statistically significant differences existed between schools that met AYP and were not meeting AYP. Analyses of research questions revealed that there were statistically significant differences among the schools on all three scales, and that on all three scales, the met AYP groups mean was always lower than the not meeting AYP group's mean.

Postell (2009) conducted a research on a relationship between school director leadership behaviors and student achievement in a sample of urban elementary schools in Maryland. Did teachers observe more desirable leadership behaviors in school directors of high-performing schools than in school directors of low-performing schools? Survey items from four subscales of the established and well-researched Leader Behavior

Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) were completed by 94 teachers from 15 elementary schools. The teachers rated their school directors in the following four leadership areas: 1) persuasiveness, 2) initiation of structure, 3) tolerance, and 4) freedom and consideration. The teachers' responses to the survey items were weighted, and a total score on each of the four subscales was computed. The schools were classified into two groups using a ranking of school percentages of students scoring in the proficient and advanced categories: relatively high-performing schools and relatively low-performing schools. Statistical results did not show a significant difference between school directors from high-performing and low-performing schools, although the subscale totals for high-performing school directors were always greater than the subtotals for low-performing schools.

Pugh (2009) conducted a research on the relationship between school directors' leadership behaviors and the level of shared decision making in the areas of policy, curriculum and instruction, and planning in selected Northeast Mississippi schools. Thirteen schools were selected to participate in this study. A total of 386 teachers participated in the survey. The teachers were surveyed using two different instruments. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Shared Education Decisions Survey-Revised (SEDS-R) were the two instruments that were used to measure the teachers' perceptions of shared decision making behaviors exhibited by their individual school director. The five leadership practices measured by the LPI "Challenging the Process", "Inspiring a Shared Vision", "Enabling others to Act", "Encouraging the Heart", and "Modeling the Way" were correlated with the three areas of the SEDS-R "Planning", "Curriculum and Instruction", and "Policy". The findings were presented and analyzed to test each of the five research questions. Detailed statistics were used to present profiles of the participants of the study. The sample consisted of 386 participants

representing an 80.4% return rate. Pearson product-moment correlations were produced to analyze the relationships between the leadership behaviors of school directors in selected Northeast Mississippi schools as perceived by teachers. A total of fifteen significant relationships were identified; however, the strength of the relationships range from low to moderate positive relationships. This demonstrated a low to moderate relationship between teachers' perceptions of the school directors' leadership behaviors and the level of shared decision making in the schools.

Walker (2009) conducted a research on characteristics and behaviors of middle school directors that enhance the efficacy of new and experienced middle school teachers. A diverse group of middle school teachers from a mid-Atlantic state were surveyed using the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale along with a researcher-developed Likert-type scale asking participants to rate research-based school director behaviors. In addition, responses to demographic questions were obtained to compare school director behaviors and teacher efficacy across the domains of gender, poverty level of school, size of school, and school location (urban, suburban, rural). Responses from 366 teachers were analyzed using stepwise multiple linear regression to determine whether various school director behaviors affected new and experienced teachers differently. Findings suggest that teacher efficacy is significantly affected by school director behaviors based on years of teaching experience. Whereas newer teachers required more support and modeling from their school directors, the efficacy of more experienced teachers was influenced by emotional factors such as inspiration and purpose. Statistically significant findings were obtained in each of the demographic comparisons as well. These findings may inform school directors and school director trainers of best practices in enhancing teacher efficacy, thus supporting increased student achievement.

Williams (2009) conducted a research on leadership behaviors of school directors relate to school climate, teachers' job satisfaction, and student achievement. The relationship of leadership to student achievement was measured by the school levels based on the administration of the 2006-2007 Mississippi Curriculum Test (MCT). Leadership and teacher job satisfaction was determined by Paul Specter's Job Satisfaction Survey, and school climate was indicated by use of the School Climate Inventory (SCI). Eleven schools in an east Mississippi school district were selected to participate in the research during the spring of 2008. Of the 129 randomly selected participants, 71% responded to yield data to show how leadership relates to achievement, job satisfaction, and school climate. Participants in this research were teachers, teacher assistants, school counselors, and administrators. Some of the 11 themes, relative to school director leadership, were found to be related to one or more of the variables. A test of regression within the regression was used to ascertain the relationship of leadership to school climate and teacher job satisfaction. A test of correlation was used to determine the relationship of leadership to student achievement. Based on participants' responses, nine factors of leadership relate to school climate; only one factor relates to student achievement, and eight factors relate to teacher job satisfaction.

Lyons (2010) conducted a research on school director instructional leadership behavior, as perceived by teachers and school directors, at New York State recognized and non-recognized middle schools. The 10 leadership functions are subgroups that are a consolidation of 50 distinct behaviors. The samples were 15 school directors and 174 teachers. The survey was administered to teachers and school directors at demographically similar New York State middle schools. Descriptive statistics were used to identify which individual behaviors and leadership functions were being demonstrated frequently. Although school directors from both cohorts perceived that

they were frequently demonstrating 3 to 4 out of 10 of these leadership functions, the teachers as a group only indicated that one function was being demonstrated. The data also indicated that, on average, school directors of recognized schools are demonstrating the leadership behaviors measured in the PIMRS more frequently than school directors of non-recognized schools. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also utilized to determine if there would be statistically significant differences in the mean scores between cohorts and within cohorts between school directors and teachers. There were statistically significant differences in the mean scores for some items, but not for the majority. The ANOVA output for school directors and teachers from recognized schools indicated that, based on $p < .05$, there were statistically significant differences in the means for seven questions. The ANOVA output for school directors and teachers in non-recognized schools indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in means for only one question.

Posner (2010) conducted a research on the behaviors of leaders across economically-distressed regions within four countries (Ethiopia, India, Pakistan, Philippines), whether the impact of their behavior would be differentially affected by culture, and the psychometric properties of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in this setting. There were 207 leaders and 1,253 observers overall who participated in the study. LPI was selected as an instrument. Analyses of leadership behaviors were conducted for respondents by country and by type (leaders versus constituents) across countries and within countries. The findings revealed that while the frequency of leadership behaviors varied across cultures the impact of leadership within cultures was consistent.

Xu (2010) conducted a research on the relationship between the perception of school director self-rated leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of their school

director's leadership behaviors in one U.S. Midwest state's elementary schools. The survey instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-MLQ 5x measuring nine leadership factors and three leadership outcomes as variables. A Pearson product-moment analysis was used to analyze the data of school director's self-rated leadership behaviors and teachers rating of school director leadership behaviors. The t-test for independent samples was applied in a post hoc test to determine whether mean differences existed between perceptions on each variable. The results indicated a statistically significant correlation between the perceptions of laissez-faire ($r = .52, p \leq .01$) as perceived by the school director and the teachers, and the teachers' perceptions were congruent with their school director's perception. The post hoc analysis with independent samples t -test demonstrates a statistically significant difference between school directors' rated transformational leadership behaviors: idealized influence-behavior: $t(64) = 2.23, p \leq .05$, intellectual stimulation: $t(64) = 2.39, p < .05$, and individualized consideration, $t(64) = 2.84, p < .01$, and their teacher groups. School directors rated their own management-by-exception (passive): $t(64) = -2.83, p \leq .01$ lower than their teachers. Study results imply that school directors need to develop better self-awareness of the discrepancy between self-perceived leadership behaviors and their teachers' perceptions.

Constantino (2011) conducted a research on special education teacher perceptions of school directors' instructional leadership behaviors and students' academic achievement on the Georgia Comprehensive Criterion-Referenced Tests. Special educators from elementary schools, identified by the school directors, were surveyed to measure the extent to which they perceived their school director exhibited specific leadership behaviors. Data for this quantitative study were collected using a survey, developed by the researcher based on current literature regarding instructional leadership

practices. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the responses. Archival data collected from the State of Georgia school report cards was used in an effort to more comprehensively examine special education teacher perceptions of the extent to which school directors exhibit instructional leadership behaviors. There was not a significant correlation between special education teachers' perceptions of school director leadership behaviors and the achievement of students with disabilities. The findings indicate a moderate negative correlation between special education teachers in Title I schools and non-Title I schools in their perceptions of school directors' behaviors related to setting direction and goals. Differences in achievement were found between Title I schools and non-Title I schools.

Heckmann (2011) conducted a research on perceptions of the school directors and teachers at three high schools that exited Program Improvement (PI) and three high schools that remain in PI about the extent to which the school director demonstrated Marzano et al.'s 21 leadership behaviors and which behaviors they felt were important to improving student academic achievement. The respondents in this study were school directors and teachers at three comprehensive high schools which exited PI and three comprehensive high schools which remained in PI. The subjects were presented with a 42-question Likert scale survey related to Marzano et al.'s 21 leadership behaviors. Data were analyzed using a frequency distribution and t -test to determine significance. The study identified five key findings. They are as follows: 1) school directors whose schools exited PI demonstrate more of Marzano et al.'s leadership behaviors and at greater rates, 2) school directors and teachers whose schools exited PI did not differ significantly in the number of leadership behaviors which they believed were important to student achievement, 3) school directors whose schools exited PI demonstrate the behaviors which Marzano et al. state are important to improving student achievement at

a greater rate of frequency, 4) school directors and teachers whose schools exited PI and school directors whose schools remain in PI demonstrate the same number of behaviors which are listed by Marzano et al. as important to first-order change, 5) school directors whose schools exited PI demonstrate leadership behaviors which Marzano et al. relate to second-order change at much greater rates.

Joffrin (2011) conducted a research on school directors in southeastern Louisiana exhibited the twenty-one behaviors and to determine what the relationship was between the twenty-one specific behaviors and School Performance Score (SPS). The Twenty-one Specific School director Behavior Survey (21 SPB) was administered online to school directors employed in selected school districts in Southeastern Louisiana. The results indicated that school directors very frequently used behaviors associated with both lower level transformational leadership practice and higher level transformational leadership practice. The use of these behaviors was associated with SPS in a positive direction. Results indicated that these behaviors were weakly or moderately related to school performance.

Lea (2011) conducted a research on the relationship between the transformational leadership behaviors of high school directors in the suburban Chicago, Illinois area and student achievement on the Illinois Prairie State Achievement Examination (PSAE). The study utilized a mixed methodology and correlation design to investigate the problem, address the research questions and test the hypotheses, and triangulate results. Quantitative achievement data were collected from publicly available sources, such as the Illinois State Board of Education website. Qualitative data were collected from participating teachers who completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and two contextual open response questions regarding the leadership behaviors of their school directors. 33 high schools comprised the study sample, and

1130 teachers voluntarily participated in the study. Broadly, study results and findings affirmed a significant, positive relationship between school director transformational leadership and the PSAE driven student achievement measures, Overall Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), AYP in Reading, and AYP in Mathematics. More specifically, among the three transformational leadership outcomes, teacher perceived school director effectiveness was the most significant, positive predictor of increased student achievement measures. Other study results and findings included a strongly significant, negative relationship between school socioeconomic status (SES) and student achievement; school SES status was a stronger predictor of student achievement than school director transformational leadership; and school director gender and tenure were not significant predictors of student achievement.

Martin (2011) conducted a research on school director leadership behavior, as perceived by school directors and teachers, was related to school director longevity at the current school and total school director experience. The study used Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory to measure perceptions of school director leadership behavior. The researcher surveyed 59 public elementary, middle, and high school directors and 235 of their teachers in the Midland's area of South Carolina. Data were analyzed to determine overall school director (LPI-Self) and overall teacher (LPI-Observer) perceptions of school director leadership behavior. Data were further analyzed to investigate the following relationships: 1) the relationship between school directors' perceptions of their leadership behavior and school director longevity at the current school, 2) the relationship between school directors' perceptions of their leadership behavior and total school director experience, 3) the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their school directors' leadership behavior and school director longevity at the current school, and 4) the relationship between teachers' perceptions

of their school directors' leadership behavior and total school director experience. School directors and teachers assessed school directors' leadership behaviors using a survey which measured the frequency of 30 behaviors on a 6-point Likert scale. The behaviors were divided into five leadership areas: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart. School directors rated their own leadership behavior even more favorably than teachers rated their school directors' leadership behavior. Enable others to act was ranked the highest leadership category by both school directors and teachers. School directors ranked challenging the process as the lowest leadership category, while teachers ranked encouraging the heart as the lowest category. The study did not find a significant relationship between school directors' leadership behavior and school director longevity at the current school or total school director experience.

Morris (2011) conducted a research on teacher and school director beliefs about school director leadership behavior. Using a 360-degree evaluation instrument provided school directors with feedback from teachers and strategies to increase transformational leadership behaviors, which have been shown to increase student performance and the likelihood of achieving adequate yearly progress in schools. The samples were 34 school director surveys and 238 teacher surveys from 18 districts across the state of Louisiana. The statistics used for analyzing the collected data were independent samples t-test, and dependent samples t-test. The findings showed that a statistically significant difference between school director and teacher beliefs about school directors' leadership behaviors existed in the leadership domain of commitment. The study did not find a statistically significant difference between school director and teacher beliefs about school directors' leadership behaviors in the leadership domains of employee development or the workplace. In addition, there were no statistically significant

differences in the effects of gender of administrator, administrator years of experience, or performance status of the school.

Rideaux (2011) conducted a research on the relationships between and among school director leadership behavior, organizational health, and student achievement at 38 school campuses in Texas. The instrument used to measure the schools' academic achievement was the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores in Reading and Math. The Leadership Profile and its 11 components were the instruments used to identify the school directors' leadership behavior, and the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) and its 10 dimensions were used to measure the climate dimensions of the campuses. Canonical correlation tests were conducted on school director leadership behavior, organizational health, and student achievement to identify significant relationships between school directors' leadership behaviors and organizational health. A further statistical analysis was used to determine whether specific school director leadership behaviors caused specific organizational health trends, which had the potential to produce particular student outcomes. As a result of these analyses, an indirect relationship between school directors' leadership behaviors and student achievement was revealed.

Velasco (2011) conducted a research on the relationships between and among the three components of the school director's authority behaviors, as assessed by the Leadership Profile, and four dimensions of school climate, as measured by the Organizational Health Inventory. The Leadership Profile measured the components Authority Usual, Authority Needs, and Authority Stress. The Organizational Health Inventory measured Optimal Power Equalization, Innovativeness, Autonomy, and Communication Adequacy. Participation in this study was limited to archived records of two Texas school districts. School directors and teachers in these two districts

completed the Leadership Profile and the Organizational Health Inventory, respectively. The participants included all school directors and school teachers in those two Texas school districts. For each statistical analysis, the level of statistical significance was set at .05. When a statistical finding yielded a result at or below this alpha level of .05, a determination of the effect size or practical importance of the finding was performed. The data revealed that of the potential 12 correlations that were examined, only 1 yielded results indicating that there was a strong statistically significant correlation between School directors' Authority Usual behaviors and the climate dimension Communication Adequacy.

Yarbrough (2011) conducted a research on perceptions of school directors and teachers regarding leadership behaviors essential for the success of a school director. Using a phenomenological design with purposeful sampling six school directors and six teachers were chosen as participants for this study. This study utilized two data sources at each school level (elementary, middle, and high school). Within data sources and across data sources analyses were conducted with categorizations and themes. Findings revealed several leadership behaviors that were identified by school directors and teachers as essential for the success of a school director. These findings were across all school levels for school directors and teachers and for school directors and teachers at the same school. Emergent themes that were found to be consistent among all school directors and teachers were increasing student achievement and communication and building relationships. Other emergent themes that were identified included the following: visibility, collaboration and delegation; data analysis; and providing resources and a clean and safe environment.

In summary, the review of the literature on Cambodian school directors' leadership pointed to the lack of empirical study focusing specifically on Cambodian

high school directors' leadership behaviors which may inhibit or enhance Cambodian school directors' participation in leadership behaviors in Cambodian context. However, there are empirical supports for the influence of values on leadership perspectives and behaviors. Therefore, the leaders and researchers use survey instruments to better understand the dynamics of best leadership practices. Numbers studies have been completed over the decade using various leadership inventories. Also, many of the leadership behaviors needed to be successful have remained the same, however, with accountability and added responsibilities for student achievement, many of these behaviors have been redefined and more behaviors continue to be added. The ever-changing role of the school directors has demanded a new type of leadership in the schools. It is not enough for the school directors to just manage the schools. The school directors had to fulfill the needed roles of instructional leaders, evaluators, mentors, communicators, facilitators, and trainers. The school directors had to promote instructional improvement and increased student achievement for all students. School director preparation programs had been criticized over the years for their lack of properly preparing individuals for the demands of the position as school director. Better preparation of individuals for the school directorship benefited school directors and the schools they served. Better preparation led to quality and stronger leadership in the school. Examination into the perception of school directors provided insight into leadership behaviors needed by the school directors. Examination of perceptions of teachers provided knowledge of expectations and a realistic outlook on the school directorship.

Conceptual Framework of the Research

This study proposes a leadership practice model of public school directors in Cambodia. This section attempts to explain the rationale of the proposal, its various components, and the relationships among the study variables. As the initial framework, the information requested of school directors and school teachers includes: gender, age, education level, and experience, based on Kouzes and Posner (2003: 22). These are conceptualized as independent variables, and the perceptions of the school directors and teachers on school directors' leadership behaviors in 5 aspects are conceptualized as dependent variables. The school directors' perception of their own behaviors and the school teachers' perceptions of their school directors' leadership behaviors as identified by Kouzes and Posner (2003: 22): modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

In this study, the researcher is interested in the degree to which the leadership behaviors whether the desired by the school teachers will be matched those practiced by the school directors. Additionally, the participants will be school directors and school teachers in the whole Kingdom of Cambodia. The final step is to build the model of leadership practice of school directors of government high school directors in Cambodian school system. Below is Figure 3.1 which provides the conceptual framework of the research.

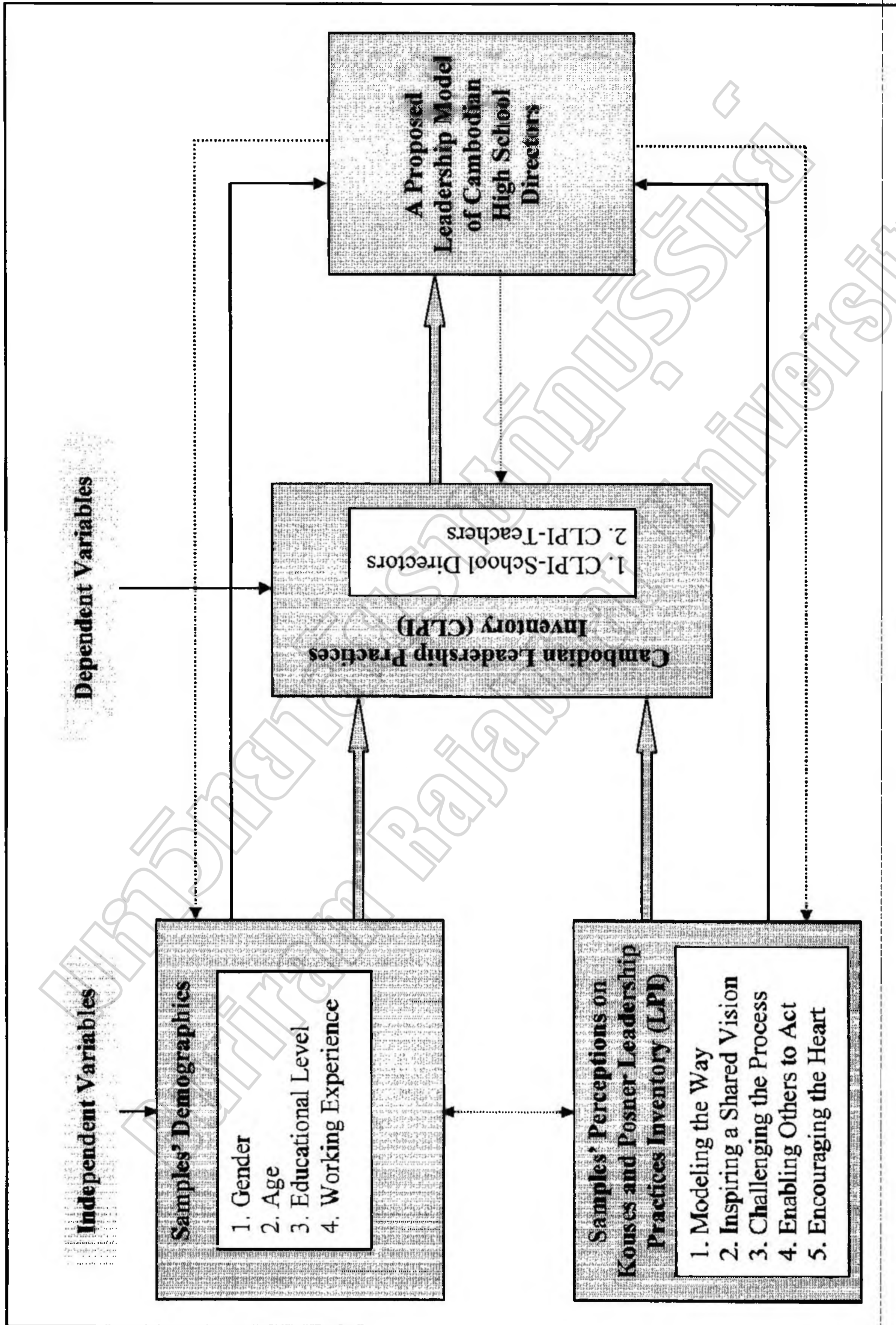


Figure 3.1 Conceptual Framework of the Research

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In conducting the research entitled “Perceptions on Cambodian high school directors’ leadership behaviors”, this chapter is presented in the following four sections:

1. Population and Samples
2. Research Instruments
3. Data Collection Procedures
4. Data Analysis Procedures

Population and Samples

Population

The population were school directors and teachers from public high schools throughout Cambodia. According to the Education Statistics and Indicators 2010/2011 (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. 2011: 7), Cambodia totally has 386 public high school directors, and employs 17,008 public high school teachers within 23 provinces. Geographically, educational system in Cambodia does not divide the regions into educational zones. Each of 23 provinces in Cambodia has a Provincial Office of Education (POE), which in turn has District Offices of Education (DOEs). Because some public high schools are new, they do not have every grade level. As a result, the target population was 378 public high school directors and employs 17,008 public high school teachers who are administering and teaching at grades seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, and twelve in Cambodian high schools.

Samples

Apart from the aforementioned aspect, the school directors and teachers who took part in the study were under Provincial Education Service throughout Cambodia. The samples of the study consisted of 191 public high school directors, and 386 teachers who are administering and teaching grades seven through twelve, derived through Krejcie & Morgan, stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling by drawing lots. The details of the sample selection are as follows:

Table 3.1 The Sample Sampling and Classified by Provinces

No.	Provinces	School Directors		Teachers	
		P	S	P	S
1.	Banteay Meanchey	26	13	1,061	23
2.	Battambang	23	12	1,078	24
3.	Kampong Cham	55	28	2,309	51
4.	Kampong Chhnang	14	7	793	18
5.	Kampong Speu	21	11	782	17
6.	Kampong Thom	21	11	931	20
7.	Kampot	19	10	856	19
8.	Kandal	30	15	1,848	41
9.	Kep	2	1	102	2
10.	Koh Kong	5	2	204	5
11.	Kratie	10	5	396	9
12.	Mondul Kiri	3	1	77	1
13.	Otdar Meanchey	5	2	160	4
14.	Pailin	2	1	126	3
15.	Preah Sihanouk	7	4	346	8
16.	Preah Vihear	8	4	116	3
17.	Prey Veng	24	12	1,109	25
18.	Pursat	14	7	573	13
19.	Ratanak Kiri	3	1	119	3
20.	Siem Reap	19	10	1,144	25
21.	Stung Treng	6	3	134	3
22.	Svay Rieng	18	9	917	20
23.	Takeo	43	22	1,827	39
Grand Total		378	191	17,008	386

Source: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport: Education Statistics and Indicators 2010/2011 (2011: 7)

Note: P = Population, S = Samples

Research Instruments

Two inventories were used in this research study: the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), and Cambodia Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI). The LPI was developed by Kouzes and Posner in its 3rd edition (2003) (See Appendix C for more detail). Many researchers have used the LPI for data collection (The Leadership Challenge, 2007). The CLPI factor analyzed version was then modified by the researcher in accordance with the results from the factor analyses (See Appendix F for more detail). The details of each instrument and how they were implemented are briefly described as follows:

Leadership Practice Inventory Questionnaire

After a review of the leadership literature, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was selected as the instrument for this study. LPI was developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) and two versions were used: the LPI-Self (See Appendix C) for school directors, and the LPI-Observer (See Appendix C) for teachers. The survey was designed to enable analysis of various methods used in implementation of the school directors' leadership behaviors as they perceived these behaviors, and the teachers' perceptions on school directors' leadership practices. Because the LPI is a copyrighted publication, the authors of the instrument were contacted via an electronic mail letter (See Appendix D) to obtain permission for its use in this study. The authors agreed to the use and reproduction of the LPI. This license is provided on a no-fee basis. Figure 3.1 below presents the Kouzes and Posner model.

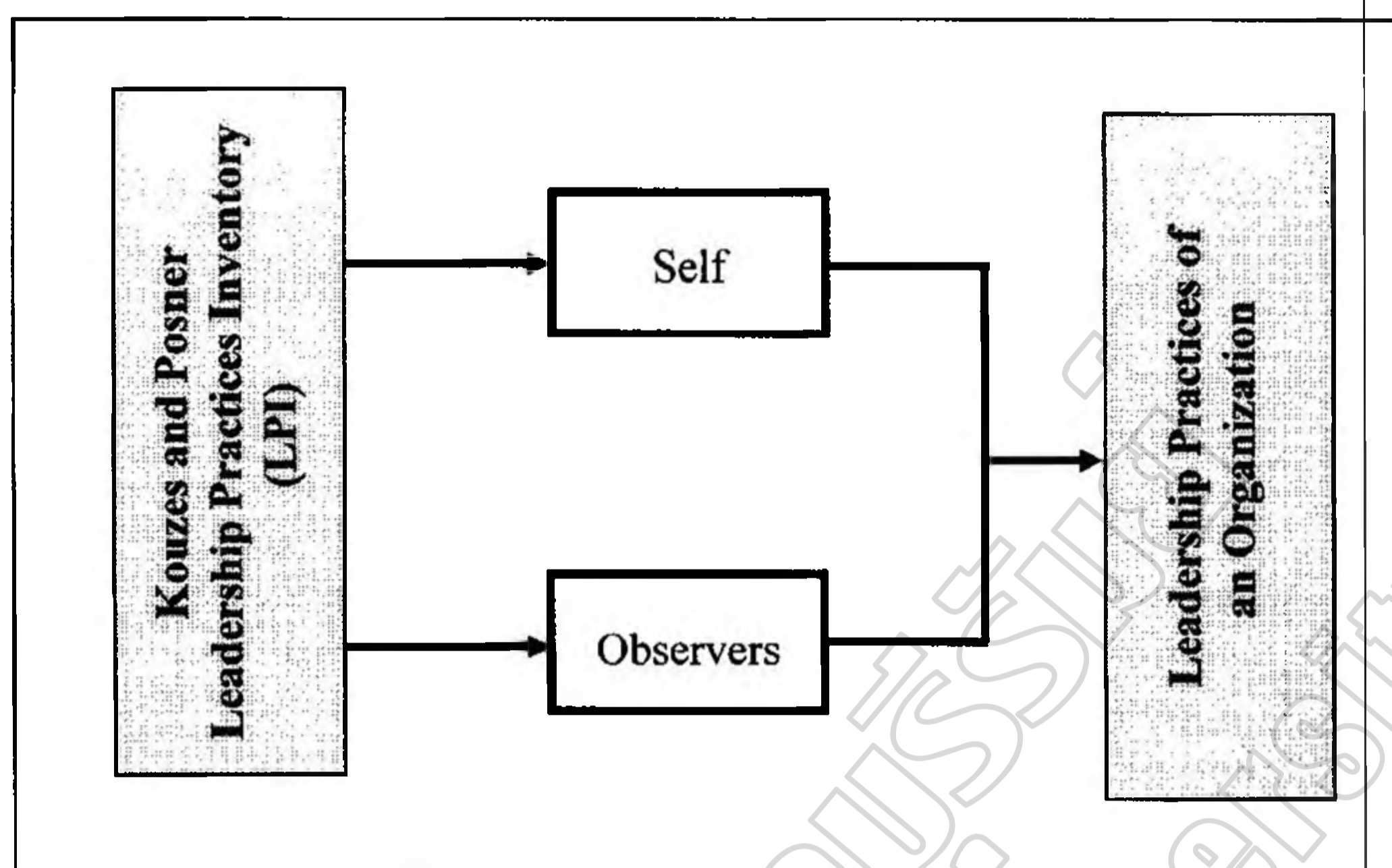


Figure 3.1 Leadership Practices of Kouzes and Posner Model

The details of LPI and how it was implemented are briefly described as follows:

1. Construction and Development of LPI

In the construction of the LPI after review of current literature and leadership models, the researcher utilized an instrument developed and used by Kouzes and Posner (2003) called Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) select for this study. The LPI is leadership practical as the instrument measures leadership behaviors. The survey was designed based on the purposes of this study and was used as the research instrument in this study. The data for this study were collected through two versions of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) by Kouzes and Posner (2003); the LPI-Self for school directors (See Appendix C), and the LPI-Observer for the teachers (See Appendix C).

In all, the LPI was selected due to its extensive use in research conducted to assess best leadership practices both in private and public organization including educational institutions. The LPI originates from more than 500 extensive self-reflective interviews. The quantitative instrument is developed to measure the best practices

revealed during this study period. Since its inception, over 350,000 surveys have been administered.

In the development of the LPI, Kouzes and Posner focus on the responses to the Personal-Best Leadership Experience Questionnaire. The earlier survey is 12 pages long and consists of 38 open-ended questions such as, "Who initiated the project?" "What made you believe you could accomplish the results you sought?" "What special techniques or strategies, if any, did you use to get other people involved in the project?" "Did you do anything to mark the completion of the project, at the end or along the way?" "What did you learn most from this experience?" and "What key lesson would you share with another person about leadership from this experience?"

To support this generalization, the completing the Personal-Best Questionnaire generally requires about 1-2 hours of reflection and expression on the part of the respondent. More than 2,500 of these surveys were collected, and more than 5,000 additional respondents completed a short form of this survey containing just four or five items. Additionally, case studies were conducted by using in-depth interviews, primarily with managers in mid- to senior-level organizational positions in a wide variety of both public- and private-sector companies around the world. These interviews generally took 45 to 60 minutes; in some cases, they lasted 4 or 5 hours.

The LPI, in its current format, measured 30 observable behaviors that correspond to five leadership practices. Both a Self and an Observer form of the LPI have been developed. Participating individuals were asked to complete the LPI-Self questionnaire and then asked five or six people who are familiar with their behavior to complete the LPI-Observer form. The LPI-Observer was voluntary and anonymous. Typically, the instruments were returned directly to the researcher. The LPI took approximately 30-45 minutes to complete, and it was capable of being either self-or computer scored.

2. LPI Structure and Scoring

Fundamentally, Kouzes and Posner (2003) and other experts familiar with the model have described each of the various leadership actions and behaviors that comprise the instrument. The higher the value, the greater the use of that leadership behavior it represents. The statements were then modified, discarded, or included following lengthy discussions and repeated feedback sessions with respondents and assorted subject-matter experts, and empirical analyses of various sets of behaviorally based statements were conducted. Ongoing analysis and refinement of the instrument were continued with a database involving nearly 60,000 respondents.

The studies conducted by Kouzes and Posner (2003) establish mean and standard deviation for each LPI scale. Based on mean scores, enabling others to act was perceived by respondents and their constituents as the leadership practice most frequently used. This was followed by 'challenging the process', 'modeling the way', and 'encouraging the heart'. 'Inspiring a shared vision' was perceived by both respondents and their constituents as the leadership practice least frequently engaged in. "Validating studies that we, as well as other researchers, have conducted over a fifteen-year period consistently confirm the reliability and validity of the Leadership Inventory and the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders model" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b: 2).

Academically, the questionnaire used in this study consisted of two main parts. Part A, a demographic instrument was created in an effort to identify the demographic profile of the school directors and teachers, which consisted of 4 items. The demographic questions included: gender, age, education level, and working/teaching experience. Part B was a five-point Likert scale of leadership behaviors which was used with both school directors and teachers. Respondents were mainly asked to rate each

statement from 1 to 5: 1) Never or Almost Never, 2) Only Occasionally, 3) Sometimes (50% of the Time), 4) Usually, and 5) Always or Almost Always.

In the light of considerations discussed above, therefore, these inventories measured perceptions of engagement in 30 behaviors on a five-point Likert scale. A total of 30 behavioral statements measured leadership behaviors as these related to five exemplary practices (six statements under each leadership practice). The five leadership practices of LPI-Self and LPI-Observer were: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart, respectively. For the purposes of this study, the focuses were based on both the perceptions of the school directors (Self) form and teachers (Observer) form. Table 3.2 below lists the specific survey items that measured the leadership practices.

Table 3.2 LPI Item Numbers by Leadership Practice

Leadership Practice	Behaviors Statement Number
Modeling the Way	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26
Inspiring a Shared Vision	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27
Challenging the Process	3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28
Enabling Others to Act	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29
Encouraging the Heart	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30

The five practices of LPI and the items that measured each practice are shown below for measuring the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by school directors shown as follows:

Table 3.3 LPI Questionnaire Statement for School Directors

LPI Statement (School Directors' Leadership Practices Questionnaire)
<p>Modeling the Way</p> <p>1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.</p> <p>6. I spend time and energy making certain that people I work with adhere to the principals and standard we have agreed on.</p> <p>11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.</p> <p>16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.</p> <p>21. I build consensus around people a common set of values for running our organization.</p> <p>26. I am clear about my philosophy of educational leadership.</p> <p>Inspiring a Shared Vision</p> <p>2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.</p> <p>7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.</p> <p>12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.</p> <p>17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.</p> <p>22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.</p> <p>27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.</p> <p>Challenging the Process</p> <p>3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.</p> <p>8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.</p> <p>13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.</p> <p>18. I ask "What we can learn?" when things don't go as expected.</p> <p>23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.</p> <p>28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a change of failure.</p> <p>Enabling Others to Act</p> <p>4. I develop cooperative relationships among people I work with.</p> <p>9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.</p> <p>14. I treat others with dignity and respect.</p> <p>19. I support the decisions that people make on their own.</p> <p>24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.</p> <p>29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.</p> <p>Encouraging the Heart</p> <p>5. I praise people for job well done.</p> <p>10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.</p> <p>15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.</p> <p>20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.</p> <p>25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishment.</p> <p>30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.</p>

The five statements of LPI for measuring the school directors' leadership behaviors as teachers' perceptions shown as follows:

Table 3.4 LPI Questionnaire Statement for Teachers

LPI Statement (Teachers' Perceptions Questionnaire)
<p>Modeling the Way</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. My director sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others. 6. My director spends time and energy making certain that people he/she works with adhere to the principals and standard we have agreed on. 11. My director follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes. 16. My director asks for feedback on how may actions affect other people's performance. 21. My director builds consensus around people a common set of values for running our organization. 26. My director is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership. <p>Inspiring a Shared Vision</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. My director talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done. 7. My director describes a compelling image of what our future could be like. 12. My director appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future. 17. My director shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision. 22. My director paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish. 27. My director speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work. <p>Challenging the Process</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. My director seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities. 8. My director challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. 13. My director searches outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do. 18. My director asks "What we can learn?" when things don't go as expected. 23. My director makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on. 28. My director experiments and takes risks, even when there is a change of failure. <p>Enabling Others to Act</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. My director develops cooperative relationships among people he/she works with. 9. My director actively listens to diverse points of view. 14. My director treats others with dignity and respect. 19. My director supports the decisions that people make on their own. 24. My director gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work. 29. My director ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

Table 3.4 (Continued)

LPI Statement (Teachers' Perceptions Questionnaire)
Encouraging the Heart
5. My director praises people for job well done.
10. My director makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.
15. My director makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
20. My director publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
25. My director finds ways to celebrate accomplishment.
30. My director gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

Demographic information was collected in an effort to identify the demographic profile of the school directors and teachers in Cambodia. This questionnaire consists of six relevant items i.e., gender, age, educational level, teaching/working experience, and school sizes.

3. LPI Reliability and Validity

Strong reliability and validity estimates of the LPI have been provided by Kouzes and Posner's research and independent studies. Validation studies conducted over 15 years have consistently supported the reliability and validity of the five practices of exemplary leaders and the LPI. Reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) using the LPI for school directors were reported at .79, consistently above the acceptable criterion of .70 (Santos, 1999: 1-6). Internal reliabilities for each of the five leadership practices were found as follows: Modeling the Way, .77; Inspiring a Shared Vision, .87; Challenging the Process, .80; Enabling Others to Act, .75; and Encouraging the Heart, .87 (Kouzes & Posner, 2000, 2002). In a study of managers and employees, managers' leadership behaviors internal reliability for the five leadership practices ranged from .88 to .95 (Bell-Roundtree, 2004). Test-retest reliabilities involving school administrators

were reported at .86 for superintendents and .79 for school directors (Kouzes & Posner. 2002).

Additionally, Kouzes and Posner (2002) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of the LPI. The analysis revealed that the LPI contained five factors, with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and accounting for 60.5% of the variance. The 30 leadership behavior items were subjected to a principal factoring method. Five interpretable factors were obtained, consistent with the five subscales of the LPI. The stability of the five factors was tested by factor analysis of the data from different sub-samples. In each case, the factor structure was essentially similar to the one involving the entire samples (Kouzes & Posner. 2002).

4. LPI Translation Reliability

4.1 The Back Translation Technique

The LPI survey instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) was asked for permission and the permission to use and translate the instrument was obtained from John Wiley & Sons, Inc, the distributor of legal department (See Appendix D). The back translation of the instrument used in this study was conducted based upon following guidelines provided by Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1986). In May, 2012, while the researcher was in Cambodia, the LPI questionnaire was translated into Khmer and sent to four experts to review the translated instrument and to establish content validity. Four experts were selected according to Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike's (1986) guidelines.

4.2 The Back Translation Operations

The translation procedure was overseen independently by a Cambodian Prof. Dr. Ros Soveacha, a Consultant, Division of Human Health, Department of Nuclear Sciences and Applications, International Atomic Energy Agency, and Adjunct Professor, Master of Education Program, Royal University of Phnom Penh (See Appendix E for

Certification of Back Translation). He acted as the first translator on both LPI forms (Self and Observer) and as moderator regarding translations in Khmer when differences in interpretations arose. Translation of the LPI proceeded as follows. Prof. Dr. Ros Soveacha first translated the LPI from English into Khmer and then sent it to a second translator. The second translator was Prof. Dr. Nith Bunlay, a Deputy Director General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS). Prof. Dr. Nith Bunlay translated the questionnaire back into English and sent it back to him. Prof. Dr. Ros Soveaha then sent the forms to a third translator to be translated back into Khmer. The third translator was Prof. Dr. Chhinh Sitha, a MEd. Program Director, Royal University of Phnom Penh (RUPP).

After receiving them back from the third translator, he sent them to a fourth translator for a second round of translation into English. The fourth translator was Prof. Lek Sovan, an Officer in Charge of Cooperation with Asia, International Relations Office, Research and Higher Education Cluster, University of Toulouse, France (See more detail in Appendix E).

When the last translated versions of the questionnaires were returned to him, he compared the original questionnaires with the translated version to investigate in detail the cause of the differences between the first and the last translated versions. In doing so, he found slight difference in the tone of language used. After looking at the specific areas where problems occurred, he invited two colleagues with doctoral degrees from the United States universities to attend a meeting, which he chaired, to resolve these differences for the most acceptable version in Khmer. After all meeting attendees agreed with the adjusted version, the original and the translated versions were compared again to ensure that the translated version maintained and carried out Kouzes and Posner's purpose and intent. The final draft was returned to all translators again for their

suggestions and approval. When every translator agreed with the latest version, he signed his name to verify approval of the translation. Finally, Prof. Dr. Ros Soveacha sent the final draft of the instrument to the researcher to use in conducting the research.

Clearly, to provide translators with a high probability of finding a readily available target language, they were supplied with a list of specific terms used exclusively in research in the fields of social science and education administration in both Khmer and English. According to Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1986: 37-54)'s recommendation for back-translation, it initially involved one bilingual translation from the source to the target language, then bilingual translating that back to the source. Each bilingual independently completed the translations from the source to the target and back to the source.

Besides, to ensure the validity of the study, the researcher invited four Thai experts who knew well about Cambodian context, especially educational sector and spent their life in Cambodia for many years to independently rate the data obtained from Khmer version the accuracy of the transcription and to clarify any inaccuracy immediately. Then, the completed questionnaire questions were re-worded and re-arranged with a discussion with the four Thai experts before their actual uses (See Appendix E). The four Thai experts included Assoc. Prof. Dr. Poomjit Ruangdej, a Thai language teaching expert, Thai Language Center, IFL-RUPP, Cambodia; Assoc. Prof. Sa-ngop Boonkloy, a former Thai language teaching expert, Thai Language Center, IFL-RUPP, and an invite lecturer at Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand; Assist. Prof. Bunsanoe Triwiset, a Associate Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University; and Assist. Prof. Dr. Kangvol Khatshima, Head of Department of Oriental Language, Faculty of Archaeology, Silpakorn University. All the translators and reviewers had a good knowledge of the research topic

and the specific research methods. Through these procedures the researcher could ensure the quality of the translation and minimize possible translative errors.

In summary, the purpose of this section was to determine the five fundamental practices of exemplary leadership of Kouzes and Posner (2003) and to discuss the methodology and results of the study. In this study, the school directors completed the LPI-Self and teachers completed the LPI-Observer, respectively. The final step, however, was to build the proposed model of leadership practices of the high schools directors in Cambodia. Figure 3.2 below shows the suggested layout of the methodology steps in this study.

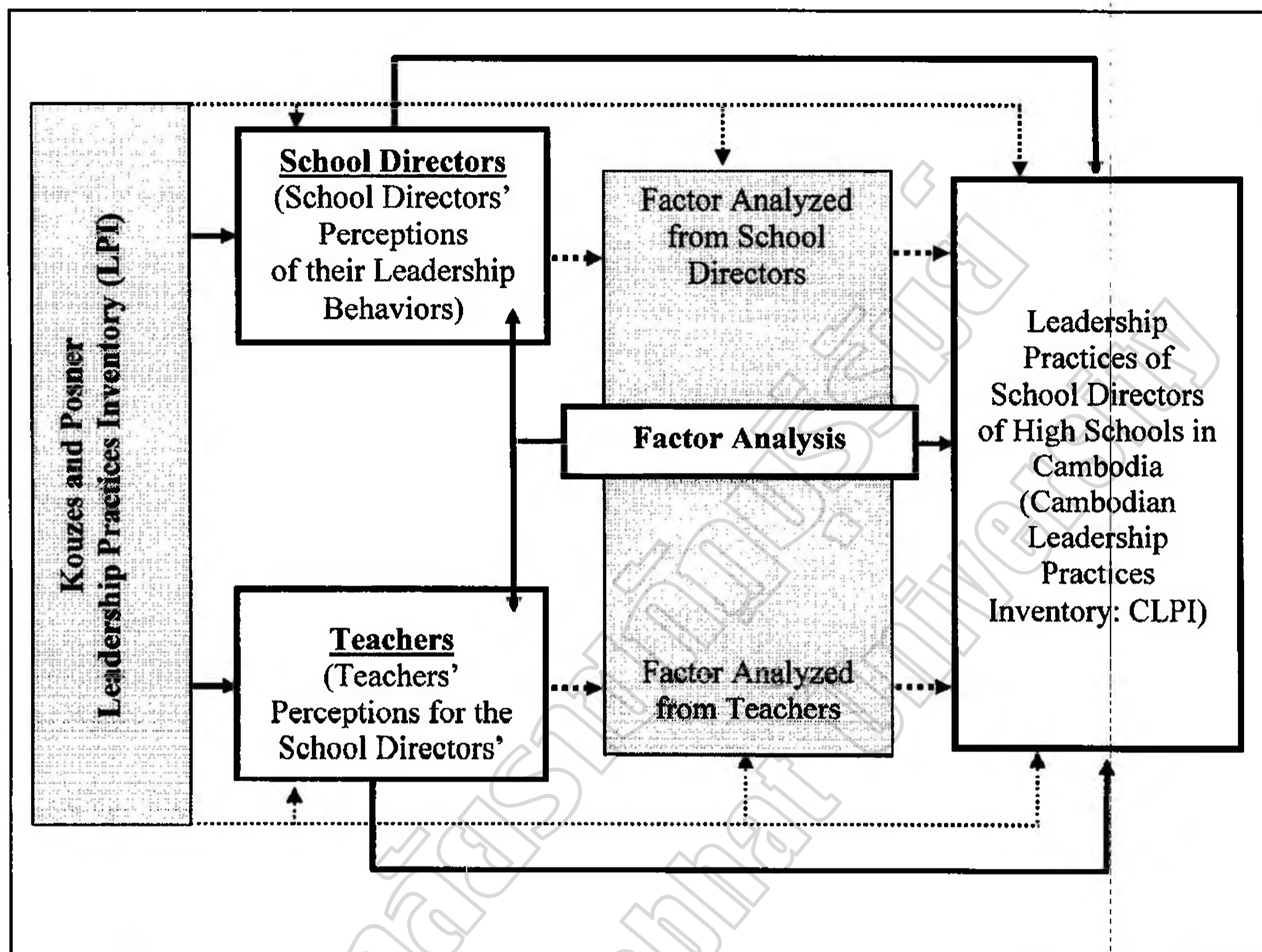


Figure 3.2 The Layout of the Methodology Steps in this Study

Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)

1. Construction and Development of CLPI

During the analysis, when Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test found to be .88 and .92 and Bartlett's test was significant for school directors and teachers respectively, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted. EFA aims to reach a few meaningful structures which together explain these variables from great number of variables. The basic criteria in evaluation of factor analysis results were factor loading which can be interpreted as the correlation between variables and factors in question. If orthogonally exists between the factors of scale, varimax rotation technique was used. On the other

hand, if there is a constant relation sequence, oblique rotation technique was generally used. In this study, varimax rotation technique was used (See more details in Chapter Four).

2. CLPI Structure and Scoring

In this study, quantitative data were gathered. CLPI, a survey instrument adapted by research from the research findings to measure school directors' leadership behaviors, was used. Returned questionnaires from both school directors and teachers were factor analyzed to determine their validity. Interestingly, school director components factor analyses were followed with varimax rotation. Factors were named according to items with higher loadings and item meaning. The researcher asked for kind cooperation for Prof. Dr. Ros Soveacha to name the new factors both school directors and teachers.

The findings of the factor analysis revealed that four factors were loaded in the school directors' scale. The four new factors loaded in the school directors' scale were demonstrating to support the heart (DSH), translating a shared vision into actions (TSA), sustaining willing participation (SWP), and engaging the heart in a shared process (EHS). In the same manner, teacher components factor analyses were followed with varimax rotation. The findings of the factor analysis revealed that three factors were loaded in the teachers' scale. The three new factors loaded in the teachers' scale were demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (DSD), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (EIO), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (TSM) (See Appendix F for more details). The 30-item CLPI with four factors for school directors and three factors for teachers consistently demonstrated sound psychometric properties. This is a culturally appropriate instrument and it can be used in leadership practice of school directors in Cambodian high schools in Cambodia. The results of EFA of the school directors and teachers are given in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 CLPI Item Numbers by Leadership Practice

Factor of Leadership Practice	Behaviors Statement Number
School Directors	
1. Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH)	1, 6, 10, 11, 16, 21, and 26
2. Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA)	2, 3, 7, 8, 12, 13, 17, 27, and 28
3. Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP)	4, 5, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, and 29
4. Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS)	18, 20, 22, 23, 25, and 30
Teachers	
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD)	1, 3, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, and 27
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO)	2, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24, 28, and 29
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM)	4, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 22, 23, 25, and 30

The results of factor analyses examination can provide practical and empirical evidence for instrument modification when applied in populations with different cultures and languages. Having completed the analysis of leadership practices of school directors and teachers in Cambodia, internal reliability was computed using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient, as Table 3.6 indicates did exist.

Table 3.6 Computed Alpha for the CLPI of School Directors and Teachers

CLPI Factor	No. of Item	Cronbach's Alpha
School Directors		
1. DSH	7	.97
2. TSA	9	.96
3. SWP	8	.95
4. EHS	6	.94
Teachers		
1. DSD	8	.89
2. EIO	12	.95
3. TSM	10	.94

Table 3.6 reported the reliability of the instrument and assessed the internal consistency of the instrument by computing Cronbach alphas. The instrument was tested

by comparing the rating of 191 school directors and 386 teachers. The researcher computed Cronbach alphas for school directors of the four factors: DSH, .97, T\$A, .96, SWP, .95, and EHS, .94, respectively. The Cronbach alphas for teachers of the three factors, DSD, was .89; EIO, was .96; and TSM, was .94, respectively. These numbers reflect the high inter-item reliability of the instrument.

In summary, the purpose of this section is to examine the confirmation of the CLPI. The confirmatory factor analysis was used to summarize the factors among the existing relationships of individual variables in this study. This analytical procedure serves as a data reduction method that condenses large sets of data into smaller, more manageable amounts of data. The knowledge obtained from the factor analysis examinations of the CLPI in this study can contribute to the development of leadership concept in Cambodia's education, and provide an example for conducting a cross-cultural study using Western instruments. Confirmatory, rather than exploratory factor analysis was the procedural choice because the constructs had been previously identified in the survey instrument used in this study. Figure 3.3 sets out the methodological actual steps in confirming the CLPI.

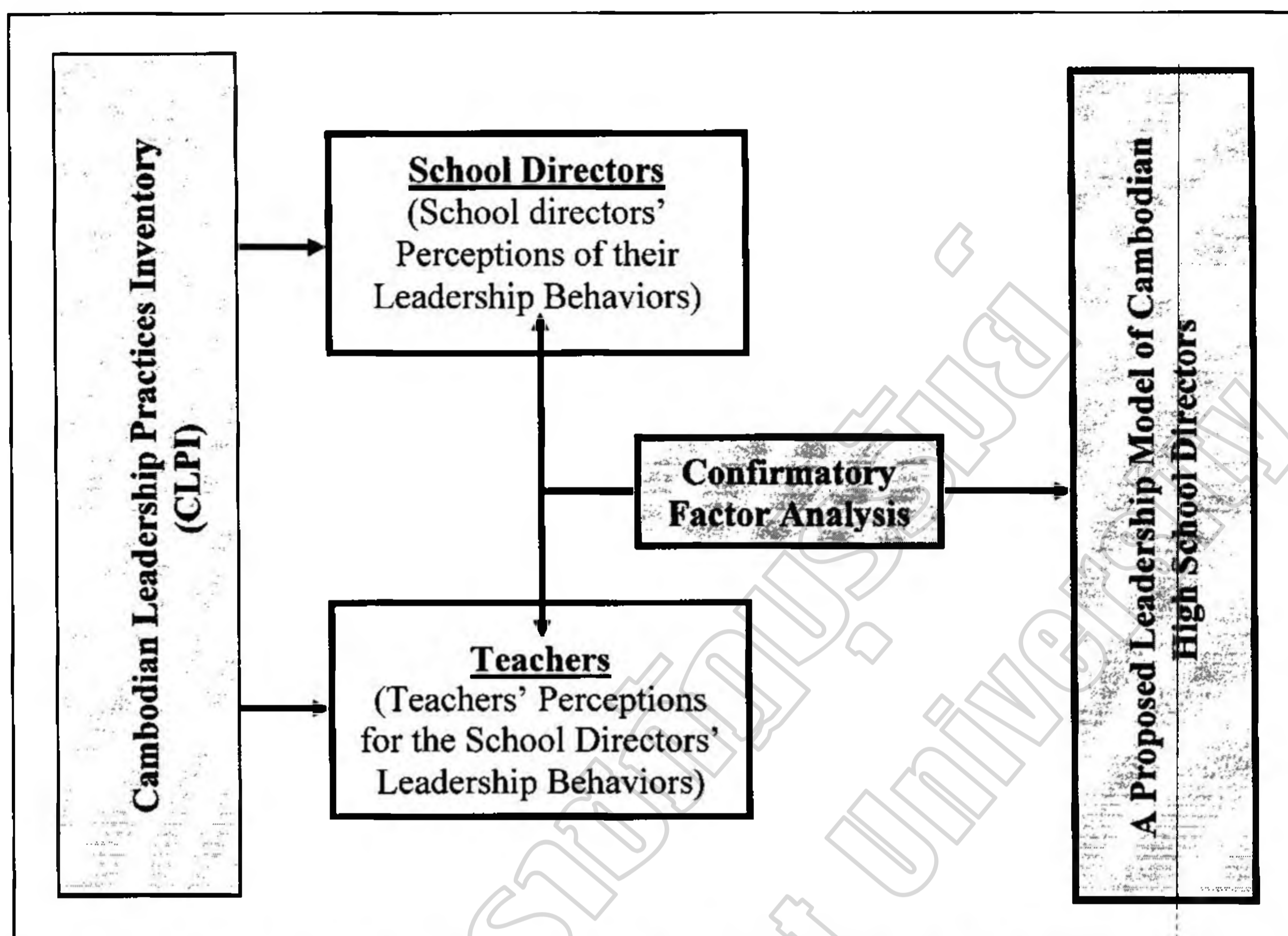


Figure 3.3 The Layout of the Methodology Steps in Constructing Proposed Model

Data Collection Procedures

To get rich description and understand the complexity of leadership behaviors to high school directors in the era of Cambodian education, the researcher collected data from two main instruments: the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), and the Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI). The survey was executed to capture the leadership practices characterizing the school directors working at the sample schools that might influence their leadership practices. A try-out instrument was conducted before the real surveys to pretest the instrument for the quantitative research.

The following subsections explicate the operational procedures of the try-out instrument, and the real surveys. Details about each data collection are described below.

Leadership Practice Inventory Questionnaire

1. A Tried-out Instrument

The tried-out instrument contained two parts: a trial of the translated questionnaire form, and a tried-out instrument. Before the real quantitative investigation conducted with a LPI questionnaire, a trial of translated questionnaire form was carried out in May, 2012. It aimed to evaluate all the items and the scale as a whole to check the content of the instrument and the operational process of data collection. It was essential to ensure linguistic accuracy, since the translated questionnaire was based partly on the framework developed in English-speaking countries, whereas all respondents were native Khmer and might not understand English. Due to the problems of technical new terms, the researcher again reviewed the instrument in accordance with Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike (1986)'s suggestions. The changes were made accordingly to ensure relevance of questions to capture participants' perceptions, suitability of layouts and accuracy of wordings. The Khmer reversion then focused on the cultural issues rather than literal translation. In addition, this process could help the researcher gathered relevant information to frame the questionnaire for real survey.

The preliminary test of translated questionnaire form was used to confirm the face validity by asking five school directors and ten teachers from five schools in Takeo Province whether the instrument looks valid to them and to obtain further information to refine the tried-out scale and help the researcher to learn more about the target group. The first cohort of the tried-out sample participated in the pretest and was asked to answer the a preliminary test of translated questionnaire form and comment on its relevance to the research topic, the clarity and legibility of the expression, and any other matter related to school director's leadership practices. Their feedback was used to improve the quantitative and help the researcher to understand the target group.

After the necessary revision, the researcher retested by trying out the questionnaires with the second cohort of a total of 50 male school directors and 100 teachers at Takeo and Kandal Province to examine the validity and reliability of the instrument by asking to answer all 30 items. Totally 100% of these participants returned the questionnaires. Regarding the current study, assessing internal consistency was more appropriate in the light of the research purpose, as well as the limited time and access to the target population. Among different ways of assessing internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) is the most recognized indicator used in quantitative data analysis. The total individual scales of both school directors and teachers were also internal consistent with the alphas of .91 and .93, respectively, which are generally considered acceptable (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

2. Pilot Study

In this stage, the survey was administered to the target samples with questionnaire pretest in the tried-out instrument. During this process, after receiving permission from the authors (See Appendix D for letter granting permission) to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (the approved Khmer translations of the Self and Observer Instruments) in this study, the data collection took place during the second semester of the 2012 academic year, which lasted from June to August 2012. Once permission was received from the committee to proceed with the study, the researcher completed the Graduate School Forms required by the university. Upon receipt of approval from Buriram Rajabhat University (See Appendix A), a research site request letter was sent to Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS) for issuing the permission and facilitation on conducting research (See Appendix B). This letter requested site approval as well as informing each director of provincial education service of the intent and purpose of this study. After obtaining permission from the MoEYS,

once provincial directors received site approval to conduct research, they sent a research announcement to the school districts. The research announcement explained this study and provided the school directors and teachers with an opportunity to review this study's intent. In addition, the school directors had the opportunity to distribute information about this study and research procedures to potential participants. Participants read and signed the informed consent forms. In addition, the researcher answered questions from the participants pertaining to this study.

During this time, the researcher requested the school directors and teachers to participate by complete a demographic survey – LPI-Self and LPI-Observer. Additional directions and demographic questions were included in the LPI survey. The LPI was distributed in person and by the staff of provincial education service. The researcher obtained a list of public high schools throughout Cambodia from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. The Khmer version of the questionnaire and a letter requesting cooperation from school directors and from teachers were sent to the participants in 191 public high schools in Cambodia (See Appendix B). The participants were asked to return the completed set of questionnaires to the office of their provincial education service without using attached stamped. The follow-up procedure was conducted by telephone on week afterward in order to improve the response rate. All procedures for data collection were approved by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, and the Directors of the Provincial Education Service, respectively (See Appendix B).

In a similar manner, in the letters of cooperation, participants were informed of the purpose of the study; namely, behaviors, to seek school directors' evaluations of themselves, and to observe each school directors' leadership as perceived by teachers. Additionally, the teachers were requested to retain their anonymity while filling in their

perceptions of their school directors' leadership behavior for the 30 items on the questionnaire. The researcher received the completed surveys 100% both from school directors and teachers. In an educational environment, it is hoped that this study could provide insight into the leadership practice of directors' of public high schools. After the gap is admitted, teachers' perceptions of the leadership practices of school directors of public high schools were explored. The "gap" in here means the difference between the directors' leadership practice behavior and teachers' perceptions of the directors' leadership practice behavior. Among different ways of assessing internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) is the most recognized indicator used in quantitative data analysis. Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. For the school director of the LPI, an alpha of .90 was achieved; whereas, the teacher of the LPI, an alpha of .93 was achieved, respectively, and these are generally considered acceptable (Kerlinger & Lee. 2000).

By virtue of its importance, the researcher used strict confidentiality during the entire research process. All identifying information was removed from any materials with individual participants' information. Furthermore, the researcher maintained privacy and confidentiality by removing the names of individuals and schools. This study respected the research sites by following the guidelines as outlined with respect to conducting research in public high schools. In addition to following privacy and confidentiality guidelines, data will be kept in a locked cabinet, to in which researcher has access. The results of the study could possibly be used in a future workshop, professional conference, or for publication. At the end of one year, participants' answers will be shredded and properly disposed.

Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)

This was a quantitative study by design. Primary data were collected via the survey method. An instrument, the CLPI was developed and distributed to the school directors and teachers of the samples of high school levels in Cambodia. School directors' CLPI-Self, as well as teachers' CLPI-Observer perceptions of leadership behaviors was gathered through completion of the CLPI (See Appendix F).

Permissions for conducting this study were given by the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport and the Directors of Provincial Education Service, respectively. A convenience sample of 50 school directors and 100 teachers was selected to determine the readability of the CLPI. The participants were asked to provide their comments about whether the instructions were clear and if the question items were easy to answer. No items were modified. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the 30-item CLPI-Self and CLPI-Observer total scale was .96 and .94, respectively, which were consistently demonstrated as acceptable reliability. For item analysis, all of the interitem and corrected item-total correlation coefficients showed acceptable homogeneity within these 30 items.

In the process of data collection of main study, the researcher first gave a brief self-introduction to the participants and outlined the purpose and process of the survey to establish trust and credibility. Then, the questionnaires were distributed to the participants and it took about 30 minutes for them to complete it. The completed questionnaires were immediately collected only by the researcher to ensure their confidentiality. Internal consistency of the instrument was analyzed to determine the reliability of the CLPI. All completed school director surveys ($n = 191$) and all completed teacher surveys ($n = 386$) were used to test the reliability of the instrument. Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. For the school director of the CLPI,

an alpha of .88 was achieved; whereas, for the teacher of the CLPI, an alpha of .93 was achieved.

The study involved participants' personal views so that voluntaries, privacy, and confidentiality were important ethical considerations. Great efforts were made to obtain informed consent from the participants and protect their privacy and the information they supplied. Before the tried-out instrument and pilot study, the invitation letter was sent to each potential participant in which there was an assurance that all of their identifying information (such as names of institutions or people) would be protected. The participants were also informed that their participation in this research was voluntary and did not relate to any performance evaluation. All participants could withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and avoid answering questions to which they did not want to respond. Each of them would receive a copy of their interview transcript and would have an opportunity to make comments or corrections. The data were collected directly by the researcher. All personal information was only accessed by the researcher, who did not disclose any information that was prejudicial or disadvantageous to the participants. In the stages of data analysis and data presentation, the identity of each informant was allocated a pseudonym with a Khmer letter. Consequently, no individual or workplace could be identified by name or description in the dissertation. In addition, the cultural and social backgrounds of the participants were also taken into consideration. Their perceptions of leadership were deeply influenced by Cambodian societal culture and the local context. The researcher respected their dignity, self-esteem, values, ideas, and concerns and endeavored to understand their viewpoints in a non-threatening and unassuming way.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data analyses for this study were conducted in two stages: 1) exploratory factor analysis of the LPI under investigation, and 2) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the CLPI. Stage I was carried out by computer statistical analysis software, while stage II was executed via AMOS, respectively. The following section reports the data analysis techniques in relation to each research question and describes how data were analyzed. As stated above, to yield reliability in the research study, the two sources of data include the LPI, and the CLPI.

In terms of results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the basic assumption of a factor analysis is that underlying dimensions can be used to explain complex phenomena. Using as few factors as possible, the solution becomes simple, meaningful, and interpretable. The purpose of this analysis is to minimize the number of significant loading for each item, and to make the true content of each factor more obvious. Data reduction by factor analysis involves summarizing the important information contained by the data to a fewer number of factors. The purpose of a factor analysis is twofold: 1) data reduction in order to define the underlying structure of the data (factors); and 2) provide substantive interpretation with the minimum loss of information. As for items to be included in the factor analysis, items should have high correlation coefficients with at least one other item in the matrix. As a rule of thumb, the item-to-total correlations should exceed .5 for items to be included in the factors analysis (Nunnally, 1978: 279; Caruana, Pitt & Berthon, 1995; Hair et al. 1998: 99). Factors were then extracted based on the results of a scree plot, eigenvalues, total variance, and the conceptual consideration. Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sample Adequacy (KMO value) provides a more formal way of assessing whether a set of variables overall,

and each item in particular, is appropriate for a factor analysis. Academically, the KMO value should be .6 or .7 or above for a value/item to be included in the factor analysis. However, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value, a statistical test for presence of overall significance of the correlations among the variables, should be significant, i.e. significant values of .05 or smaller. A factor analysis was conducted to categorize the variables measuring the LPI. Thirty items measuring the LPI were submitted to a school director and teacher component analysis with aromas rotation. Items with loadings above .50 were retained for use in construction of subscales.

In terms of interpretation, the mean scores of necessary for leadership behaviors from both school directors and teachers were interpreted with the determined five levels of interpretation criteria using the criteria designed by Srisa-ard in Research for Teacher (2003) for analyzing data collection. The researcher gained permission from the author to use the interpreted criteria (See Appendix G). The five levels of interpretation of leadership behaviors are presented in Table 3.7 as follows:

Table 3.7 Five Levels of Interpretation Proposed by Srisa-ard (2003)

The Key to Understand Average of Usage Group		
Highest	Always or Almost Always	4.51-5.00
High	Usually	3.51-4.50
Moderate	Sometimes	2.51-3.50
Low	Only Occasionally	1.50-2.50
Lowest	Never or Almost Never	1.00-1.50

Before running the CFA, the number of factors in the model is hypothesized and often the researcher will also make predictions about which variables will be loaded onto which factors. The researcher seeks to determine, for instance, if items created in the CLPI scale to represent a hidden variable really belong together.

In terms of statistical tests for Model Fit, a statistical chi-square test was determined to assess how well the hypothesized model fits the data (where a non-significant chi-square indicates excellent model fit). Guidelines for an acceptable model provide by Carmines and McIver (1981) is that the relative chi-square should be in the 2:1 to 3:1 range. In addition, ratios between two and five have also been accepted. However, all goodness of fit measures are some function of the chi-square and the degree of freedom. If the model fits perfectly, the fit indices should have the value 1. As Hox (2002) indicates, a value of at least 0.90 is required to judge the model fit as good. A relative recent approach to model fit is to acknowledge that models are only approximations, and the problem is to assess how accurate a given model approximates the true model. This view led to the development of RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation). Hair et al. (1998) provide guidelines for interpreting the RMSEA as follows: RMSEA should be below 0.05 for a good model fit; between 0.05 and 0.01 for a reasonable model fit, and a RMSEA that exceeds 0.01 is poor model fit. Brown and Cudeck's (1992) RMSEA criteria differ somewhat and their guidelines are as follows: below 0.05 indicates close fit, between 0.05 and 0.08 indicates reasonable fit, between 0.08 and 0.10 indicates mediocre fit, and RMSEA exceeding 0.01 indicates unacceptable fit. A perfectly fitting model would yield a RMSEA of 0.000. Moreover, Hu and Bentler (1998) recommend that the RMSEA should be smaller than or equal to 0.06 as a threshold for an acceptable model fit. A value of 0.90 is considered to be a good fit for CFI, NNFI, and IFI fit indices (Bentler & Bonnett. 1980; Bentler. 1990; Steiger, 1995). Table 3.8 summarizes the data sources and the data analysis techniques used to address each research question in the study.

Research Question One: What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors?

The first research question was directed toward identifying the leadership behaviors exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors. The data for this research question came from the CLPI responses. The CLPI was created by researcher according to the latest 2003 third edition Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). The mean scores and standard deviations of responses to 30 five-point Likert scale questions were calculated to see which dimension items were reported as used most frequently and least frequently by the participants. As mentioned earlier, the data were derived from the factor analysis based on the 191 school directors reported on the LPI. In regarding to the factor analysis, the researcher then translated the actions that made up and named the five practices of the LPI into behavioral statements. The CLPI is a 30-item questionnaire used to rate school directors on four practices behaviors were demonstrating to support the heart (7 items), translating a shared vision into actions (9 items), sustaining willing participation (8 items), and engaging the heart in a shared vision (6 items). In addition, the top 10 and the bottom 10 leadership practices reported by school directors were identified. Lastly, the top three leadership practices in each subdimension reported through the CLPI by the informants in the study were listed.

Research Question Two: What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the teachers?

The second research question was directed toward identifying the leadership behaviors exhibiting by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the teachers. The data for this research question came from the CLPI responses. The mean scores and standard deviations of responses to 30 five-point Likert scale questions were calculated

to see which dimension items were reported as used most frequently and least frequently by the participants. As mentioned earlier, the data were derived from the factor analysis based on the 386 teachers reported on the LPI. In regarding to the factor analysis, the researcher then translated the actions that made up and named the five practices of the LPI into behavioral statements. The CLPI is a 30-item questionnaire used to rate school directors on four practices behaviors were demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (8 items), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (12 items), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (8 items). In addition, the top 10 and the bottom 10 leadership practices reported by school directors as perceived by teachers were identified. Lastly, the top three leadership practices in each subdimension reported through the CLPI by the informants in the study were listed.

Research Question Three: Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?

As for the quantitative data which were partly reported in research question one, the findings presented focused solely on the data from school directors. How the leadership practices reported to be used by school directors based on the demographic factors of age, educational level, and working experience were found to be different from each other was also deemed worthy of investigation. Thus, in this research question, the researcher used an independent samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA to answer the research questions were applied to all leadership practices dimensions reported to be used by school directors in four subdimensions to examine whether the observed differences in the overall means of the two and three groups were statistically significant. Additionally, the results of separated one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were computed to determined significant differences among mean scores of responses from

school directors based upon age, and educational level. For analyzing the difference in mean scores between the respondents working experience in schools that met the CLPI requirement and those that did not, independent samples t-test was calculated.

The acceptable level of significance set was at $p \leq .05$.

Research Question Four: Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?

As for the quantitative data which were partly reported in research question two, the findings presented focused solely on the data from teachers. How the leadership practices reported to be used by school directors as perceived by teachers based on the demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and working experience were found to be different from each other was also deemed worthy of investigation. Thus, in this research question, the researcher used an independent samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA to answer the research questions were applied to all leadership practices dimensions reported to be used by school directors as perceived by teachers in three subdimensions to examine whether the observed differences in the overall means of the two and three groups were statistically significant. Additionally, the results of separated one-way ANOVA were computed to determine significant differences among mean scores of responses from school directors based upon age, educational level, and working experience. For analyzing the difference in mean scores between the respondents' gender in schools that met the CLPI requirement and those that did not, independent samples t-test was calculated. For this study, the level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$.

Research Question Five: To what extent is the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?

The fifth research question was directed toward identifying the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' preferences for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia. To answer this question, the CLPI 30-item questionnaire was employed as the main instrument. The CLPI was created by researcher according to the latest 2003 third edition Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003). In regarding to the factor analysis, the researcher then translated the actions that made up and named the five practices of the LPI into behavioral statements. The CLPI is a 30-item questionnaire used to rate school directors on four practices behaviors were demonstrating to support the heart (7 items), translating a shared vision into actions (9 items), sustaining willing participation (8 items), and engaging the heart in a shared vision (6 items). The three leadership practices of teachers' preferences were: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (8 items), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (12 items), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (8 items).

The Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) was employed to analysis the collected data.

The CCA is a well-known statistical technique used to identify and measure the association between two sets of random vectors using specific matrix functions of variance-covariance matrices of these variables.

Research Question Six: What leadership behaviors model should the high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?

This research question was conducted to find out the confirmatory data analyses of the relationships between school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' preferences for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia. As mentioned earlier, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to examine the validity of the CLPI given that the four and three-factor structure for school directors and teachers of the CLPI is well-established. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was utilized to test the factor structure of the remaining inventories that met the rule of sample size. With the CFA, a two-step procedure was adopted for inventories that met the sample size condition. In the first step, model testing of each subscale in an inventory was conducted; in the second step, the whole model of the inventory was examined based on the results of the first step. For those inventories that satisfied the sample-size condition, cross validation was also carried out for the model confirmation. AMOS, a program for the structural equation modeling techniques, was used to evaluate how well the specific models adequately described the data.

Table 3.8 Summary of Data Source and Data Analysis for Each Research Question

Research Question	Data Source	Data Analysis
1. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	Descriptive statistical analysis of CLPI dimensions, divided into demonstrating to support the heart, translating a shared vision into actions, sustaining willing participation, and engaging the heart in a shared vision
2. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the teachers?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	Descriptive statistical analysis of CLPI dimensions, divided into demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation
3. Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	1. Descriptive statistics for the CLPI 2. Inferential statistics for the CLPI
4. Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	1. Descriptive statistics for the CLPI 2. Inferential statistics for the CLPI
5. To what extent is the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA)
6. What leadership behaviors model should the high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?	Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI)	Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS)

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the research findings from the analyses of data collected in this study. Data were gathered by survey method and analyzed through quantitative statistical procedures. The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. This chapter begins by describing the response rate and the participants' demographic information, and then the results from the factor analyses are both reported and encountered. Also, descriptive and inferential statistics are then presented for each research question. Data related to the research questions under study are presented in tables throughout the chapter and are accompanied by narrative of salient findings.

Results of Surveyed Samples' Demographic Characteristics

To further describe the surveyed samples, demographic information about the leadership behaviors was gathered through a demographic questionnaire. A form to collect demographics was completed by school directors and teachers in each school (See Appendix C). Demographic data were reported concerning respondents' genders, ages, educational levels, working experiences, and school sizes.

Through the survey, a total of 191 school directors and 386 teachers were collected. Among them, 191 (100%), and 386 (100%) respondents provided valid data. The valid data were sorted out and prepared for the statistical analysis. Table 4.1 presents a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants who provided valid responses.

Table 4.1 Frequency and Percentage Distribution for Demographic Variables of School Directors and Teachers

Variable	School Directors (N=191)		Teachers (N=386)	
	N	%	N	%
Genders				
Male	191	100.00	232	59.80
Female	-	-	155	40.20
Total	191	100.00	386	100.00
Ages				
Below 30 years	-	-	68	17.60
30-45 years	75	39.30	189	49.00
More than 45 years	116	60.70	129	33.40
Total	191	100.00	386	100.00
Education Levels				
Below Bachelor's Degree	-	-	72	18.70
Bachelor's Degree	147	77.00	259	67.10
Higher than Bachelor's Degree	44	23.00	55	14.20
Total	191	100.00	386	100.00
Working/Teaching Experiences				
Below 5 years	34	17.80	87	22.50
5-10 years	72	37.70	166	43.00
More than 10 years	85	44.50	133	34.50
Total	191	100.00	386	100.00
School Sizes				
Small	-	-	-	-
Middle	-	-	-	-
Large	191	100.00	386	100.00
Total	191	100.00	386	100.00

Table 4.1 presents the demographic variables of school directors, and teachers.

As for school directors' demographics, there was a proportion of male respondents (100.00%, n=191) compared to female respondents (0%) who participated in this research study. Remarkably, the gender of school directors was not taken to analyze. The surveyed school directors' ages ranged from 35 to more than 45. A total of 116 (60.70%) respondents who were more than 45 years old represented the majority of the school directors, respectively. The school directors' degrees ranged from bachelor's degrees to higher than bachelor's degree. A total of 147 (77.00%) respondents who

earned bachelor's degree represents the majority of school directors. The highest percentage was indicated in the more than ten years (44.50%, n = 85) total years working experience. The remaining groups in descending order were 17% (n = 34) were in the below 5 years, and 37% (n = 72) were in the 5 years to 10 years total working experience. Totally 100.00% (n=191) of school directors were administered at large-sized schools.

As for teachers' demographics, there was a higher proportion of male teachers (59.80%, n=232) compared to female teachers (40.20%, n=155) who participated in this research study. Based on their responses, the largest percentage of teachers fell within the 30 to 45 (49.00%, n = 189) year age range, and the second highest percentage fell within more than 45 (33.4%, n=129). A total of 17.60% (n=68) represents a lowest percentage. The next survey question asked teachers to indicate their highest degree earned. The percentage of teachers holding either a below bachelor's or higher than bachelor's degree were nearly equal. 18.70% (n = 72) reported they had a below bachelor's degree and 67.10% (n = 259) reported they had a bachelor's degree. The remaining 14.20% (n = 55) reported having earned higher bachelor's degree. Teachers were then asked to indicate the total number of years teaching experience. Participants' responses indicated that largest percentages of respondents fell within the 5 years to 10 years category (43.00%, n = 166). The second highest group was indicated in the more than 10 years (34.50%, n = 133) total years of teaching experience. The remaining group in descending order is below 5 total years (22.50%, n = 87). 100.00 % of teachers' responses were taught at large-sized schools.

In analyzing the surveyed samples' demographic data, there was a clear profile of school directors and teachers who administered and taught at high school levels in Cambodia.

Results of the Factor Analysis

As mentioned, the Kouzes-Posner Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) has 30 statements which are uniquely divided into five subscales representing the five practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. As such, school directors evaluated themselves by using the LPI-Self instrument; whereas, teachers in each school were asked to rate the frequency in which their school directors engaged in thirty leadership practices by using the LPI-Observer instrument. The questions on the LPI-Observer and the LPI-Self were correlated in content.

The instruments used to collect quantitative data for school directors and teachers were Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Descriptive statistics were mainly computed for LPI instrument employed to operationalize the various independent variables (gender, age, educational level, working/teaching experience, and school sizes) and dependent variables (five practices of exemplary leadership) in the current study.

In terms of results of factor analysis, the basic assumption of a factor analysis is that underlying dimensions can be used to explain complex phenomena. Using as few factors as possible, the solution becomes simple, meaningful, and interpretable. The purpose of this section is to minimize the number of significant loading for each item, and to make the true content of each factor more obvious. Data reduction by factor analysis involves summarizing the important information contained by the data to a fewer number of factors. The purpose of a factor analysis is twofold: 1) data reduction in order to define the underlying structure of the data (factors), and 2) provide substantive interpretation with the minimum loss of information. As for items to be included in the factor analysis, items should have high correlation coefficients with at least one other

item in the matrix. As a rule of thumb, the item-to-total correlations should exceed .5 for items to be included in the factors analysis (Nunnally. 1978: 279; Caruana, Pitt & Berthon. 1995; Hair et al. 1998: 99). Factors were then extracted based on the results of a scree plot, eigenvalues, total variance, and the conceptual consideration.

Additionally, the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin Measure of Sample Adequacy (KMO value) provides a more formal way of assessing whether a set of variables overall, and each item in particular, is appropriate for a factor analysis. Academically, the KMO value should be .6 or .7 or above for a value/item to be included in the factor analysis. However, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value, a statistical test for presence of overall significance of the correlations among the variables, should be significant, i.e. significant values of .05 or smaller.

Interpretation of School Directors' Four New Factors

Returned questionnaires from both school directors and teachers were factor analyzed to determine their validity. Interestingly, school director component factor analyses were followed through with Varimax rotation. According to the results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), original construction with 30 items and 5 subdimensions were changed. The findings of the factor analysis revealed that four factors were loaded in the school directors' scale. The four new factors loaded in the school directors' scale were: 1) demonstrating to support the heart, 2) translating a shared vision into actions, 3) sustaining willing participation, and 4) engaging the heart in a shared process. Each factor reflects a set of leadership practices that have incentive value for improving school directors' leadership behaviors. The details of factor loaded are described as follows:

Table 4.2 Construct School Directors' Factors of the Cambodian Leadership**Practices Inventory (CLPI)**

The 30-item CLPI in this Study	Kouzes and Posner (2003): 30-item LPI
Factor 1: Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH) CLPI 1, 6, 10, 11, 16, 21, 26	Factor: Modeling the Way LPI 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26 Factor: Encouraging the Heart LPI 10
Factor 2: Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA) CLPI 2, 3, 7, 8, 12, 13, 17, 27, 28	Factor: Inspiring a Shared Vision LPI 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27 Factor: Challenging the Process LPI 3, 8, 13, 18, 28
Factor 3: Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP) CLPI 4, 5, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, 29	Factor: Enabling Others to Act LPI 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29 Factor: Encouraging the Heart LPI 5, 15
Factor 4: Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS) CLPI 18, 20, 22, 23, 25, 30	Factor: Challenging the Process LPI 18, 23 Factor: Inspiring a Shared Vision LPI 22 Factor: Encouraging the Heart LPI 20, 25, 30

As indicated in Table 4.2, new factors were named according to items with higher loadings and item meaning. Factor one, Demonstrating to Support the Heart, contains seven items (items 1, 6, 10, 11, 16, 21, and 26) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) two leadership practices of Modeling the Way (items 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, and 26), and Encouraging the Heart (item 10). Factor two named Translating a Shared Vision into Actions, consists of 9 items (items 2, 3, 7, 8, 12, 13, 17, 27, and 28) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) two leadership practices of Inspiring a Shared Vision (2, 7, 12, 17, 22, and 27), and Challenging the Process (items 3, 8, 13, 18, and 28). Factor three named Sustaining Willing Participation, consists of 9 items (items 4, 5, 9, 14, 15, 19, 24, and 29) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) two leadership

practices of Enabling Others to Act (items 4, 9, 14, 19, 24, and 29), and Encouraging the Heart (items 5, 15). Six items (items 18, 20, 22, 23, 25, and 30) compose factor four, Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision, which are from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) three leadership practices of Challenging the Process (items 18, and 23), Inspiring a Shared Vision (item 22), and Encouraging the Heart (items 20, 25, and 30).

Relatively, an exploratory factor analysis (Varimax rotation) was chosen in order to explore and determine the underlying factor-structure of the LPI scale (30 items) based on the samples of Cambodian school directors and teachers. The Scree Plot indicated a four-factor solution.

Table 4.3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test School Directors' CLPI

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.88
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7518.381
	df	435
	Sig.	.000

According to Table 4.3, the researcher subjected the thirty Kouzes and Posner statements to a school director component analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures of sampling adequacy was .88, and Bartlett's test of sphericity had a value of .000.

Thus, the initial steps in preparation for school directors' factor analysis justified that factors analysis could be applied on the data set. Table 4.4 reports the capacity scale items with factor loadings above .5 composing each of the four factors.

Table 4.4 Varimax Rotated Component Matrix for School Directors' CLPI

Commitments for Practice	Varimax Rotated Component
Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH)	
11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.	.96
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.	.95
6. I spend time and energy making certain that people I work with adhere to the principals and standard we have agreed on.	.94
26. I am clear about my philosophy of educational leadership.	.92
10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.	.85
1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.	.85
21. I build consensus around people a common set of values for running our organization.	.84
Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA)	
12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	.96
13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	.93
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	.91
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a change of failure.	.90
3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.	.89
8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	.88
7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.	.83
17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	.82
2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	.79
Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP)	
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	.91
19. I support the decisions that people make on their own.	.88
5. I praise people for job well done.	.87
4. I develop cooperative relationships among people I work with.	.84
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	.83
9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.	.82
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.	.80
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.	.77

Table 4.4 (Cont.)

Commitments for Practice		Varimax Rotated Component
Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS)		
25.	I find ways to celebrate accomplishment.	.94
30.	I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	.93
23.	I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	.91
18.	I ask "What we can learn?" when things don't go as expected.	.86
22.	I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	.84
20.	I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	.75

Having completed the analysis of leadership practices of school directors in Cambodia, internal reliability was computed using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. Leadership practice statements were grouped according to the subscale of school directors' group. The results for mean, standard deviation, and alpha explained for each variable, and if an item was deleted from leadership characteristics and behavior, as illustrated in Table 4.5, and 4.6, respectively.

Table 4.5 Computed Alpha for School Directors' CLPI

Factor	School Directors	
	No. of Item	Alpha
1. Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH)	7	.97
2. Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA)	9	.96
3. Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP)	8	.95
4. Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS)	6	.94

Table 4.5 shows the computation of Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient which was performed for CLPI subdimensions (DSH, TSA, SWP, EHS). The Cronbach reliability for DSH=.97, TSA=.96, SWP=.95, and EHS=.94.

Interpretation of Teachers' Three New Factors

Teacher components factor analyses were followed through with Varimax rotation. According to results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), original construction with 30 items and 5 subdimensions changed. The factor analysis conducted for this study revealed three dimensions of teachers' preference towards school directors' leadership behaviors. The three new factors loaded in the teachers' scale were categorized as: 1) demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, 2) engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and 3) translating a shared vision into moral obligation. Each factor reflected a set of leadership practices that have incentive value for improving school directors' leadership behaviors. The details of factor loading are described as follows:

Table 4.6 Construct Teachers' Factors of Cambodian Leadership Practices

Inventory (CLPI)	
The 30-item CLPI in this Study	Kouzes and Posner (2003): 30-item LPI
<p>Factor 1: Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD) CLPI 1, 3, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 27</p>	<p>Factor: Modeling the Way LPI 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26</p> <p>Factor: Challenging the Process LPI 3</p> <p>Factor: Inspiring a Shared Vision LPI 27</p>
<p>Factor 2: Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO) CLPI 2, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24, 28, 29</p>	<p>Factor: Modeling the Way LPI 2, 17</p> <p>Factor: Challenging the Process LPI 8, 13, 18, 28</p> <p>Factor: Encouraging the Heart LPI 10, 15, 20</p> <p>Factor: Enabling Others to Act LPI 19, 24, 29</p>
<p>Factor 3: Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM) CLPI 4, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 22, 23, 25, 30</p>	<p>Factor: Enabling Others to Act LPI 4, 9</p> <p>Factor: Inspiring a Shared Vision LPI 7, 12, 14, 22, 23</p> <p>Factor: Encouraging the Heart LPI 5, 25, 30</p>

According to Table 4.6, three new factors were named according to items with higher loadings and item meaning. Factor one, Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD), contains eight items (items 1, 3, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, and 27) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) two leadership practices of Modeling the Way (items 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, and 26), and Inspiring a Shared Vision (item 27). Factor two named Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO), consists of twelve items (items 2, 8, 10, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 24, 28, and 29) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) four leadership practices of Modeling the Way (items 2, and 17), Challenging the Process (items 8, 13, 18, and 28), Encouraging the Heart (10, 15, and 20), and Enabling Others to Act (items 19, 24, and 29). Factor three named Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM), consisted of ten items (4, 5, 7, 9, 12, 14, 22, 23, 25, and 30) from most of Posner and Kouzes' original (2003) three leadership practices of Enabling Others to Act (items 4, and 9), Inspiring a Shared Vision (7, 12, 14, 22, and 23), and Encouraging the Heart (5, 25, and 30).

Table 4.7 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test Teachers' CLPI

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.93
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	10882.728
	df	435
	Sig.	.000

According to Table 4.7, the researcher subjected the thirty Kouzes and Posner statements to a school director component analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .93, and Bartlett's test of sphericity had a value of .000. Thus, the initial steps in preparation for teachers' factor analysis justified factors analysis

applied on the data set. Table 4.8 below reports the capacity scale items with factor loadings above .5 composing each of the three factors.

Table 4.8 Varimax Rotated Component Matrix for Teachers' CLPI

Commitments for Practice		Varimax Rotated Component
Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD)		
21.	My director builds consensus around people a common set of values for running our organization.	.87
1.	My director sets a personal example of what he expects of others.	.82
27.	My director speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	.80
6.	My director spends time and energy making certain that people he works with adhere to the principals and standard we have agreed on.	.70
26.	My director is clear about his philosophy of leadership.	.67
3.	My director seeks out challenging opportunities that test his own skills and abilities.	.66
11.	My director follows through on the promises and commitments that he makes.	.66
16.	My director asks for feedback on how may actions affect other people's performance.	.65
Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO)		
15.	My director makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.	.87
29.	My director ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	.86
18.	My director asks "What we can learn?" when things don't go as expected.	.85
17.	My director shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	.84
8.	My director challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	.82
13.	My director searches outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	.82
10.	My director makes it a point to let people know about his confidence in their abilities.	.79
2.	My director talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	.77
19.	My director supports the decisions that people make on their own.	.76
20.	My director publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	.76

Table 4.8 (Cont.)

Commitments for Practice		Varimax Rotated Component
Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO) (Cont)		
28.	My director experiments and takes risks, even when there is a change of failure.	.76
24.	My director gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	.70
Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM)		
23.	My director makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	.94
25.	My director finds ways to celebrate accomplishment.	.92
22.	My director paints the “big picture” of what we aspire to accomplish.	.91
30.	My director gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	.89
4.	My director develops cooperative relationships among people he works with.	.81
5.	My director praises people for job well done.	.80
14.	My director treats others with dignity and respect.	.79
9.	My director actively listens to diverse points of view.	.74
12.	My director appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	.65
7.	My director describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.	.64

Having completed the analysis of leadership practices of teachers in Cambodia, internal reliability was computed using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Leadership practice statements were grouped according to the subscale of teachers' group.

The results for mean, standard deviation, and alpha explained for each variable, and if an item was deleted from leadership characteristics and behavior, as illustrated in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Computed Alpha for Teachers' CLPI

Factor	Teachers	
	No. of Item	Alpha
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD)	8	.89
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO)	12	.96
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM)	10	.94

Table 4.9 shows the computation of Cronbach Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient which was performed for CLPI subdimensions (DSD, EIO, and TSM). The Cronbach reliability for DSD=.89, EIO=.96, and TSM=.94.

To summarize, the four and three-factor structures of the CLPI obtained via the EFA methods were similar and acceptable. Also, it is important to point out that for the school directors, and teachers, the number in any one of the factors was quite small. Therefore, it is much more difficult to find statistically significant differences. This is particularly true for school directors, and teachers, where there were only four and three factors responded in a group of school directors and teachers. There is a great deal of variance in judgments about the school directors, and teachers of high schools and their use of their factors. This is true for the school directors and teachers themselves.

Summary of the Results from the Factor Analysis

In concluding this section, it is important to point out that for the information as to the perceived uses of leadership practices admitted by school directors and observations of teachers on leadership practices of school directors revealed that the school directors and teachers tended to employ a wide range of leadership practices. As indicated earlier, the returned questionnaires from both school directors and teachers were factor analyzed to determine their validity. The findings of the factors analysis indicated that four factors were loaded in the school directors' scale and three factors were loaded in teachers' scale. The four factors loaded in the school directors' scale were demonstrating to support the heart, translating a shared vision into actions, sustaining willing participation, and engaging the heart in a shared vision, respectively. The three factors loaded in the teachers' scale were demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation, respectively. This is particularly true

for school directors and teachers, where there were only four and three respondents in a group. There is a great deal of variance in judgments about the school directors and teachers at high schools level and their use of the four and three factors. This is true for the school directors, and teachers themselves. Below is Figure 4.1 which maps from the results of the factor analysis.

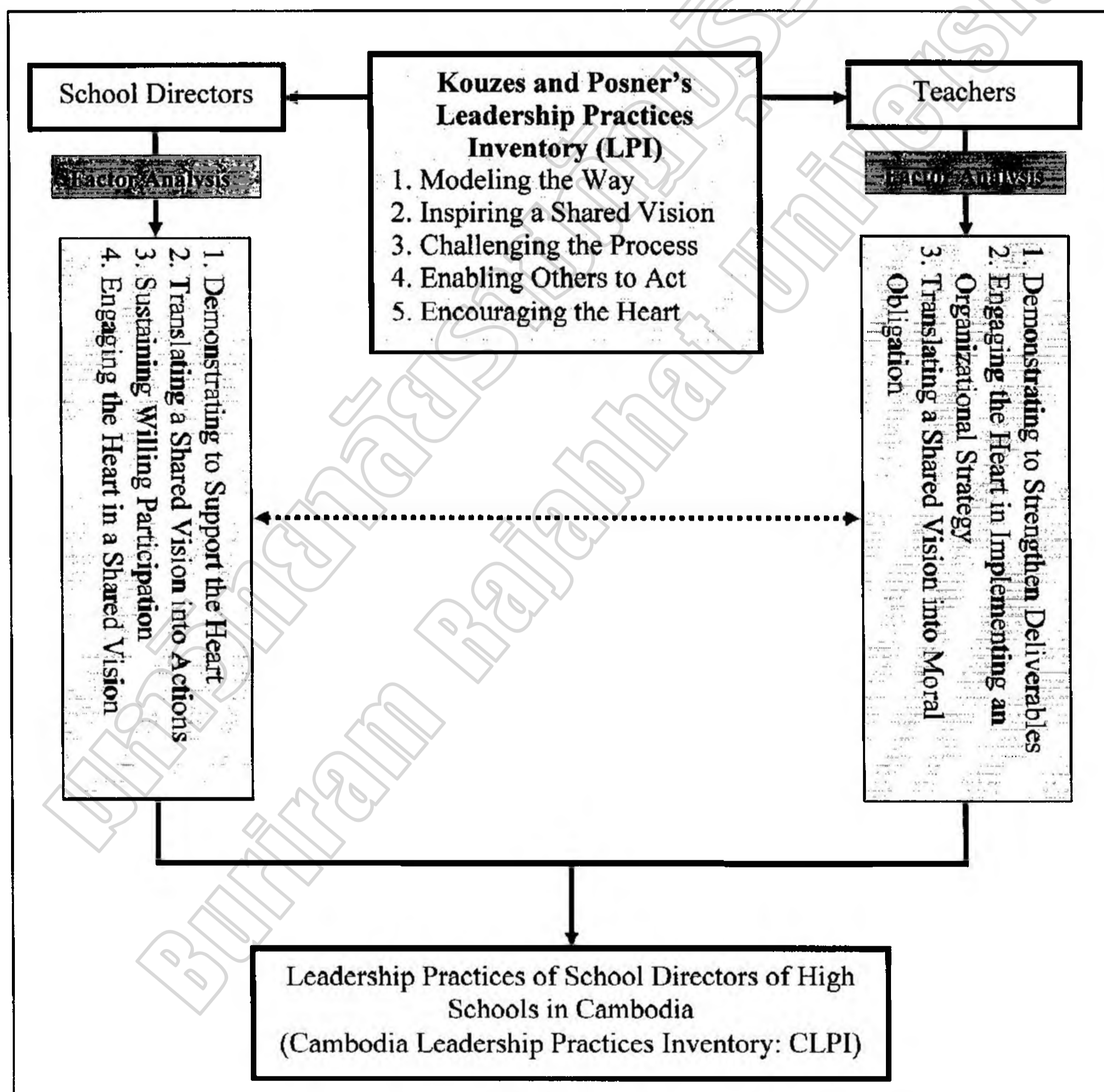


Figure 4.1 Outlining the Results from the Factor Analysis

Results of Analyses for Research Questions

This research study sought to investigate the difference between school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia, using questionnaire method of collecting data. The study addresses the need for a greater understanding of school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and how teachers perceive the leadership behaviors of school directors.

This section provides a quantitative analysis of survey responses to answer the following six research questions: 1) What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors? 2) What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by teachers? 3) Do school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on age, education level, and experience? 4) Do school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience? 5) To what extent is the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?, and 6) What leadership behavior model should the high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?

The researcher determined, at the school director and teacher levels, what extent of perceived school director leadership behaviors as measured by the "Cambodia Leadership Practices Inventory" (CLPI) were predicted by school director-and teacher-demographic variables. Explanation and interpretation of the results are made with references to sample responses to the items on the CLPI-Self and CLPI-Observer report. Descriptive statistics, independent samples t-test, one-way ANOVA, factor

analyses, regression analyses, as well as AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structure) were used to analyze the data. This data were collected from 191 school directors and 386 teachers in public high schools level throughout Cambodia. The results of the research questions are presented in this section.

Research Question One: What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors?

The first research question was directed toward identifying the leadership characteristics and behaviors of the school directors based on the Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI) reported to be used by Cambodian school directors who participated in this study. To answer this question, the researcher employed both form “Self” and “Observer” of the CLPI, which measured the school directors’ perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers’ perceptions for the school directors’ leadership behaviors.

All of the surveyed school directors were asked to complete the 30-item LPI with the five-point Likert scale questions, ranging from always or almost always (5) to never or almost never (1). The statements of each leadership characteristics and behaviors of school directors were summed. As mentioned earlier, an exploratory factor analysis (Varimax rotation) was chosen in order to explore and determine the underlying factor-structure of the LPI scale (30 items) based on the samples of Cambodian school directors and teachers. The four new factors were found from school directors. This survey measured four subcategories of the CLPI commitments for practice: demonstrating to support the heart (DSH), translating a shared vision into actions (TSA), sustaining willing participation (SWP), and engaging the heart in a shared process (EHS). Remarkably, based on the four levels of interpretation of leadership behaviors practice proposed by Srisa-ard (2003), these criteria can be divided into four groups:

highest usage group ($\bar{X} = 4.51-5.00$), high usage group ($\bar{X} = 3.51-4.50$), moderate usage group ($\bar{X} = 2.51-3.50$), low usage group ($\bar{X} = 1.50-2.50$), and lowest usage group ($\bar{X} = 1.00-1.50$). Table 4.10 below demonstrates mean and standard deviation for each CLPI commitments for practice item.

Table 4.10 Mean, Standard Deviation, and Level of 30-item for School Directors

No.	Commitments for Practice	\bar{X}	S.D.	Level
1.	Set a personal example	3.80	0.93	High
2.	Talk about future trends	3.95	0.84	High
3.	Seek challenging opportunities	4.56	0.66	Highest
4.	Develop cooperative relationships	4.21	0.74	High
5.	Praise people for job well done	4.63	0.65	Highest
6.	Spend time and energy on principles	4.44	0.68	High
7.	Describe a compelling image of future	4.00	0.79	High
8.	Try new and innovative approaches	4.53	0.66	Highest
9.	Listen to diverse points of view	4.22	0.69	High
10.	Let people know confidence in abilities	4.16	0.89	High
11.	Follow through on the promises	4.08	0.82	High
12.	Appeal to others to share dream	4.12	0.75	High
13.	Search outside organization	4.24	0.83	High
14.	Treat others with dignity and respect	4.10	0.73	High
15.	Reward contributions to success	3.46	0.93	Moderate
16.	Ask for feedback the affected actions	4.50	0.71	High
17.	Enlist others in common vision	4.34	0.78	High
18.	Ask "What we can learn?"	4.48	0.71	High
19.	Support decisions of others	4.14	0.91	High
20.	Recognize publicly	4.54	0.61	Highest
21.	Build consensus around organization's values	3.86	0.93	High
22.	Paint "big picture" to accomplish	4.06	0.86	High
23.	Set achievable goals and concrete plans	4.33	0.80	High
24.	Give freedom and choice	4.36	0.68	High
25.	Celebrate accomplishment	3.56	0.97	High
26.	Clear about philosophy of leadership	3.54	1.06	High
27.	Speak about purpose of work	4.38	0.71	High
28.	Experiment and take risks	4.40	0.81	High
29.	Ensure that people grow	4.11	0.78	High
30.	Give appreciation and support	3.64	1.03	High
Grand Total		4.15	0.80	High

As shown in Table 4.10, the school directors reported using each leadership behaviors item on the CLPI with varying degrees of frequency. The means of individual commitments for practice items ranged from a high of 4.63 to a low of 3.46. The most frequently reported leadership characteristics and behavior was no. 5 “I praise people for job well done” ($\bar{X} = 4.63$, S.D.= 0.74). This behavior with the highest mean was followed by leadership characteristics and behavior no. 3 “I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities” ($\bar{X} = 4.56$, S.D.= 0.66), and no. 20 “I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values” ($\bar{X} = 4.54$, S.D.= 0.61). The leadership behavior with the lowest mean was no. 15 “I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects” ($\bar{X} = 3.46$, S.D.= 0.93), followed by no. 26 “I am clear about my philosophy of educational leadership” ($\bar{X} = 3.54$, S.D.= 1.06) and no. 25 “I find ways to celebrate accomplishments” ($\bar{X} = 3.56$, S.D.= 0.97).

It should be noted that the information presented in the table above only represents the data from all surveyed school directors, regardless of their leadership behaviors used in school. Table 4.11 below displays the reported leadership behaviors used by school directors. As mentioned earlier, the CLPI commitments for practice items were arranged in random order. To explore their leadership behaviors use in greater detail, the commitments for practice items were categorized into four separate subcategories: demonstrating to support the heart (7 items), translating a shared vision into actions (9 items), sustaining willing participation (8 items), and engaging the heart in a shared vision (6 items).

Table 4.11 Mean, Standard Deviation, and Level of Four Commitments for Practice Use by Cambodian School Directors

Commitments for Practice	\bar{X}	S.D.	Level
Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH)			
1. Set a personal example	3.80	0.93	High
6. Spend time and energy on principles	4.44	0.68	High
10. Let people know confidence in abilities	4.16	0.89	High
11. Follow through on the promises	4.08	0.82	High
16. Ask for feedback the affected actions	4.50	0.71	High
21. Build consensus around organization's values	3.86	0.93	High
26. Clear about philosophy of leadership	3.54	1.06	Moderate
Total	4.05	0.87	High
Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA)			
2. Talk about future trends	3.95	0.84	High
3. Seek challenging opportunities	4.56	0.66	Highest
7. Describe a compelling image of future	4.00	0.79	High
8. Try new and innovative approaches	4.53	0.66	Highest
12. Appeal to others to share dream	4.12	0.75	High
13. Search outside organization	4.24	0.83	High
17. Enlist others in common vision	4.34	0.78	High
27. Speak about purpose of work	4.38	0.71	High
28. Experiment and take risks and takes risks	4.40	0.81	High
Total	4.28	0.75	High
Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP)			
4. Develop cooperative relationships	4.21	0.74	High
5. Praise people for job well done	4.63	0.65	Highest
9. Listen to diverse points of view	4.22	0.69	High
14. Treat others with dignity and respect	4.10	0.73	High
15. Reward contributions to success	3.46	0.93	Moderate
19. Support decisions of others	4.14	0.91	High
24. Give freedom and choice	4.36	0.68	High
29. Ensure that people grow	4.11	0.78	High
Total	4.16	0.77	High
Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS)			
18. Ask "What we can learn?"	4.48	0.71	High
20. Recognize publicly	4.54	0.61	High
22. Paint "big picture" of group aspirations	4.06	0.86	High
23. Set achievable goals and concrete plans	4.33	0.80	High
25. Celebrate accomplishment	3.56	0.97	High
30. Give appreciation and support	3.64	1.03	High
Total	4.10	0.83	High

As revealed in Table 4.11, the school directors reported that they practiced the translating a shared vision into actions (TSA) the most ($\bar{X} = 4.28$, S.D.= 0.75),

sustaining willing participation (SWP) the second most ($\bar{X} = 4.16$, S.D.= 0.77), followed by engaging the heart in a shared vision (EHS) ($\bar{X} = 4.10$, S.D.= 0.83), and demonstrating to support the heart (DSH) the least ($\bar{X} = 4.05$, S.D.= 0.87), respectively.

It is interesting to note that the majority of the leadership behaviors practice reported by the school directors fell in the high usage group, which indicates that they used these practices on a relatively regular basis. Table 4.12 illustrates the top 10 and the bottom 10 leadership behaviors reported by Cambodian high school directors as identified in the CLPI.

Table 4.12 Reported Leadership Practices Used Most and Least by School Directors

Most Frequently		Least Frequently	
Category	Commitment	Category	Commitment
SWP	5. Praise people for job well done	SWP	15. Reward contributions to success
TSA	3. Seek challenging opportunities	DSH	26. Clear about philosophy of leadership
EHS	20. Recognize publicly	EHS	23. Set achievable goals and concrete plans
TSA	7. Describe a compelling image of future	EHS	25. Celebrate accomplishment
DSH	16. Ask for feedback the affected actions	DSH	1. Set a personal example
EHS	18. Ask "What we can learn?"	DSH	21. Builds consensus around organization's values
DSH	6. Spend time and energy on principles	TSA	2. Talk about future trends
TSA	28. Experiment and take risks	TSA	7. Describe a compelling image of future
TSA	27. Speak about purpose of work	EHS	22. Paints "big picture" of group aspirations
SWP	10. Let people know confidence in abilities	DHS	11. Follow through on the promises

Table 4.12 shows the most frequently used leadership behaviors. Two of the top ten commitments (20%) were demonstrating to support the heart, four (40%) were translating a shared vision into actions, two (20%) were sustaining willing participation, and two (20%) were engaging the heart in a shared vision. Moreover, school directors reported, four of the top ten commitments (40%) were demonstrating to support the heart, two (20%) were translating a shared vision into actions, one (10%) were sustaining willing participation, and three (30%) were engaging the heart in a shared vision as their least favored leadership behaviors on the CLPI.

The following part discusses the top three leadership behaviors reported by participating Cambodian school directors in this study. Insights gained from the findings contribute to our better understanding of how the school directors selected leadership behaviors to foster their daily practices. Table 4.13 contains the information as to the use of leadership behaviors by school directors.

Table 4.13 Top Three Leadership Behaviors Reported to be Used by School Directors

Category	Commitment	\bar{X}	S.D.
DSH	16. Ask for feedback the affected actions	4.50	0.71
	6. Spend time and energy on principles	4.44	0.68
	10. Let people know confidence in abilities	4.16	0.89
TSA	3. Seek challenging opportunities	4.56	0.66
	8. Try new and innovative approaches	4.53	0.66
	28. Experiment and take risks	4.40	0.81
SWP	5. Praise people for job well done	4.63	0.65
	24. Give freedom and choice	4.36	0.68
	9. Listen to diverse points of view	4.22	0.69
EHS	20. Recognize publicly	4.54	0.61
	18. Ask "What we can learn?"	4.48	0.71
	23. Set achievable goals and concrete plans	4.33	0.80

As indicated in Table 4.13, DSH commitment with the highest mean was no. 16 "I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance" ($\bar{X} = 4.50$, S.D.= 0.71). However, of all the 30 commitment items listed on the CLPI, the commitment that received the highest mean was no. 5 "I praise people for job well done" ($\bar{X} = 4.63$, S.D.= 0.65), belonging to SWP subcategory. The third commitment to receive a high mean was TSA no. 3 "I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities" ($\bar{X} = 4.56$, S.D.= 0.66). The fourth commitment to receive a high mean was EHS no. 20 "I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values" ($\bar{X} = 4.54$, S.D.= 0.61).

Research Question Two: What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the teachers?

Question two addresses the degree to which Cambodian school directors practice the 30-item CLPI in their schools as perceived by teachers. Teachers participating in the survey were asked to rate their level of agreement with statements corresponding to four leadership behaviors demonstrated by their school directors using five-point Likert scales. A rating of five indicated a strong agreement with the statement. Factors were calculated from respondents' rating on the Likert scales for each of the six leadership behaviors, the three new factors were found. To answer this question, for observers or teachers, the 30-item CLPI was summed with three factors. They were demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (DSD), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (EIO), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (TSM), respectively. Mean and standard deviation were used in analyzing the data.

Table 4.14 Mean, Standard Deviation, and Level of 30-item for Teachers

No.	Commitments for Practice	\bar{X}	S.D.	Level
1.	Sets a personal example	3.71	0.98	High
2.	Talks about future trends	3.86	1.48	High
3.	Seeks challenging opportunities	4.22	0.87	High
4.	Develops cooperative relationships	4.14	0.91	High
5.	Praises people for job well done	3.35	1.16	Moderate
6.	Spends time and energy on principles	4.33	0.86	High
7.	Describes a compelling image of future	3.92	0.95	High
8.	Tries new and innovative approaches	4.11	0.98	High
9.	Listens to diverse points of view	4.07	0.85	High
10.	Lets people know confidence in abilities	3.90	2.05	High
11.	Follows through on the promises	3.76	0.97	High
12.	Appeals to others to share dream	4.08	0.93	High
13.	Searches outside organization	3.75	1.06	High
14.	Treats others with dignity and respect	3.87	0.93	High
15.	Rewards contributions to success	4.13	0.95	High
16.	Asks for feedback the affected actions	4.36	0.85	High
17.	Enlists others in common vision	4.20	0.90	High
18.	Asks "What we can learn?"	4.17	0.91	High
19.	Supports decisions of others	4.02	1.70	High
20.	Recognizes publicly	4.15	0.96	High
21.	Builds consensus around organization's values	3.69	0.99	High
22.	Paints "big picture" to accomplish	3.91	0.96	High
23.	Sets achievable goals and concrete plans	3.99	0.99	High
24.	Gives freedom and choice	4.09	0.92	High
25.	Celebrates accomplishment	3.31	1.09	Moderate
26.	Clears about philosophy of leadership	3.44	1.06	Moderate
27.	Speaks about purpose of work	4.21	0.91	High
28.	Experiments and takes risks	4.04	0.95	High
29.	Ensures that people grow	3.97	0.92	High
30.	Gives appreciation and support	3.78	1.13	High
Grand Total		3.95	1.03	High

As revealed in Table 4.14, the teachers reported perception for the school directors' leadership behaviors. Each leadership behaviors item on the CLPI with varying degrees of frequency. The mean of individual perception items ranged from a high of 4.36 to a low of 3.31. The most frequently reported perception leadership characteristics and behavior was no. 16 "My school director asks for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance" ($\bar{X} = 4.36$, S.D. = 0.85), respectively.

This perception with the highest mean was followed by leadership characteristics and behavior no. 6 “My school director spends time and energy making certain that people he works with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on” ($\bar{X} = 4.33$, S.D.= 0.86), and no. 3 “My school director seeks out challenging opportunities that test his own skills and abilities” ($\bar{X} = 4.22$, S.D.= 0.87). The perception leadership behaviors with the lowest mean was no. 28 “My school director is clear about his philosophy of leadership” ($\bar{X} = 3.44$, S.D.= 1.06), followed by no. 5 “My school director praises people for job well done” ($\bar{X} = 3.35$, S.D.= 1.16) and no. 25 “My school director finds ways to celebrate accomplishments” ($\bar{X} = 3.31$, S.D.= 1.09), respectively.

As discussed, an exploratory factor analysis (Varimax rotation) was chosen in order to explore and determine the underlying factor-structure of the LPI scale (30 items) based on the samples of Cambodian school directors and teachers. The three new factors were found from teachers. This survey measured three subcategories of CLPI commitments for practice: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (DSD), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (EIO), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (TSM). Remarkably, based on the four levels of interpretation of leadership behaviors practice proposed by Srisa-ard (2003), these criteria can be divided into four groups: highest usage group ($\bar{X} = 4.51-5.00$), high usage group ($\bar{X} = 3.51-4.50$), moderate usage group ($\bar{X} = 2.51-3.50$), low usage group ($\bar{X} = 1.50-2.50$), and lowest usage group ($\bar{X} = 1.00-1.50$). Table 4.13 below demonstrates the mean, standard deviation, meaning, and rank for teachers’ perceptions for the school directors’ leadership behaviors of each Cambodian LPI commitments for practice item.

Table 4.15 Mean, Standard Deviation, and Level of Three Perception Commitments for Practice by Teachers

Perception Commitments for Practice	\bar{X}	S.D.	Level
Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD)			
1. Sets a personal example	3.71	0.98	High
3. Seeks challenging opportunities	4.22	0.87	High
6. Spends time and energy on principles	4.33	0.86	High
11. Follows through on the promises	3.76	0.97	High
16. Asks for feedback the affected actions	4.36	0.85	High
21. Builds consensus around organization's values	3.69	0.99	High
26. Clears about philosophy of leadership	3.44	1.06	Moderate
27. Speaks about purpose of work	4.21	0.91	High
Total	3.97	0.93	High
Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO)			
2. Talks about future trends	3.86	1.48	High
8. Tries new and innovative approaches	4.11	0.98	High
10. Lets people know confidence in abilities	3.90	2.05	High
13. Searches outside organization	3.75	1.06	High
15. Rewards contributions to success	4.13	0.95	High
17. Enlists others in common vision	4.20	0.90	High
18. Asks "What we can learn?"	4.17	0.91	High
19. Supports decisions of others	4.02	1.70	High
20. Recognizes publicly	4.15	0.96	High
24. Gives freedom and choice	4.09	0.92	High
28. Experiments and takes risks	4.04	0.95	High
29. Ensures that people grow	3.97	0.92	High
Total	4.03	1.14	High
Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM)			
4. Develops cooperative relationships	4.14	0.91	High
5. Praises people for job well done	3.35	1.16	Moderate
7. Describes a compelling image of future	3.92	0.95	High
9. Listens to diverse points of view	4.07	0.85	High
12. Appeals to others to share dream	4.08	0.93	High
14. Treats others with dignity and respect	3.87	0.93	High
22. Paints "big picture" of group aspirations	3.91	0.96	High
23. Sets achievable goals and concrete plans	3.99	0.99	High
25. Celebrates accomplishment	3.31	1.09	Moderate
30. Gives appreciation and support	3.78	1.13	High
Total	3.84	0.10	High

With regard to the mean and standard deviation of the three dimensions of the CLPI Scale as shown in Table 4.15, the findings reveal that teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia all three factors were at "high"

levels. More specifically, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy was reported as the most frequent perception ($\bar{X} = 4.03$, S.D.= 1.14), demonstrating to strengthen deliverables was the next most preferred ($\bar{X} = 3.97$, S.D.= 0.93), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation the least often preferred ($\bar{X} = 3.84$, S.D.= 0.10), respectively.

After an investigation into the whole and each category of teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors who responded to the CLPI, Table 4.16 presents the reported strategies used most and least by the school directors based on teachers' perceptions as follows:

**Table 4.16 Reported Leadership Practices Used Most and Least by School Directors
Based on Teachers' Perceptions**

Most Frequently		Least Frequently	
Category Commitment		Category Commitment	
DSM	16. Asks for feedback the affected actions	TSM	25. Celebrates accomplishment
DSM	6. Spends time and energy on principles	TSM	5. Praises people for job well done
DSM	3. Seeks challenging opportunities	DSM	26. Clears about philosophy of leadership
DSM	27. Speaks about purpose of work	DSM	21. Builds consensus around organization's values
EIO	17. Enlists others in common vision	DSM	1. Sets a personal example
EIO	18. Asks "What we can learn?"	EIO	13. Searches outside organization
EIO	20. Recognizes publicly	DSM	11. Follows through on the promises
TSM	4. Develops cooperative relationships	TSM	30. Gives appreciation and support
EIO	15. Rewards contributions to success	EIO	2. Talks about future trends
EIO	8. Tries new and innovative approaches	TSM	14. Treats others with dignity and respect

Based on the ranking in Table 4.16, four of the top ten leadership practices (40%) were DSM, five (50%) are EIO, and one (10%) was TSM. Moreover, teachers' perceptions on school directors' leadership behaviors reported four (40%) DSM, two (20%) EIO, and four (40%) TSM as their least favored practices on the CLPI.

The following part discusses the top three leadership behaviors used by Cambodian school directors based on participating teachers' perceptions in this study. Insights gained from the findings contribute to our better understanding of the teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors. Table 4.17 contains the information as to the use of leadership behaviors by school directors based on teachers' perceptions.

Table 4.17 Top Three Leadership Behaviors Used by School Directors Based on Teachers' Perceptions

Category	Commitment	\bar{X}	S.D.
DSM	16. Asks for feedback the affected actions	4.36	0.85
	6. Spends time and energy on principles	4.33	0.86
	3. Seeks challenging opportunities	4.22	0.87
EIO	17. Enlists others in common vision	4.20	0.90
	18. Asks "What we can learn?"	4.17	0.91
	20. Recognizes publicly	4.15	0.96
TSM	4. Develops cooperative relationships	4.14	0.91
	12. Appeals to others to share dream	4.08	0.93
	9. Listens to diverse points of view	4.07	0.85

It is shown from Table 4.17 that the highest mean values in each subcategory included the DSM no. 16 "My school director asks for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance" ($\bar{X} = 4.36$, S.D.= 0.85), the EIO no. 17 "My school director shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision" ($\bar{X} = 4.20$, S.D.= 0.90), and the TSM no. 4 "My school director develops cooperative relationships among people he works with" ($\bar{X} = 4.14$, S.D.= 0.91).

Research Question Three: Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on age, education level, and experience?

From the perspective of the school directors themselves, the third research question focused on gaining an understanding of the similarities and differences of school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors based on the demographic factors of age, educational level, and working experience. To address this question, the researcher used quantitative data. The quantitative data came from the CLPI, which measured the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors. Quantitative data were analyzed using the statistical package. The researcher used independent samples t-test, and one-way ANOVA to manipulate in order to answer the research questions. The results of separated one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were computed to determine significant differences among mean scores of responses from school directors based on working experience; whereas, the rest variables were analyzed by independent samples t-test. For analyzing the difference in mean scores between the respondents working experience in schools that met the CLPI requirement and those that did not, independent samples t-test was calculated. For this study, the level of significance was set at $p \leq .05$. Data regarding school directors' leadership behaviors by demographic factors are summarized in following tables.

The researcher used independent samples t-test to answer Tables 4.18, and 4.19 below, respectively. The purpose of independent samples t-test is to help the researcher decide whether the observed difference between two sample means arose by chance or represents a true difference between populations. Table 4.18 shows the results.

Table 4.18 Differences in Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School**Directors Based on Age**

Age	30-45 (N=75)		More than 45 (N=116)		t	p-value
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.		
1. Demonstrating to Support the Heart	4.20	0.59	4.19	0.56	0.12	0.664
2. Translating a Shared Vision into Actions	4.06	0.54	4.17	0.63	2.86**	0.005
3. Sustaining Willing Participation	4.43	0.49	4.47	0.52	0.55	0.402
4. Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision	3.87	0.59	3.82	0.59	0.63	0.109

** $p < .01$

Classified by age of school directors, as seen in Table 4.18, the findings reveal that the translating a shared vision into actions had a significant difference at .01 level; whereas, the rest aspects were not different.

Table 4.19 Differences in Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School**Directors Based on Educational Level**

Educational Level	Bachelor (N=147)		High than Bachelor (N=44)		t	p-value
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.		
1. Demonstrating to Support the Heart	4.19	0.57	4.22	0.58	0.30	0.420
2. Translating a Shared Vision into Actions	4.04	0.57	4.39	0.63	3.28**	0.007
3. Sustaining Willing Participation	4.41	0.53	4.59	0.41	2.27**	0.001
4. Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision	3.88	0.55	3.71	0.62	2.69*	0.042

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Classified by educational level, Table 4.19 illustrates that the engaging the heart in a shared vision showed a statistically significant difference at the .05 level, while the translating a shared vision into actions, and sustaining willing participation showed a

statistically significant difference at the .01 level; whereas, the demonstrating to support the heart was not different.

In providing valuable data to explore analysis of variance (ANOVA) identifies mean scores differences among groups larger than two descriptors. Using a one-way test at the 95% confidence level, variance scores that fell below the .05 level of significance (alpha) were identified by the researcher and then paired with the working experience indicator by school directors. Table 4.20 presents the results of the analysis of variance to determine whether there were statistically significant differences among the four dimensions used by the school directors based upon their working experience difference.

Table 4.20 Differences in Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School Directors Based on Working Experience

Working Experience	df	SS	MS	F	p-value
1. Demonstrating to Support the Heart					
Between Groups	2	1.133	0.567	1.71	0.184
Within Groups	188	62.277	0.331		
Total	190	63.410			
2. Translating a Shared Vision into Actions					
Between Groups	2	0.653	0.327	0.89	0.410
Within Groups	188	68.277	0.364		
Total	190	69.168			
3. Sustaining Willing Participation					
Between Groups	2	2.867	1.434	5.70**	0.004
Within Groups	188	47.272	0.251		
Total	190	50.139			
4. Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision					
Between Groups	2	1.865	0.933	2.92	0.056
Within Groups	188	59.923	0.319		
Total	190	61.788			

** $p < .01$

By utilizing the ANOVA, Table 4.20 shows that the dimension of sustaining willing participation was significant difference at the .01 level; whereas, the rest aspects were not different.

It should be noted that the information presented in the table above only represents the data differences in reported leadership behavior use by school directors based upon working experience, regardless of their four factors. Table 4.21 below then displays the reported each pair comparison factor use by school directors.

Table 4.21 Each Pair Comparison in Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School Directors Based on Working Experience in Term of Sustaining Willing Participation

Working Experience	Working Experience			
	\bar{X}	Below 5 Years	5-10 Years	More than 10 Years
		4.50	4.30	4.57
Below 5 Years	4.50	-	0.19	0.07
5-10 Years	4.30			0.26**
More than 10 Years	4.57			-

Table 4.21 reveals that the school directors who had working experience from 5 to 10 years reported their leadership behaviors in term of sustaining willing participation statistically different from those who had gained more than 10 years experience at the .01 level.

In summation, the data analysis in this section reveals that there were indeed differences in school directors' claimed leadership practice among age, years of experiences, and level of education. Data should be used to suggest the importance of school directors employing different behavioral methods of support and encouragement to specific demographics of their individual schools. It is highly important for current

and future principals to realize that they play an intimate role in paralleling and enhancing these leadership behaviors. In providing valuable data to explore individual teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors, the next question will be further illuminated.

Research Question Four: Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibitions as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?

From the perspective of the teachers, the fourth research question investigates the potential existence of differences in teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors results from the three new CLPI factors based on the following demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and years of teaching experience. The teachers responded to items on the survey that provides this demographic information. The results of separate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were computed to determine significant differences among mean scores of responses from teachers based on gender, age, educational level, and years of teaching experience. For analyzing the difference in mean scores between respondents' gender and those that did not, independent samples t-test was calculated. The results of this analysis are displayed in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22 Differences Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership**Practices of School Directors Based on Gender**

Gender	Male (N=231)		Female (155)		t	p-value
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.		
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables	3.09	0.66	3.07	0.66	0.35	0.516
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy	3.06	0.65	3.00	0.70	0.73	0.935
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation	2.93	0.72	2.98	0.72	0.61	0.851

Table 4.22 indicates the differences concerning the observations of teachers on leadership practices of school directors based upon gender. The findings revealed that all three leadership practices, namely; demonstrating to strengthen deliverables; engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy; and translating a shared vision into moral obligation were not different.

Statistical analysis was also applied to possible difference in gender. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) identifies mean scores differences among groups larger than two descriptors. Using a one-way test at the 95% confidence level, variance scores that fell below the .05 level of significance (alpha) were identified by the researcher and then paired with the age indicator by teachers. The following Table 4.23 represents reported leadership behavior use of school directors by teachers' perception based on age difference.

Table 4.23 Differences Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership**Practices of School Directors Based on Age**

Age	df	SS	MS	F	p-value
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables					
Between Groups	2	0.673	0.337	0.75	0.471
Within Groups	383	170.863	0.446		
Total	385	171.536			
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy					
Between Groups	2	1.597	0.798	1.77	0.173
Within Groups	383	173.557	0.453		
Total	385	175.154			
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation					
Between Groups	2	3.240	1.620	3.14*	0.044
Within Groups	383	197.034	0.514		
Total	385	200.274			

* $p < .05$

According to Table 4.23, the translating a shared vision into moral obligation was statistically significant difference at the .05 level; whereas, the rest aspects were not different.

It should be noted that the information presented in the table above only represents the data differences in reported leadership behavior use of school directors by teachers' preference based upon age, regardless of their three factors. Table 4.24 below then displays the reported each pair comparison factor of teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors.

Table 4.24 Each Pair Comparison Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership Practices of School Directors Based on Age in Term of Translating a Shared Vision into Moral

Age	\bar{X}	Below 30 Years	30-45 Years	More than 45 Years
		2.95	3.03	2.83
Below 30 Years	2.95	-	0.07	0.12
30-45 Years	3.03			0.20*
More than 45 Years	2.83			-

According to Table 4.24, the findings show that the teachers who aged from 30-45 reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of translating a shared vision into moral differed from who aged more than 45 years at the statistical significance at .05 level.

The series of one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni and Scheffé post hoc analysis were run. The ANOVA can determine whether the set of group mean differences in the research variables are statistically significant. The hypothesis would state that there are differences between educational in the leadership behaviors of school directors as perceived by teachers. Below is Table 4.25 which summarizes the differences concerning the observations of teachers on leadership practices of school directors based on educational level.

Table 4.25 Differences Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership**Practices of School Directors Based on Educational Level**

Educational Level	df	SS	MS	F	p-value
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables					
Between Groups	2	20.380	10.190	25.82**	0.000
Within Groups	383	151.156	0.395		
Total	385	171.536			
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy					
Between Groups	2	3.464	1.732	3.87*	0.022
Within Groups	383	171.690	0.448		
Total	385	175.154			
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation					
Between Groups	2	3.497	1.748	3.40*	0.034
Within Groups	383	196.777	0.514		
Total	385	200.274			

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

In examining each of the leadership behaviors components based upon educational level in Table 4.25, the one-way ANOVA analyses reveal the engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation were statistically significant differences at the .05 levels; whereas, the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables was significant difference at the .01 level.

An important note to include in this data is that all the three factors posed that indicated a significant difference between the teacher's educational level were from the CLPI instrument which statistical analysis proved was a more reliable tool for measuring mean scores differences among groups larger than two descriptors. Table 4.26 shows the results.

Table 4.26 Each Pair Comparison Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership Practices of School Directors Based on Educational Level in Term of Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables

Educational Level	\bar{X}	Below B.A.	B.A.	Higher than B.A.
		3.55	3.01	2.83
Below B.A.	3.55	-	0.54**	0.71**
B.A.	3.01			0.18
Higher than B.A.	2.83			-

According to Table 4.26, the findings show that the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of demonstrating to strengthen deliverables from those who had gained bachelor's degree and higher than bachelor's degree with statistically significant difference at the .01 level.

Table 4.27 Each Pair Comparison Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership Practices of School Directors Based on Educational Level in Term of Engaging the Heart in Implementing

Educational Level	\bar{X}	Below B.A.	B.A.	Higher than B.A.
		3.20	3.03	2.86
Below B.A.	3.20	-	0.16	0.33*
B.A.	3.03			0.17
Higher than B.A.	2.86			-

According to Table 4.27, the findings show that the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of engaging the heart in implementing from those who had gained higher than bachelor's degree with statistically significant difference at the .05 level.

Table 4.28 Each Pair Comparison Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership Practices of School Directors Based on Educational Level in Term of Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation

Educational Level	\bar{X}	Below B.A.	B.A.	Higher than B.A.
		3.03	2.98	2.77
Below B.A.	3.03	-	-	0.30*
B.A.	2.98			0.25*
Higher than B.A.	2.77			-

As indicated in the table above, the findings show that the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree and bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of translating a shared vision into moral obligation from those who had gained higher than bachelor's degree with statistically significant difference at the .05 level.

To determine whether the leadership behaviors use of school directors by teachers' perception exhibited differed significantly by years of teaching experience, one-way ANOVA procedures were employed at the alpha level of .05. The hypothesis would state that there are differences between years of teaching experience in the leadership behaviors of school directors as perceived by teachers. The findings were presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Differences Concerning the Observations of Teachers on Leadership Practices of School Directors Based on Years of Teaching Experience

Years of Teaching Experience	df	SS	MS	F	p-value
1. Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables					
Between Groups	2	1.068	0.534	1.200	0.302
Within Groups	383	170.468	0.445		
Total	385	171.536			
2. Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy					
Between Groups	2	0.596	0.298	0.654	0.520
Within Groups	383	174.558	0.456		
Total	385	175.154			
3. Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation					
Between Groups	2	0.433	0.217	0.415	0.661
Within Groups	383	199.840	0.522		
Total	385	200.274			

As shown in Table 4.29 above, the findings reveal that there were no significant differences in reported leadership behavior use of school directors by teachers' perception based on years of teaching experience level among the three factors (demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation) in each dimension of CLPI Scale.

In summary, the focus of this study is to provide relevance to individual perception scores by exploring in depth the teacher's perceptions towards school director's leadership behaviors.

Research Question Five: To what extent is the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?

The fifth research question is directed toward identifying the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia. To answer this question, Cambodian Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI) 30-item questionnaire was employed as the main instrument. The CLPI is a 30-item questionnaire used to rate school directors on four practices behaviors are: 1) Demonstrating to Support the Heart (DSH), 2) Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (TSA), 3) Sustaining Willing Participation (SWP), and 4) Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (EHS). The three leadership practices of teachers' perceptions are: 1) Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables (DSD), 2) Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy (EIO), and 3) Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation (TSM).

A note should be made on the CLPI-Self and Observer. As suggested in the results of the LPI exploratory factor analysis, the CLPI should be collected again with the different samples done in the first collection. The participants in this section were 191 school directors and 386 teachers who are administering and teaching composing of grades seven through twelve throughout Cambodia. The CLPI-Self and Observer were used to collect data for this study. The letters of cooperation and questionnaire were sent by post directly to school directors and teachers throughout Cambodia. The return rates of the questionnaires were 191 (100%) for school directors and 386 (100%) for teachers. The selected teachers were then randomized using computer program to get the numbers of 191 teachers. The Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) was used as the main technique to analysis the collected data. Practically, a canonical correlation was

performed in order to determine if there is a relationship between two sets of variables, one measuring the leadership practice admitted by school directors and the other measuring observations of teachers on the leadership practice of school directors. Given the correlations between leadership practice dimensions of school directors and teachers, only the results of each dimension are presented and described. The results of each canonical variate of each subscale are presented in Appendix H. Interestingly, only statistically significant results are reported. The results are presented in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30 R_C and Other Values Concerning the Relationship Between School Directors Admitted and Teachers' Perceptions on School Directors' Leadership Practices

Canonical Variates		R_C	Wilk's Lambda	χ^2	df	Sig.
Directors	Teachers					
DSHD	DSMT	.556	.522	118	56	.000**
	EIOT	.509	.501	124.869	77	.000**
	TSMT	.569	.444	146.762	70	.000**
TSAD	DSMT	.521	.410	161.351	72	.000**
	EIOT	.593	.396	166.277	99	.000**
	TSMT	.579	.410	160.510	90	.000**
SWPD	DSMT	.598	.373	197.130	64	.000**
	EIOT	.540	.462	138.855	88	.000**
	TSMT	.523	.467	137.400	80	.000**
EHSD	DSMT	.460	.586	97.392	48	.000**
	EIOT	.452	.524	116.872	66	.000**
	TSMT	.509	.463	139.888	60	.000**

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level

Note: DSHD = demonstrating to support the heart (directors)
 TSAD = translating a shared vision into actions (directors)
 SWPD = sustaining willing participation (directors)
 EHSD = engaging the heart in a shared vision (directors)
 DSDT = demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (teachers)
 EIOT = engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (teachers)
 TSMT = translating a shared vision into moral obligation (teachers)

According to Table 4.30, the statistic that pertained to the canonical analysis of the four school directors' leadership practices and the three teachers' observations of their leadership practice was statistically significant ($p < .001$). The canonical correlation suggested that there is the strongest relationship between the leadership practice admitted by school directors and the observations of teachers on the leadership practice of school directors.

Analyzing the correlations among key variables, the findings were revealed as follows:

Demonstrating to Support the Heart (director): The three-leadership behavior dimensions of teachers' observations were significantly correlated with school directors' demonstrating to support the heart in different ways: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables ($r=.556$, Wilk's Lambda=.522, $\chi^2=118$, $df=56$, Sig. 000), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy ($r=.509$, Wilk's Lambda=.509, $\chi^2=124.869$, $df = 77$, Sig. 000), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation ($r= .569$, Wilk's Lambda = .569, $\chi^2 = 146.762$, $df = 70$, Sig. 000).

Translating a Shared Vision into Actions (director): The three-leadership behavior dimensions of teachers' observations were significantly correlated with school directors' demonstrating to support the heart in different ways: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables ($r= 0.521$, Wilk's Lambda = .521, $\chi^2 = 161.351$, $df = 70$, Sig. 000), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy ($r = 0.593$, Wilk's Lambda = .593, $\chi^2 = 166.277$, $df = 99$, Sig. 000), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation ($r = 0.579$, Wilk's Lambda = .579, $\chi^2 = 160.510$, $df = 90$, Sig. 000).

Sustaining Willing Participation (director): The three-leadership behavior dimensions of teachers' observations were significantly correlated with school directors'

demonstrating to support the heart in different ways: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables ($r = 0.598$, Wilk's Lambda = .598, $\chi^2 = 197.130$, $df = 64$, Sig. 000), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy ($r = 0.540$, Wilk's Lambda = .540, $\chi^2 = 138.855$, $df = 88$, Sig. 000), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation ($r = 0.523$, Wilk's Lambda = .523, $\chi^2 = 137.400$, $df = 80$, Sig. 000).

Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision (director): The three-leadership behavior dimensions of teachers' observations were significantly correlated with school directors' demonstrating to support the heart in different ways: demonstrating to strengthen deliverables ($r = 0.460$, Wilk's Lambda = .460, $\chi^2 = 97.392$, $df = 48$, Sig. 000), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy ($r = 0.452$, Wilk's Lambda = .452, $\chi^2 = 116.872$, $df = 66$, Sig. 000), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation ($r = 0.509$, Wilk's Lambda = .509, $\chi^2 = 139.888$, $df = 60$, Sig. 000).

To sum up, the current research has added more information to our knowledge about the relationship between the four-dimension leadership practice of school directors and three-dimension of teachers' observation of their school directors' leadership practice. In the following last research question, the possibilities are provided, in which proposed model for supporting school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system, are presented.

Research Question Six: What leadership behavior model should the public high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?

In the current research, for building up the proposed model, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to summarize the factors among the existing relationships of individual variables in this study. This analytical procedure serves as a data reduction method that condenses large sets of data into smaller, more manageable amounts of data. Confirmatory, rather than Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was the procedural choice because the constructs had been previously identified in the survey instrument used in this study. The Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) maximum likelihood program was used to test the theoretical model. The hypothesized causal relationships between four dimensions of school directors' leadership and three dimensions of teachers' perceptions of their school directors have been confirmed.

However, the goodness-of-fit statistics include the comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The fit indicators of the CFI and AGFI should be larger than .90 and the RMSEA less than .05 for a well-fitting model, and the fit is reasonable if the RMSEA is between .05 and .08. According to Browne and Cudeck (1993), the model is a good fit if the RMSEA is between .01 and .05. This study is based on Byrne (1998) and Bollen (1989) goodness-of-fit statistics. For the purpose of this study, this research question utilized structural equation modeling to test the hypotheses as well as the ratio of Chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), root mean square residual (RMSR), normal fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) to evaluate overall model fitness.

Before running CFA, the number of factors in the model was hypothesized and often the researcher also made predictions about which variables will be loaded onto which factors. The researcher sought to determine, for instance, if items created in the CLPI scale to represent a hidden variable really belong together. In terms of the confirming of school directors' leadership behaviors and teachers' observations of their school directors' leadership behaviors, a series of research findings were obtained in the current research. In accordance with the research questions, the findings in this research question are divided into two parts: confirmatory factor model for the school directors' leadership behaviors, and confirmatory factor model of teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors.

Confirmatory Factor Model for the School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

With reference to the statistical method utilized, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for the CLPI-Self. The whole model of the school directors' leadership behaviors was tested with 30 items contributing to the four dimensions of demonstrating to support the heart (DSH), translating a shared vision into actions (TSA), sustaining willing participation (SWP), and engaging the heart in a shared vision (EHS). The results of the final four-factor model testing are presented in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31 Fit Indices for the Models of Four School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

Dimensions	χ^2	p-value	df	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI
DSH	1.3	1.000	12	.000	.999	1.000	.998	.996
TSA	7	1.000	23	.000	1.000	1.000	.999	.998
SWP	5.2	1.000	20	.000	.999	1.000	.993	.988
EHS	1.2	.997	8	.000	1.000	1.000	.998	.994

Note: DSH = Demonstrating to Support the Heart,
 TSA = Translating a Shared Vision into Actions
 SWP = Sustaining Willing Participation
 EHS = Engaging the Heart in a Shared Vision

According to the table above, the goodness-of-fit indices for the models of four school directors' leadership behaviors were explored. The findings indicate that the four models were consistency with the empirical data. DSH dimension of the school directors' leadership behaviors model provided a marginally well-fitting model to the data ($\chi^2 = 1.3$, $df = 12$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = .999$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .998$, and $AGFI = .996$), TSA dimension ($\chi^2 = .7$, $df = 23$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = 1.000$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .999$, and $AGFI = .998$), SWP dimension ($\chi^2 = 5.2$, $df = 20$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = .999$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .993$, and $AGFI = .988$), EHS dimension ($\chi^2 = 1.2$, $df = 8$, $p\text{-value} = .997$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = 1.000$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .998$, and $AGFI = .994$). Besides, the internal consistencies for the four dimensions of the CLPI-Self were calculated based on their theoretical constructs tested by the four factor model via CFA. A summary of the result is in Table 4.32.

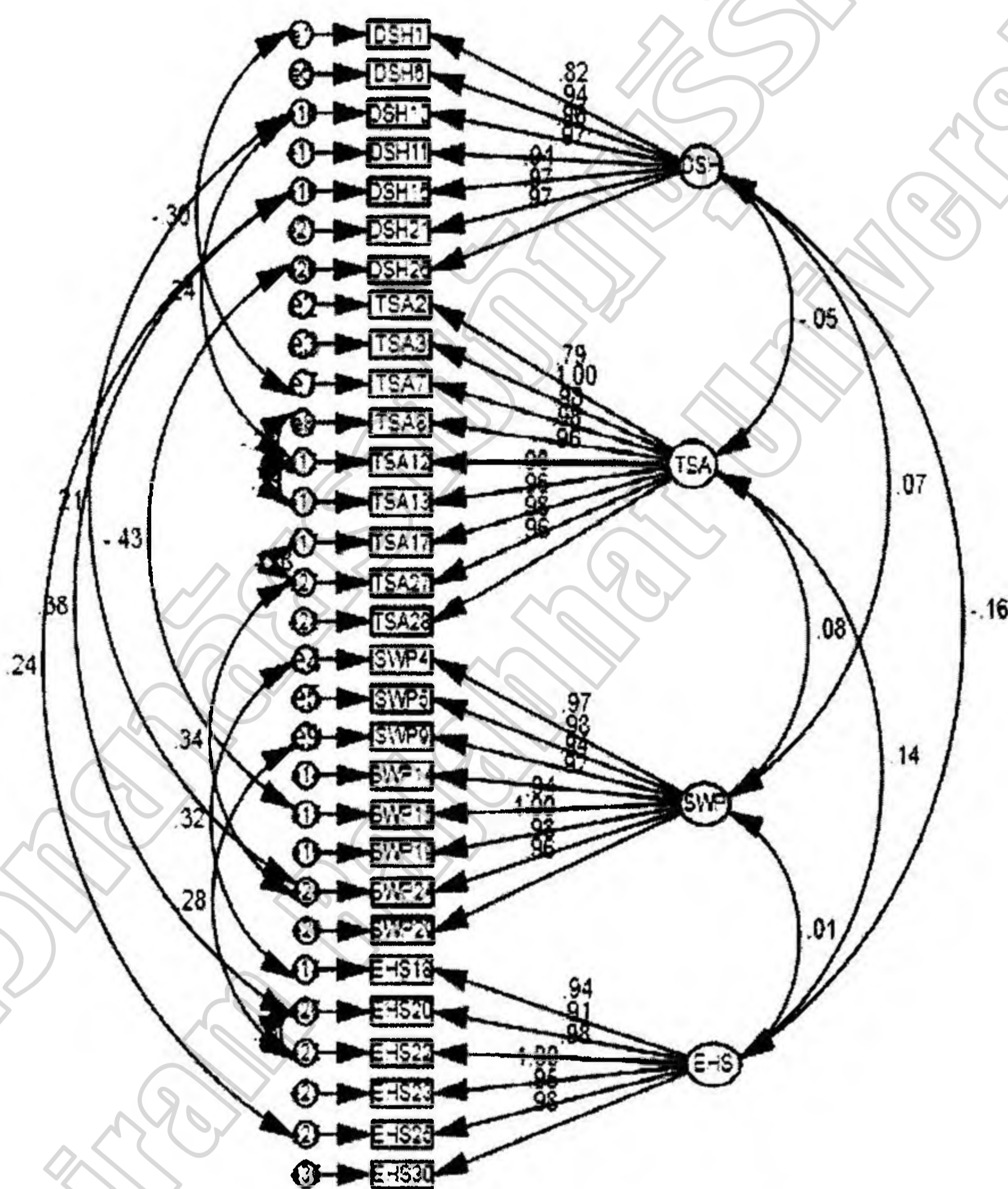
Table 4.32 Correlations among and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of Four Dimensions of the CLPI-Self

Dimensions	DHS	TSA	SWP	EHS	Cronbach's Alpha
DSH	1.00				.97
TSA	.688**	1.00			.96
SWP	.672**	.697**	1.00		.95
EHS	.527**	.548**	.644**	1.00	.94

** $p < .01$

Indicated in Table 4.32, the correlations among and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of four dimensions of the CLPI-Self were statistically significant difference at .01 levels. However, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .97 for DHD, .96 for TSA, .95 for SWP, and .94 for EHS. Because the current questionnaire was modified

based on the western culture, no reference was found for the comparison. Given that all the values were above .90, these internal consistencies are acceptable for data analyses. Therefore, the model modification stopped. The path diagram of the final measurement model of the CLPI-Self is presented in Figure 4.2.



Chi-square=215.728. df=386. P-value=1.000. RMSEA=.000

Figure 4.2 Confirmatory Factor Model for the Four Dimensions of School Directors Leadership Behaviors

Taking into account the data revealed in Figure 4.2, it was found that the final model of the school directors' leadership behaviors provided a marginally well-fitting model to the data ($\chi^2 = 215.7$, $df = 386$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = .983$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .934$, and $AGFI = .920$).

Confirmatory Factor Model of Teachers' Perceptions of School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

With reference to the statistical method utilized, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to the CLPI-Observer. The whole model of the teachers' perceptions on the school directors' leadership behaviors was tested with 30 items contributing to the three dimensions of demonstrating to strengthen deliverables (DSD), engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy (EIO), and translating a shared vision into moral obligation (TSM). The results of the final three-factor model testing are presented in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 Fit Indices for the Models of Three Teachers' Observations of School Directors' Leadership Behaviors

Dimensions	χ^2	p-value	df	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI
DSD	6.9	.905	13	.000	.999	1.000	.996	.988
EIO	14.5	1.000	46	.000	.999	1.000	.994	.990
TSM	22.2	.679	26	.000	.998	1.000	.989	.977

Note: DSD = Demonstrating to Strengthen Deliverables
 EIO = Engaging the Heart in Implementing an Organizational Strategy
 TSM = Translating a Shared Vision into Moral Obligation

Indicated in Table 4.33, the goodness-of-fit indices of structural equation model of the teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors revealed its consistency with the empirical data. The DSD dimension of the teachers' perceptions on school directors' leadership behaviors model provided a marginally well-fitting model to

the data ($\chi^2=6.9$, $df=13$, $P\text{-value}=.905$, $RMSEA=.000$, $NFI=.999$, $CFI=1.000$, $GFI=.996$, and $AGFI=.988$), EIO dimension ($\chi^2=14.5$, $df=46$, $p\text{-value}=1.000$, $RMSEA=.000$, $NFI=.999$, $CFI=1.000$, $GFI=.996$, and $AGFI=.988$), and TSM dimension ($\chi^2=22.2$, $df=26$, $p\text{-value}=.679$, $RMSEA=0.000$, $NFI=.998$, $CFI=1.000$, $GFI=.989$, and $AGFI=.977$). Besides, the internal consistencies for the four dimensions of the CLPI-Observer were calculated based on their theoretical constructs tested by the three one-factor model via the CFA. A summary of the result is in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Correlations and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients of Three Dimensions of the CLPI-Observer

Dimensions	DSD	EIO	TSM	Cronbach's Alpha
DSD	1.00			.89
EIO	.646**	1.00		.95
TSM	.542**	.557**	1.00	.94

** $p < .01$

As shown in Table 4.34 above, the correlations and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of four dimensions of the CLPI-Observer were statistically significant differences at .01 levels. However, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .89 for DSD, .95 for EIO, and .94 for TSM. Because the current questionnaire was modified based on the western culture, no reference was found for the comparison. Given that all the values were above .80, these internal consistencies are acceptable for data analyses. Therefore, the model modification stopped. The path diagram of the final measurement model of the CLPI-Observer is presented in Figure 4.3.

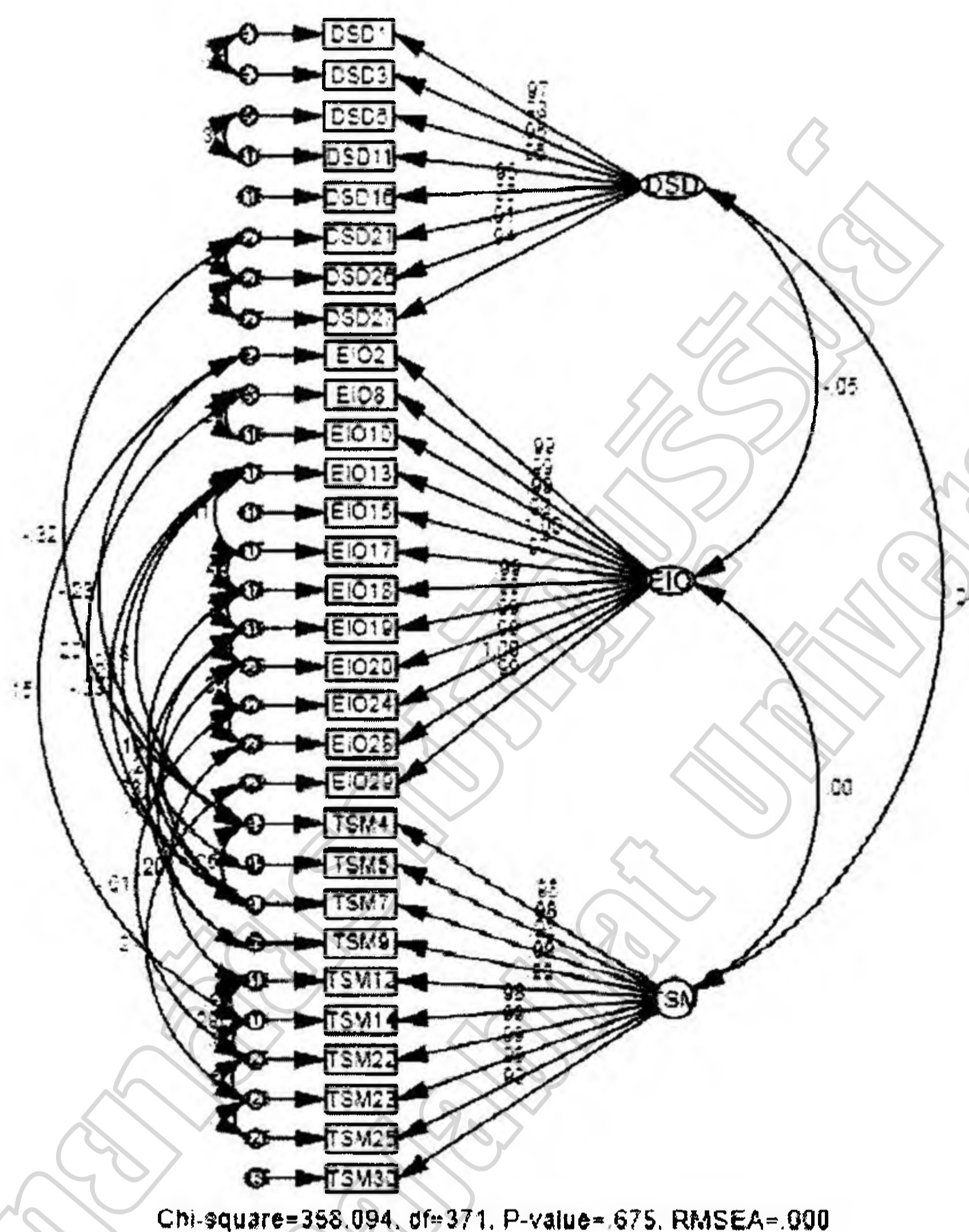


Figure 4.3 Confirmatory Factor Model for the Three Dimensions of Teachers' Perceptions of School Directors Leadership Behaviors

Detailed of the final model are shown in Figure 4.3, the final model of the teachers' perceptions on school directors' leadership behaviors provided a marginally well-fitting model to the data ($\chi^2 = 358.1$, $df = 371$, $p\text{-value} = .675$, $RMSEA = .000$, $NFI = .990$, $CFI = 1.000$, $GFI = .944$, and $AGFI = .930$).

To sum up, based on the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (both school directors and teachers) was acceptable. For each subscale of the CLPI-Self and Observer, model testing fit the data, indicating that the instrument modification was established based on the empirical data.

In conclusion of this chapter, the findings of this study would suggest that “leaders are made, not born.” It takes both time and opportunity to become a leader. This is especially true for school directors in Cambodian schools because of the rapid changes in society and in education. If Cambodian schools are to achieve the quality desired, it will require school directors who are proactive and see beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities. Results from this study suggest that perceptions of leadership in Cambodia are also changing. Moreover, very recently, Bass et al. (1996) correspondingly claim that leadership can be learned. Bennis and Goldsmith (1994: 7) precisely assert: “Becoming a leader is not easy and anyone who claims otherwise is fooling himself. But learning to lead is a lot easier than most of us think it is....” “It’s possible for ordinary people to learn to get extraordinary things done...ordinary people can become extraordinary leaders. The next chapter, Chapter Five, will explain the conclusion and discussion these findings in light of the relevant literature.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter aims to address the summary of the major findings, conclusions from the findings, and recommendations towards the perceptions on Cambodian school directors' leadership behaviors. The conclusion and discussion of this study is organized around the following categories:

1. Purposes of the Study
2. Research Questions
3. Research Hypotheses
4. Research Methodology
5. Conclusions of the Major Findings
6. Discussions
7. Recommendations

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were sixfold:

1. To study the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by school directors of high schools.
2. To study the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by high school teachers.

3. To compare the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by school directors as classified by age, education level, and experience.

4. To compare the school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers' perceptions as classified by gender, age, education level, and experience.

5. To find out the relationship between the school directors' behaviors admitted by school directors and the teachers' perceptions of the school directors' leadership behaviors.

6. To propose leadership model for supporting school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system.

Research Questions

Six research questions were formulated to produce quantitative data related to the leadership behaviors used by school directors themselves and as perceived by teachers at high school levels throughout Cambodia. The questions are:

1. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the school directors?

2. What leadership behaviors are exhibited by high school directors in Cambodia as perceived by the teachers?

3. Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by school directors in Cambodia differ, based on age, education level, and experience?

4. Do the school directors' leadership behaviors exhibited as perceived by teachers in Cambodia differ, based on gender, age, education level, and experience?

5. To what extent is the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia?

6. What leadership behaviors model should the high school directors have for supporting their leadership behaviors in Cambodian school system?

Research Hypotheses

Given the purposes of the study, and research questions, the specific hypotheses are stated as follows:

1. There are differences in leadership behaviors of Cambodian high school directors as perceived by school directors when analyzed by age, education level, and experience.

2. There are differences in leadership behaviors of Cambodian high school directors as perceived by school teachers when analyzed by gender, age, education level, and working experience.

3. There is relationship between school directors' behaviors and school teachers' perception of school directors' leadership behaviors of leadership practice theory.

Research Methodology

Population

The population were 378 public high school directors and employed 17,008 public high school teachers throughout Cambodia who are administering and teaching at grades seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, and twelve and who were qualified for the study.

Samples

The samples were 191 high school directors and 386 teachers in overall who participated in this study. They are administering and teaching composing of grades seven through twelve who are administering and teaching composing of grades seven through twelve, derived through the Table of Krejcie & Morgan, stratified random sampling, and simple random sampling by drawing lots.

Research Instruments

Two survey instruments were used in this research study: the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), and modified Cambodia Leadership Practices Inventory (CLPI). Clearly, it was a survey study and used an instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) in western culture. A modified version of Brislin's (1986) translation method was used to translate the LPI into the Khmer version. An expert panel review for content validation of the modified LPI is critical for assuring the content holds a similar meaning as the original and appropriately fits Khmer culture. Permission to use the surveys was granted by the authors.

Practically, data were obtained from these school directors and teachers using LPI. There were two versions of LPI: LPI-Self and LPI-Observer. The participating school directors used the LPI-Self to rate themselves, while teachers used the LPI-Observer to rate school directors' leadership practices. The two versions of LPI were used to measure leadership behaviors in five categories: 1) modeling the way, 2) inspiring a shared vision, 3) challenging the process, 4) enabling others to act, and 5) encouraging the heart.

Relatively, the CLPI factor analyzed version was then modified by the researcher in accordance with the results from the factor analyses. With regards to factor analysis, the school directors admitted to using four and the teachers perceived three out of the five

current practices of the leadership challenges. By utilizing the CLPI, the school directors were surveyed to measure their level of use of each for the four leadership practices, and teachers who observed these leadership practices were surveyed to measure the level to which they perceived each of the three leadership practices being performed by school directors.

Data Collection Procedures

In terms of the needed sample size, 191 LPI-Self questionnaires, and 386 LPI-Observer questionnaires were distributed in person and by post. The recipients were asked to send back the completed survey, using the pre-addressed envelopes. The follow-up procedure was conducted by telephone one week afterward in order to improve the response rates. For purposes of this study, CLPI, Self and Observer, were then collected by the same procedures as for LPI. Data were collected in a confidential manner. Participation was voluntary, and questionnaires were answered anonymously.

Data Analysis Procedures

In terms of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the five factors developed from the original LPI were forced to enter the analysis using factor analysis with Varimax rotation to examine construct validity of the 30 items. The results of factors analysis revealed that school directors exhibited four out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge; whereas, teachers perceived that their school directors performed only three out of the five.

Data analyses of the CLPI 30 Likert-type items were presented in descriptive tables with brief adjoining summaries. Data analyses of the demographic-type items about school directors, and teachers were presented in an independent samples t-test, and in ANOVA tables with adjoining summaries. Data analyses of the relationship between

variable-type items were presented in Canonical Correlation tables with adjoining summaries; whereas, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to find out the proposed model for Cambodian high schools was presented in AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structure) figures with adjoining summaries.

Conclusions of the Major Findings

The following major findings were summarized drawing from the data analysis and interpretation of the data. The results of this study determined the leadership behaviors used by school directors themselves and as perceived by teachers in the Cambodian high schools.

1. The exploratory factor analysis revealed that the construct data for the sampled school directors and teachers did not completely match the five factor construct pattern presented by Kouzes and Posner (2003). The results of factors analysis revealed that school directors exhibited to using four out of the five current practices of the leadership challenged; whereas, teachers perceived that their school directors performed only three out of the five. School directors' four factors were named according to items with higher loadings and item meaning. These are: 1) demonstrating to support the heart, 2) translating a shared vision into actions, 3) sustaining willing participation, and 4) engaging the heart in a shared. The three new factors loaded in the teachers' scale were done in the same way and categorized as: 1) demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, 2) engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and 3) translating a shared vision into moral obligation.

2. The school directors exhibited to using new four factors out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge, measured on a five-point scale. By utilizing the

CLPI, the school directors reported using each leadership behaviors item on the CLPI with varying degrees of frequency. The mean scores of individual commitments for practice were at high levels. Regarding the four-factor dimensions of the CLPI used, this study found that, ranked from the highest to the lowest by mean scores of the school directors' leadership behaviors throughout Cambodia the strongest leadership practice with these participants were translating a shared vision into actions the most, followed by sustaining willing participation, engaging the heart in a shared vision, and demonstrating to support the heart, respectively.

3. The teachers perceived new three factors out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge, measured on a five-point scale. By utilizing the CLPI, the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia as a whole were at high levels. With regard to the mean and standard deviation of the three dimensions of the CLPI scale, the findings revealed that and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia all three factors were at high levels. More specifically, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy was reported as the most frequently perception, followed by demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation, respectively.

4. By utilizing the CLPI, the understanding of the similarities and differences of school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors based on the demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and working experience were explored as follows:

4.1 When taking into account of the gender of school directors, there was found that high school directors in Cambodia in term of leadership have been

predominantly male. This important issue will later be elaborated upon in the discussion section in this chapter.

4.2 When taking into account of the age of school directors, there were not different in leadership practices in terms of demonstrating to support the heart, sustaining willing participation, and engaging the heart in a shared vision. However, translating a shared vision into actions had a statistically significant difference at the .01 level.

4.3 When taking into account of the educational level of school directors, there was no significant difference in leadership practices in term of demonstrating to support the heart. It should be noted, however, that engaging the heart in a shared vision showed statistically significant difference at the .05 level. With regard to extra effort, the translating a shared vision into actions, and sustaining willing participation showed a statistically significant difference at the .01 level.

4.4 When taking into account of working experience of school directors, the demonstrating to support the heart, translating a shared vision into actions, and engaging the heart in a shared vision of their leadership practices did not differ significantly; whereas, sustaining willing participation was statistically significant differences at .01 level. Additionally, for each pair comparison in reported leadership practices admitted by school directors based upon working experience in term of sustaining willing participation, the results indicated that the school directors who had working experience from 5 to 10 years reported their leadership behaviors in term of sustaining willing participation differed statistically from those who had gained more than 10 years experience at the .01 level.

5. By utilizing the CLPI, the understanding of the similarities and differences of school directors' perceptions as perceived by teachers based on the demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and working experience were explored.

5.1 When taking into account of the gender of teachers, there was not different in leadership preference of three leadership dimensions.

5.2 When taking into account of the age of the teachers, there were not different in demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, and engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy; whereas, there was statistically significant difference at the .05 level in the translating a shared vision into moral obligation. When each pair comparison investigation, the teachers who aged from 30-45 reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of translating a shared vision into moral differed from who aged more than 45 years at the .05 level.

5.3 When taking into account of the educational level of teachers, the engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation were statistically significant differences at the .05 levels; whereas, the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables was significant difference at the .01 level. For each pair comparison investigation, the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of engaging the heart in implementing differed from who had gained higher than bachelor's degree at the .05 level. Also, the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree and bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based on educational level in

term of translating a shared vision into moral obligation differed from who had gained higher than bachelor's degree at the .05 level.

5.4 When taking into account of the years of teaching experience of teachers, there were not different in leadership practices of school directors by teachers' perception based on years of teaching experience level among the three leadership dimensions.

6. Identifying the relationship between the school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions for the school directors' leadership behaviors in Cambodia, the canonical correlation analysis (CCA) was used as the main technique to analysis the collected data. The findings pertained that the canonical analysis of the four school directors' leadership practice bases and the three teachers' observations of their leadership practice was statistically significant ($p < .00$).

7. The goodness-of-fit indices of the structural equation model of school directors' leadership behaviors showed its consistency with the empirical data ($\chi^2 = 215.7$, $df = 386$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $GFI = .93$, $AGFI = .92$, and $RMSEA = .000$). The goodness-of-fit indices of the structural equation model of teachers' perceptions of school directors' leadership behaviors revealed its consistency with the empirical data ($\chi^2 = 358.094$, $df = 371$, $p\text{-value} = .67$, $GFI = .94$, $AGFI = .93$, and $RMSEA = .000$).

Discussions

Below are the discussions of the following aspects based on the findings:

participants' perceived factors interpretation, high school directors' perceived leadership behaviors, high school directors' leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers, reported leadership practices admitted by school directors, reported leadership practices admitted by school directors as perceived by teachers, reported relationship between school directors' leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions, reported the proposed leadership model.

Participants' Perceived Factors Interpretation

It is interesting to note that this investigation was employed a survey study and used an instrument developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003) in western culture.

The results of factors analysis revealed that school directors exhibited four out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge; whereas, teachers perceived that their school directors performed only three out of the five. It is also interesting to point out that, after the exploratory factor analysis exploration, it was found that the constructed data for the sampled school directors and teachers did not completely match the five factor construct pattern presented by Kouzes and Posner (2003). School directors' four factors were named according to items with higher loadings and item meaning. These are:

- 1) demonstrating to support the heart, 2) translating a shared vision into actions,
- 3) sustaining willing participation, and 4) engaging the heart in a shared vision.

The three new factors loaded in the teachers' scale were done in the same way and categorized as: 1) demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, 2) engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and 3) translating a shared vision into moral obligation. Each leadership practice revealed noteworthy findings. Thus, the leadership

practices of Cambodian high school directors were different in both numbers and names from the factors found by Kouzes and Posner (2003). The explanation for this may lie in two areas. First, the value systems embedded and cultivated in Cambodia are created by the country's historical background, and the education system itself plays a pivotal role in maintaining the hierarchical societal system. Cambodia's societal norms and power concentrated national culture will constrain school directors from demonstrating fully collaborative styles of leadership which assume that leadership can be shared between school directors and other teachers (O'Leary & Nee, 2001; Morefield, 2003a). Also, considering the social norms of Cambodia, other teachers may not expect their school directors to behave in a democratic way. They will accept school directors' didactic ways as school leaders. Second, there is the matter of the structure that works to lead school directors to show their leadership in less collaborative ways. This is because the limited financial resources, centrally driven curricula and didactic ways of teaching and learning leave little room for the school directors to collaborate with other teachers and fully enjoy their autonomy. Thus, the researcher individually claimed that rather than five LPI leadership practices as proposed by Kouzes and Posner (2003), the results of this study of school directors' leadership practices better fit a Cambodian context.

The findings in this study support the viewpoint that there are a set of leadership behaviors, in this case represented by the western culture as suggested in the literature, which are both universal and culturally-specific (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1997; Peterson & Hunt, 1997). Simply put, Kouzes and Posner (2003) found that statistically significant difference across LPI scores were possibly due to cross-cultural comparison. In this sense, Posner (2010) proposed that many cross-cultural studies suggest that culture can influence leadership concepts, styles, and practices. As House et al. (1999: 171)

suggest, “what is expected of leadership, what leaders may or not may do, and the status and influence bestowed upon them vary considerably as a result of the cultural forces in the countries or regions in which the leaders function.” Also, Posner (2010) stated that because the countries studied differ in these cultural dimensions, it is expected that the extent to which respondents would engage in a common set of leadership practices would differ among them.

Likewise, the findings of this study fit well with the studies on substitutes for leadership done by Oumthanom (2001), Sandbackken (2004), Chen and Baron (2007), and Rozeboom (2008). These researchers found that the factor analysis revealed that the constructed data for the samples did not completely match the five factor construct pattern presented by Kouzes and Posner. Additionally, this finding was in line with that in Lam (1998), and Wilberg (2003). A three-factor solution; namely, enabling other to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart have been found in research by Lam (1998) on a sample of Hong Kong manager. The doctoral degree conducted by Wilberg (2003) explored the newspaper editors and administrators (managers) in Norway and Sweden. The findings found that the five current practices of the leadership challenge were loaded with three-factor LPI solution. The three loaded factors were change and vision, collaboration and target setting, and motivation.

Apart from the aforementioned aspect, the mean scores for school directors’ leadership practices were higher than those of the teachers’ preference to their leadership practices. This can be described that Cambodian school directors felt that naturally did considerable work and employed much leadership to improve, develop, change, and lead their school. These findings concurred with the studies of Kouzes and Posner (1997), and Oumthanom (2001). In comparing mean scores from the LPI-Self with those from the

LPI-Observer, Kouzes and Posner's (1997: 344) findings revealed that "Average frequency scores have a tendency to be somewhat higher on the LPI-Self than on the LIO-Observer." Also, Oumthanom's (2001: 95) results stated that "The mean scores for principals about their current practice of leadership were higher than those of the teachers."

Relatively, the loaded items in each factor were also different for school directors and teachers. This result may be explained that both school directors and teachers have the same objectives in the educational reform process. Concerning to the reform in its initial stages, school directors and teachers must view operations and strategies to achieve the educational reform initiatives in different ways. In this sense, teachers view this change from the perspective of practitioners; whereas, school directors view it from the perspective of administrators. This is true in some situation in Cambodia when educational reforms are being implemented. A reason why the government encourages school directors to cooperate with other teachers is that changes in school structures towards better school performance require changes in management styles and collective will (MoEYS, 2010).

Yet, the government documents describing the school directors' new roles specially emphasize only an importance of collaboration with and participation of other teachers. They do not explain how school directors can mobilize other teachers' will to achieve the targeted goals of the schools. Cambodia; however, is a hierarchically ordered society, with notions of power and status conditioning social relations. This appears to agree with Hofstede's (1980) notion of power distance. Cambodia is classified as a high power distance country, i.e., a country where people accept the fact that power is unequally distributed in society. To understand why Cambodians accept the unequal

distribution of power, respect social status and even accept such highly divided social stratification, the country's historical background has to be looked at.

Furthermore, Cambodian high school directors perceived little about their leaders' vision and belief related to specific leadership behavior. Based on the culture and values in Cambodia explored, Cambodian high school directors may face restrictions in their decisions from their district office of education and from the central ministry; in turn, school directors may not fully display conviction in their commitments, owing to limited authority (Robert. 1993; Morefield. 2003a; Dy. 2004). Another possible explanation has been proposed by some scholars that despite these rapid changes and increases in school directors' workloads, school directors in Cambodia have no training to become school directors: before becoming the school directors, they were in many cases assistant school directors and appointed as school directors by the Ministry (Ayres. 2000; Turner. 2002; Dy. 2004; Morefield. 2004).

In this sense, as for the present-day social system in Cambodia, Turner (2002: 361) claims that the system is still "the one-side dependency relationship" and the hierarchical personal relationships and patron-client relations embedded in Cambodia work against realizing the predicted effects of people's participation in decision-making on any matter and making those with authority and power accountable to other people. Supporting this claiming; however, in Thailand, Oumthanom (2001) and Chartchai (2002) said that when a hierarchy among people between school directors and classroom teachers is obvious, small groups work better for people to contribute than the whole group, and subsequently the opinions are provided to the whole group. Oumthanom (2001) and Chartchai (2002) further stated that these people prefer being called upon to give a response to participating and standing out above others in open and critical discussions.

The results of this study indicated that the variety of cultures and school contextual factors appeared to have some effect, or at minimum, detected differences in the perceptions of leadership within public high schools. Barth (2002: 13) noted “A school’s culture has far more influence on life and learning in the school house than the president of the country, the state department of education, the superintendent, or the school board.” Bates (1991: 25) argued, “It is culture that gives meaning to life. Culture is the framework that connects beliefs, values, and knowledge with action in schools.” Inherent in this result was the fact that every school culture was different, and yet every school director in this study was also required to meet the same country standards of performance, and each teacher is vital for the provision of necessary skills and learning opportunities for students to meet these standards.

In summary, this section shows that Cambodian culture is a key factor that shapes the values and behaviors of the leaders, in both positive and negative ways necessitating school leaders to choose a proper and suitable culture for their administration. Moreover, they need to consider and integrate international culture in their administrative context. The findings also indicate that, since each part of Cambodia has its own style of living, especially in culture, the knowledge and the familiarity with local customs are very helpful in capability development. In addition, integrity in the profession and integrity in themselves will be a support for the capability development of school leaders.

High School Directors’ Perceived Leadership Behaviors

As revealed in the findings of the study, the school directors exhibited to using new four factors out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge, measured on a five-point scale. Utilizing the CLPI, the school directors reported using each leadership behaviors item on the CLPI with varying degrees of frequency. The mean scores of

individual commitments for practice were at a high level. Regarding the four-factor dimensions of the CLPI used, this study found that, ranked from the highest to the lowest mean scores of the school directors' leadership behaviors throughout Cambodia, the strongest leadership practice with these participants was translating a shared vision into actions, followed by sustaining willing participation, engaging the heart in a shared vision, and demonstrating to support the heart, respectively. Not a surprising outcome due to the self-reporting aspect of the survey. This finding can be interpreted to mean that Cambodian school directors see the importance of these leadership practices. The findings of this study concurred with those of Oumthanom (2001), Rouse (2005), Shannon (2008), and Martin (2011), all of which found that the information regarding the school directors' leadership practices towards the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), developed by Kouzes and Posner as a whole were at a high level and the highest level. This indicated that Cambodian high school directors that exhibit more leadership practice may be mainly focused on creating a vision within their school and thus are able to inspire their followers to be more productive, encouraging success for the overall good of the school.

More importantly, the leaders who have good leadership behaviors create meaning for their subordinates and instill an internal motivation to commitment and to see exceptional achievement of the organization (Owens. 1970; Leithwood & Jantzi. 1999; Leithwood. 2009; Marks & Printy. 2003; Yukl. 2006). Conversely, when compared with Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) published norms, the perceptions of this study's participants resulted in self-ratings that were less than those reflected in the research data but with enabling the heart being the most comparable. This finding is consistent with the results obtained by Lyons (2010), Joffrin (2011) and Martin (2011), which revealed, respectively, that school directors of recognized schools are demonstrating the leadership behaviors

more frequently. This may indicate that leaders felt that they did considerable work and employed much leadership to improve, develop, change, and lead their organization (Morefield, 2004).

When school directors are asked to identify specific perceptions of their leadership behaviors leadership behaviors exhibited most, they believe the following three leadership behaviors are most likely to be used. First, the school directors perceive of their leadership behaviors “praise people for job well done” (Item 5), which is a subset of the sustaining willing participation. Second, the school directors indicate that their leadership behaviors “seek challenging opportunities” (Item 3), which is a subset of the translating a shared vision into actions. Third, the school directors feel that they are “recognizing publicly” (Item 20), which is a subset of the engaging the heart in a shared vision. This can be explained that Cambodian high school directors bring vision, policy, and practices, rules and regulations, and new knowledge of learning and teaching from central government to their schools, especially about school reform and Education Strategic Plan 2009-2013. Thus, the school directors in Cambodia must share this information with teachers (MoEYS, 2010). In the view of Bennis and Nanus (1985), a genuine leader is the person who is able to commit people to action, who converts followers into leaders, and who may convert leaders into agent of change.

The following three leadership behaviors are thought by school directors to be exhibited least often by their leadership behaviors. First, the school directors indicate that their leadership behaviors are not commonly “reward contributions to success” (Item 15), which is a subset of the sustaining willing participation. Second, the school directors do not think that their leadership behaviors “clear about philosophy of leadership” (Item 26), which is a subset of the demonstrating to support the heart.

Finally, the school directors do not believe that their leadership behaviors “celebrate accomplishment” (Item 25), which is a subset of the engaging the heart in a shared vision. It seems that the school directors in Cambodia have been given an important say on matters concerning school management such as preparing school development plans and managing school-operating budgets. Concerning the school development plans, the government (MoEYS, 2010) said that the processes of developing the plans should be participatory, i.e., involving other teachers not only in their implementation but also in their planning processes.

In summary, this finding illustrates the major changes and the key issues affecting Cambodian education and the effects of education reform on school leaders, as well as an emerging perspective on the roles of leaders. Thus, an examination of the leadership behaviors of school directors is essential for school directors who wish to facilitate desired change in their schools.

High School Directors’ Leadership Behaviors as Perceived by Teachers

As disclosed in the findings of this study, the teachers perceived new three factors out of the five current practices of the leadership challenge, measured on a five-point scale. Utilizing the CLPI, the school directors’ leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers’ perceptions in Cambodia indicated as a whole were at a high level. With regard to the mean and standard deviation of the three dimensions of the CLPI scale, the findings also revealed that the teachers’ perceptions for the school directors’ leadership behaviors in Cambodia all three factors were at high levels. More specifically, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy was reported as the most frequently perceptions, followed by demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation, respectively. There are two explanations for these findings. First, it can

be interpreted to mean that the teachers see the importance of the school directors' leadership practices. Second, the teachers do perceive that their school directors look for ways to improve their team, such as networking and taking the initiative to try new approaches. Overall, it appears that teachers reported feeling that their school directors have experience and special knowledge or expertise and that their school directors identify with them because of mutual feelings of respect. These teachers are likely to view their school directors as treating everyone fairly, having a pleasing personality, and having considerable professional knowledge. This can be explained in light of Oumthanom's findings (2001) which is noted that the teachers perceived three out of the five current practices of the leadership at a high level. Also, Kouzes and Posner (2002a) described leadership practice as the leader's ability to create teamwork and trust. Through empowerment, the leader is able to inspire team members to strive for the organization's goals and dreams.

As a teacher, engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy was reported as the highest mean score among three dimensions. This finding fully supports the convictions of the school directors' importance. The school directors have a huge influence on the professional lives of their teachers; their actions can improve negative environments or destroy positive ones (Leithwood. 1992; Sergiovanni. 1995; Marks & Printy. 2003; Ross & Gray. 2006). Also, this study concurs with Sahin (2004), and Hertberg-Davis and Brighton (2006) who concluded that one key to successful acceptance of an initiative by teachers is the level of commitment displayed by the school director.

When teachers are asked to identify specific leadership behaviors exhibited most by their school directors, they believe the following three leadership behaviors are most

likely to be used. First, the teachers observe that their school directors “ask for feedback the affected actions” (Item 16). Second, the teachers indicate that their school directors “spend time and energy on principles” (Item 6). Third, the teachers feel that school directors are “seeking challenging opportunities” (Item 3). All of these behaviors are the representative of the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables dimension. It can be inferred that the school directors may have consideration for individuals. The school directors may be concerned about teacher development, but in a way the school directors would like teachers to develop. Bass (2000) explained that this component describes leaders who consider the needs and abilities of followers. The leader treats each follower as an individual and provides coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities. Shamir (1999) concluded that leaders help develop followers into self-leaders.

The following three leadership behaviors are thought by the teachers to be exhibited least often by their school directors. First, teachers indicate that the school directors are not commonly “celebrate accomplishment” (Item 25). Second, the teachers do not think that their school directors “praises people for job well done” (Item 5). Both of these behaviors are the representative of the translating a shared vision into moral obligation dimension. Finally, teachers do not believe that their school directors “clear about philosophy of leadership” (Item 26), which is a subset of the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables dimension. These results can possibly be explained that if the school director really aims at a true collaboration, he/she should establish what Ash and Persall (2000) called a two-way communication network and formulate a platform that engages both the school directors and teachers in making important decisions for schools. The over-controlling style of leadership of the school director, according to Blasé and Anderson (1995) can insert negative, disastrous impact on a school’s culture. It is not

surprisingly to see, therefore, many teachers do not perceive themselves as teacher leaders. However, as Gehrke and Romerdahl (1997) noted that at a time in education when teachers are willing to take on a leadership role, it is the school director who appears to place obstacles in their way.

As stated earlier, Kouzes and Posner (2003) have pointed out that no dimension is better or worse than other, and leaders need to use all six to be most effective. Yet, the findings of this study suggest that the teachers do not believe the school directors are effective at seeing their organization through either the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables translating a shared vision into moral obligation dimension. To balance the perceived lack of use of these dimensions, the school directors of public high schools should consider creating or revitalizing ceremonies and rituals in their schools, working to develop or restating the organization's vision, and revitalizing the institutional culture. They should also consider training that would develop their capacity to be skillful negotiators, persuasive, and influential.

This finding is similar to the results reported by Yerkes, Cuellar and Cuellar (1992), Oumthanom (2001), Chartchai (2002), and Dangsuwon (2002), which indicated, respectively, Singaporean administrators, Thai primary private school directors, Thai private vocational school directors, and Thai school directors under the Foreign Correspondents' Club of Thailand (FCCT) used the structural frame, which was related to the meaning of the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables. In contrast, Kouzes and Posner (2003) found that school administrators who were selected as outstanding executive educators used the strengthen deliverables demonstration dimension least frequency. Singaporean and FCCT administrators were similar in predominantly using strengthen deliverables dimension. Thus, the researcher can say that rules, and regulations

play an important role in Asian culture, in contrast to western culture, where outstanding administrators used this dimension the least.

Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School Directors

Utilizing the CLPI, the understanding of the similarities and differences of school directors' perceptions of their leadership behaviors based on the demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and working experience were investigated.

When taking into account of the gender of the school directors, it was found that the high school directors in Cambodia in term of leadership have been predominantly male. According to Khmer culture, males are leaders, and females are followers. It is hard to accept females as leaders in Khmer culture. The findings were not surprising because, more clearly explained, sex-role stereotyping assigns different roles to men and women within families; women are expected to take care of the home and children; whereas, men are expected to work outside the home. As pointed out by Gorman, Dorina and Kheng (1999), Ayres (2000) and Morefield (2004), this brings about two major pressures. First, women who wish to become leaders have to face a "double workday" as their taking on work outside the home does not change the deeply rooted expectation of their taking care of the home and children. Second, for husbands, their expected role of working outside the home means that there is a huge social cost if they agree to renegotiate roles with their wives, and so many do not agree to do so, or do not support their wives in becoming leaders or taking important positions in politics. As Bolman and Deal (1992), and Tang (2008) reported, with a recommendation for further study, woman do get credit for performance but get less credit than men, non-performance criteria. To survive in the crises, earning a better access to university education leaves females still in need. According to Channay, an Undersecretary of State of the Ministry of Women's

Affairs declared that “Girls who start an adult life with an education handicap step into a life that is characterized by a weak status and horizon (Cambodia Daily. 2012: 19).”

When taking into account of the age of school directors, the findings revealed that there was not different in terms of demonstrating to support the heart, sustaining willing participation, and engaging the heart in a shared vision. This result can be interpreted to mean that Cambodian school directors did not see the importance of these leadership practices of their perceptions. This finding was concurred with Posner (2010)’s findings, which indicated that there were not different on any of the five leadership practices on the basis of age. Additionally, the translating a shared vision into actions was statistically significant difference at .01 level. This seems to be the result of Cambodian high school directors consistently exhibited the leadership behaviors that were positive practices and possess the knowledge, skills, and judgment to make the improvements needed may make significant contributions to orderly and positive learning and teaching environments. Changing the learning and teaching process, with its roots deep in Cambodian society, is to challenge change as well (MoEYS. 2010). The findings of this study correspond to those of Morefield (2003b: 17), who proposed that “The changing values of Cambodian culture suggest that those with authority believe they are taking steps to meet human needs in a manner that is quite progressive when compared to traditional school director-teacher relationships.” As for the hierarchically structured society in Cambodia, as leaders, school directors look for ways to radically alter the status quo. They have to ask their teachers to compare standing still with moving swiftly forward. These results should prove promising for reform of Cambodian high schools across the nation.

The research findings were also aligned with leadership behaviors as identified by Covey (1989), Whitaker (2003), Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005), and Interstate

School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) (2008). Those behaviors included communicating, building relationships, goal setting, delegating, collaborating, and performance accomplishments. Surprisingly, the translating a shared vision into actions dimension variable had a significant difference. Translating a shared vision into actions; therefore, should perhaps be de-emphasized by boards of education and policy makers in training and professional development programs for school leaders.

With these goals in mind, the findings of this study contribute to the current knowledge based on how the school directors' leadership behaviors are related to seeking challenging opportunities and ultimately trying new and innovative approaches. The evidence to support these findings, the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGoC) (2010: 235) claimed that the government regards school principals in particular as the lever bringing about "the greatest impact on policy implementation." In the centralized education system, schools and school directors ran these school activities with little flexibility, or even they had no authority to determine some of the activities. In short, Cambodia's education reforms have loaded new and additional responsibilities onto individual schools and the school directors, and these responsibilities should be conducted in participatory styles in one way or another.

When taking into account of the educational level of the school directors, the findings illustrated that the demonstrating to support the heart was not different. It should be noted, however, that engaging the heart in a shared vision showed statistically significant difference at the .05 level. With regard to extra effort, the translating a shared vision into actions, and sustaining willing participation showed statistically significant differences at the .01 levels. According to their accounts, there is one way that the school directors perceived differently in their dimension leadership behaviors. The way is the

declarative knowledge structures match incoming information to categories and prototypes which has already stored in Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2009-2013. The results of this study correspond to those of Petsakoon (1996), Brailsford (2001), Fulton (2009), Lyons (2010), and Xu (2010), which indicated that the school directors' level of education was statistically significant. They also added that school directors with master's degree were perceived more favorably than the school directors with doctorate degree. This may have significant for the school directors considering continuing their education past the master's level. It may also be of interest to the school districts that remunerate these school directors via tuition reimbursement.

By utilizing the ANOVA, the results showed that there were not different in reported leadership behavior admitted by the school directors based on working experience among three dimensions: demonstrating to support the heart, translating a shared vision into actions, and engaging the heart in a shared vision. As a result, Cambodian school directors in public high schools seem to become more aware of their use of the human resource frame, which emphasizes the relationship between the teachers and schools. The results of this study are supported by the studies of Barth (1990), Leithwood (1992) and Sergiovanni (1995), which indicated that human resource school directors develop bonds of shared values, goals, vision, decision making, and commitment with teachers through empowerment. Also, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) recommended that the educational leaders must support a climate which allows members of the organization to participate in the decision-making process.

However, the school directors' working experience was statistically significant difference at .01 level in the dimension of sustaining willing participation. This can be explained that Cambodian school directors recognized their followers are knowledgeable

professional people and that they are more committed and accept responsibility for what they took part in sustainable planning. In this sense, Bandura (1996) suggested school directors must also realize that much more can be gained by professional stimulation and cooperation than by force and coercion since force and coercion hamper creativity and commitment. Additionally, Leithwood et al. (1999) and Hallinger (2003) also intended that the school directors must be open-minded and trust the creative capacities of their staff to work cooperatively in an atmosphere of trust to nurture support top to bottom level. Yet, the views on education have changed. MoEYS (2010) emphasized that the change should be brought about by the school directors in sustainable collaboration with other teachers, and give a reason why the school directors have to cooperate more closely and sustainably with other teachers.

More interestingly, when each pair of the school directors' leadership practices purposely compared, it was found that the dimension of sustaining willing participation was revealed statistically significant difference at the .01 level with who had working experience from 5 to 10 years and more than 10 years. As a result of this study, speculation for the reason for this difference would include the changing nature of Cambodia and its institutions. Older school directors may have been trained at a time when more emphasis was given to organization and structure as the standard for good administration. Less senior school directors trained at a later time may have had greater exposure to the broader concepts of management inherent in the four dimensions therefore are more aware of the value of considering the sustainable willing participations of employees.

Another explanation may be found in the nature of administrative work and its relationship of the human resources needs. One of the advantages that experience in a

position provides is the capacity to recognize situations and act upon them. Experienced administrators do not need to ask others for opinions for solving situation; they frequently just do what needs to be done (Morefield. 2004). That very action makes them efficient and leads strongly to perceived use of the sustaining willing participation dimension; however, the school directors must infrequently remind staff members of their role as well as occasionally refocusing their attention on the essential tasks. In addition, they have the responsibility to clearly define the school's mission to their members once it is established. These purposes were reasonably supported by the well-known scholars as Leithwood et al. (1999) and Hallinger (2003), which stated that helping staff members understand the mission enables them to be more committed to and more adequate in accomplishing the task.

Reported Leadership Practices Admitted by School Directors as Perceived by Teachers

By utilizing the CLPI, the understanding of the similarities and differences of the school directors' perceptions as perceived by teachers based on the demographic factors of gender, age, educational level, and working experience were explored.

When taking into account of the gender of the teachers, the findings revealed that there was not different in leadership perception of three leadership dimensions. Why was there no significant difference in leadership behaviors based on this variable? A primary reason for this lack of variable is that Cambodian society is struggling to regain a sense of national identity through a return to perceived traditional values and ideals in these post-conflict years. Perceptions of gender identity, especially female gender identity, are closely linked to notions of culture and tradition, and resistance to changes in gender relations is often strong. The findings were concurrent with Brailsford (2001), Dean

(2009), and Morris (2011) which indicated that “teachers’ gender” was not a significant factor in the influence of teacher perceptions on school directors’ leadership behaviors.

The findings in this study also correspond with those from Posner (2010) which determined that who did not report any statistically significant differences in the average frequency to which they engaged in the five leadership practices on the basis of gender.

When taking into account of the age of the teachers, there was not different in demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, and engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy; whereas, there was a statistically significant difference at the .05 level in the translating a shared vision into moral obligation. For each pair comparison investigating, the teachers who were aged from 30-45 reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of translating a shared vision into moral differed from who were aged more than 45 years with statistically significant difference at the .05 level. It is assumed that unique environmental dynamic contribution to some variation in their perceptions on leadership school directors’ leadership behaviors.

In the Asian context, the current study is consistent with Posner (2010) which explored the behaviors of leaders across economically-distressed regions within four countries (Ethiopia, India, Pakistan, Philippines), whether the impact of their behavior would be differentially affected by culture, and the psychometric properties of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in this setting. Psychometric properties of the LPI were examined. In this study, results indicated that the rank order for the leadership practices was the same for respondents in the 31- 40 age and the 41-50 age categories. The rank order difference between other two age categories was that the youngest group (25-30 years) had challenge ranked third and model ranked fifth while these two were

reversed for the oldest age group (over 50 years). Enable and encourage were the two leadership practices ranked most frequently engaged in by all four age categories.

A possible explanation of this finding is that Cambodia is a hierarchically ordered society, with notions of power and status conditioning social relations. It was an inspiring and riveting time to be in Cambodia. As supported by Caldwell and Spaulding (1990)'s study, the school directors' leadership behaviors have an effect on teacher militancy. Subsequent to these findings, it would be helpful for directors to know the perceptions of the teachers and to refine such behaviors that do not encourage healthy relationship.

Conversely, the findings in this study are in contrast with previous study of Brailsford (2001) which stated that the teachers aged of 30-45 are more than 45 years old. Brailsford's analysis of variance showed that teachers aged 21-30 and 31-45 responded more favorably than did older teachers (46-60 and over 60). The mean difference is significant at the .05 level. Of the teachers who responded thirty-nine (39) were aged 21-30; 69 were aged 31-45; 118 were aged 46-60; and only 11 were over 60 years of age. It appears that the responses less favorable as the teachers got older. This has significant implications for teacher professional development and adult education. Professional development facilitators may want to look at the learning styles and needs of these seasoned teachers as this might mean that as teachers get older and have less favorable perceptions of their school directors' leadership, teacher efficacy decreases.

As perceived by teachers in term of translating a shared vision into moral obligation, a school director is a role model for active teacher engagement or for apathy. As reported in the literature review, Ubben and Hughes (1992) claimed the school directors who affect change see the big picture and model energy, enthusiasm, and hope. Leadership role modeling provides staff and students with motivation to continue to

support leadership initiatives (Manogran & Conlon. 1993; Blasé & Anderson. 1995).

This study is more in line with research by McCarthy (2009) and Lyons (2010), who both interpreted that a visionary leader fosters collaboration with subordinates, provided individual consideration, and empowered others to work more efficiently and productively. Leaders in a collectivist culture such as the Cambodian society are morally responsible for taking care of their subordinates (Ayres. 2000; Dy. 2004; Morefield. 2004).

When taking into account of the educational level of the teachers, the engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy, and translating a shared vision into moral obligation showed statistically significant differences at the .05 level; whereas, the demonstrating to strengthen deliverables, was significantly different at the .01 level. For each pair comparison investigation, the teachers who had earned below bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based on educational level in term of engaging the heart in implementing differed from those who had gained higher than bachelor's degree with statistical significance at the .05 level. And, the teachers who earned below bachelor's degree and bachelor's degree reported their observations on leadership practices of school directors based upon educational level in term of translating a shared vision into moral obligation differed from who gained higher than bachelor's degree with statistical significance at the .05 level. These could be explained that today's teachers are expected to work harder than in the past. They devote to learning and teaching, so they should be recognized not only by their school directors and colleagues but also by their communities and wider Cambodian society. The results of this study fit well with the studies on teachers' level of education done by Brailsford (2001), Shannon (2008), and Charf (2009). These previous studies found that in many

distances, “teachers’ level of education” was statistically significant in the influence of their perceptions of their school directors’ leadership behaviors.

As noted above, the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGoC) has realized this crucial point so teachers who are highly skilled in the learning and teaching process have been recognized and rewarded as outstanding teachers. Similarly, styles of teaching and learning affect, and are affected by, styles of leadership and management (Dimmock & Walker. 2000). Regarding teachers’ professional capacity, the number of qualified teachers in schools in remote areas still remains 71 per cent while according to the governments’ estimation, over 90 per cent of the teachers nationwide became academically qualified by 1999 (RGoC. 2001).

The findings of the present study are consistent with those of previous studies (Rouse. 2005; Malcom. 2007; Bilton. 2008; Xu. 2010; Constantino. 2011; Martin. 2011; Yarbrough. 2011) which concluded the potential existence of differences in teachers’ perceptions for the school directors’ leadership behaviors. An interesting finding in the data reported is that the teachers who earned below bachelor’s degree, bachelor’s degree and higher than bachelor’s degree reported using engaging the heart in implementing an organizational strategy and translating a shared vision into moral obligation differently. Some examples of these strategies include enlisting others in common vision, asking “What can we learn?”, supporting decisions of others, developing cooperative relationships, appealing to others to share dream, and listening to diverse points of view. This specific result is in line with other research studies investigating the teachers’ perceptions towards school directors’ leadership behaviors (Daw & Gage. 1967; Reyes & Imber. 1992; Ubben & Hughes. 1992; Blasé & Anderson. 1995; Tapaneeyangkul. 1995; Henkin & Dee. 2001) which indicated that teacher feedback

effected on the school directors' behaviors, and how teachers felt about the school directors' role.

When taking into account of the years of teaching experience of the teachers, there were not different in leadership practices of the school directors by teachers' perception based on years of teaching experience level among the three leadership dimensions. This is probably because the Cambodian education traditionally is based on structuralism. Curricula and syllabi are structured, and teachers must follow them. This could be explained that the teachers' years of teaching experience were not effected on the teachers' perceptions towards the school directors' leadership behaviors. Therefore, all that Cambodia possesses nowadays is a very low-standard education system with lots of problems. These problems include poverty of the population, lack of budget and resources and finally, corruption. The results of this study appear to agree with the studies of Brailsford (2001) and Garner (2008), which indicated that teachers' teaching experience was not statistically significant in the influence of teachers' perceptions on their school directors' leadership behaviors.

In this sense, teachers in Cambodia only receive low salaries, which make them fall into poverty (Komai. 1997; ADB. 2010; Kim. 2001; Pheng, Sovonn & Soly. 2001; RGoC. 2010). They need to make money or else their family will die of starvation. In order to do that, they sell papers for students and those who do not buy, will have lower scores on their exams. Moreover, due to the fact that teachers earn less money than some other jobs, people who have the potential to become great educators changed their minds to search for those careers. This aspect resonates with the argument of previous work (Bray. 2000; Morefield. 2003a; Naidoo & Kong. 2003; ADB. 2004) that despite a number of money talks, corruption and bribery are also the main problems in education system.

Reported Relationship between School Directors' Leadership Behaviors and Teachers' Perceptions

From the perspective of the relationship between the four school directors' leadership practice bases and the three teachers' observations of their leadership practice, the results of this study maintained that the canonical analysis of all four school directors' leadership practice bases and all three teachers' observations of their leadership practice was statistically significant ($p < .000$). Hence, both school directors and teachers perceived leadership practice as a means to achieve educational reform in Cambodia. Besides, it appears that both Cambodian school directors and teachers who responded to the survey are more likely to feel empowered when they like their school directors and feel that the school directors have knowledge and expertise in supportive leadership behavior. For instance, according to Sinden, Hoy and Sweetland (2004), when school directors perform supportive behavior, teachers generally perform respectful behavior along with trust towards the school directors. The findings supported a previous study of Morefield (2003a) which found that teachers see, as leaders of schools, school directors are able to identify and remove themselves from imposed constrained and organizational conventions that block innovation and creativity.

Other research supports these findings. According to Snowden and Gorton (1998), irrespective of type of leadership a school exercises, teachers will be affected by leadership behavior. They regarded a school director as someone who can attempt to bring about change, but position power alone does not determine leadership. Pounder, Ogawa and Adams (1995) found a strong relationship between the leadership behavior of the school director and organizational commitment, or loyalty and devotion to the success of the organization.

The finding of this study is valued for the achievement of the educational reform, because reforming the Cambodian educational system is an innovation. It is a challenging that requires leadership as a means to achieve the reform goals. In this manner, the school directors' role offers a variety of opportunities to improve the efficacy beliefs of individual teachers. This is confirmed by Cotton (2003) and Morefiled (2004), successful school directors make themselves available to teachers, frequently visit classrooms, support teacher goals despite setbacks, recognize excellence, and build positive instructional and supportive relationship that enhance all school functions. This lens on the relationship between teacher efficacy and school director behaviors helps solidify overall practices that can benefit the most important commodity in schools. As Bass (1985) suggested, leaders need to apply their leadership behavior in a transformational paradigm in building up of their relationship with followers.

Another explanation may be found in term of the referent power. Referent power refers to a leader's willingness to be associated with followers (Blasé & Blasé. 2001). It can be explained that when leaders associate themselves with their followers, they involve teachers in democratic, collaborative activities that increase teachers' abilities and desires to cooperate in fulfilling the educational mission of the school (Blasé & Blasé. 2001). Collaboration sets the stage for teachers to be creative and to achieve personal and social goals (Barth. 1990).

Regarding relationship, this finding seemingly resulted from trust. It can be speculated that trust was an important factor in strengthening relationship and performance. Nevertheless, an important part of referent power is trust. Trust is the foundation for cooperation and effective communication which are two essential aspects of teacher empowerment and shared governance (Hipp. 1995; Blasé & Blasé.

2001). In an atmosphere of trust, people work together to identify and solve problems (Blasé & Blasé. 2001; Hallinger. 2003). The nature of referent power lends itself to shared-governance. Successful shared-governance school directors build trust by encouraging openness and facilitating effective communication, and modeling understanding. These behaviors are the cornerstone of trust (Blasé & Blasé. 2001). Furthermore, an environment of trust sets the stage for professionals to reach their full potential in the work place.

In summary, this part was conducted to gain additional information about the relationship between school directors' leadership practice and perceived teachers' observations towards the school directors used of power. The results indicate that school directors and teachers alike need to pay more attention to the relational aspects of schools and leadership. School directors and teachers seemingly need to develop a better understanding of the constraints and challenges facing others. By interacting regularly, engaging in open communications and working side-by-side to resolve issues pertaining to teaching and learning, school directors and teachers alike will gain a deeper respect for one another. Treating others as professionals is the foundation for empowering relationships in schools preparing students to meet the demands of modern-day society.

Reported the Proposed Leadership Model

The goodness-of-fit indices of the structural equation model of the four school directors' leadership behavior dimensions of the current research showed its consistency with the empirical data ($\chi^2 = 215.7$, $df = 386$, $p\text{-value} = 1.000$, $GFI = .934$, $AGFI = .920$, and $RMSEA = .000$). This result can possibly be explained that Cambodian school directors need to not only be effective in discharging the tasks and responsibilities of leadership, but they also need to change their ways of thinking and attitudes to work

collaboratively with others. Duignan (2006) suggests that effective leaders need to redistribute both their responsibilities and their “mindsets” to incorporate others and this is shared by the participants in this study. Although traditional culture acts as a hindrance for providing leadership in schools, many participants saw it as the responsibility of school leaders to break through this reluctance. In the new work style for Cambodian schools, they need to change their “mindsets,” as described by Duigan (2006), into “colleagues” instead of “bosses” and encourage the staff to employ and implement leadership with a sense of mutual responsibility. Also, this finding seems to suggest that Cambodian school leaders think together strategically with “goodness” and “moral courage”, which has significance for the Cambodian way of living along Buddhist principles. This finding is consistent with the research by Hsiao and Chang (2011) which indicated that to be excellent, school directors must also have excellent leadership and management. They also suggested that school directors and teachers in charge of the administration in schools should devote themselves to seeking more effective management. As Dess and Picken (2000) have emphasized, the 21st century environment will require organizations to continuously innovate by harnessing the collective knowledge, skills, and creative efforts of their employees. Leadership behaviors can be an effective part of the response.

Several studies have shown the effective behavior of school leaders, which concentrates on promoting a culture of collegiality and collaboration. Successfully school leaders are seen as those who promote a culture of collegiality, collaboration, support and trust and are influential in professional and community networks (Gurr et al. 2005).

In Sweden, successful school directors are seen as successfully working with changes of school structures, working in teacher teams, and creating a supportive school culture among the teachers (Hoog, Johansson & Olofsson. 2005). In Norway, school leadership is

characterized by collaboration and team efforts based on democratic school directors and values in developing school improvement (Moller et al. 2005).

In addition, some studies have explained the successful traits in different manners. In the United States, a study of Jaconson et al. (2005: 618) showed the necessary practices of school leadership, which are accountability, building a sense of caring into their practice and the school director of learning, which helped to “center” the schools. A study of Gurr, Drysdale and Mulford (2005: 543) shows that the successful school directors’ traits from case studies in Australia can be described as “visionary” or “inspirational”. A study of Nenyod (2002) analyzed the main functions of the school directors as stipulated in the 1999 NEA and found that Thai school director’s essential competencies for the new requirement of education reform can be classified into thirteen domains, which are faith of colleagues, ability for teamwork, intellectual leadership, vision, creativity, good human relationships, knowledge and ability in management, resolve in decision-making and taking responsibility, integrity and transparency, having the attributes of a good coordinator, a democratic outlook, supportive attitudes, and serving as a desirable model.

When taking into account of the goodness-of-fit indices of the structural equation model of the three leadership behavior dimensions of the teachers’ perceptions of school directors’ leadership behaviors, the present investigation revealed its consistency with the empirical data ($\chi^2 = 358.094$, $df = 371$, $p\text{-value} = .67$, $GFI = .944$, $AGFI = .930$, and $RMSEA = .000$). This finding could be attributed to two main reasons. First, Cambodian teachers are believed to be promoted by the support of the school directors because in Cambodian society, power and authority come from bureaucracy and hierarchy. Second, power distance is relatively involved. This feature appears in the high power distance,

which is rooted in Cambodians' behaviors, and is called "listening to the senior." It is consistent with a study by Timperley (2005), which showed that distributive leadership has influence from cultural boundaries.

More interestingly, the finding illustrates the major changes and the key issues affecting Cambodian education and the effects of education reform on school leaders, as well as an emerging perspective on the roles of leaders. It seems that the school directors play the major role in organizational innovation. School directors have important responsibilities and lead their teachers in making changes at schools. Teachers responding to the survey indicated the use of the specific behaviors of their school directors which are geared toward instructional leadership. This could suggest a change from managerial leadership to instructional leadership. These revealed that school directors and teachers also discussed the importance of organizational change in the school system (Kursunoglu & Tanriogen, 2009). Czarnitzki and Kraft (2004) proposed a causal model of transformational leadership as an important influence on organizational innovation. Furthermore, Cohen and Levinthal (1990) pointed out that the leaders should use organizational learning to promote organizational innovation. As the studies of McKee (1992), and Liao and Wu (2010), organizational learning is significantly and positively related to organizational innovation. Weerawardena, O'Cass and Julian (2006) also found that the more organizational learning, the more organizational innovation. This study is in full support of the findings of these previous studies. So, the extent to which these behaviors are being used cannot be derived from the results nor can the researcher determine if the use of the behaviors has created a sustainable or substantial impact.

To summarize, it can be inferred that a successful school depends entirely on effective school leaders. The studies from many countries show that successful leadership

has varied characteristics. In addition, the studies of leadership in Thailand also show some cultures have a strong impact on shaping the leaders' characteristics. It can, therefore, be assumed that there is needed to have continuous development and increasing professional of Cambodia school leaders to make changes to the cultural norm of organizations.

Recommendations

Implications of Research Findings

This research has implications for education in general and high school education in practical. These implications concern two areas: implications for policy markers, and implications for practitioners.

1. Implications for Policy Markers

Overall, these findings can be significant to the professional efficacy of

- 1) Curriculum developers, in regards to incorporating developmentally curricula;
- 2) Professional development facilitators, in regards to providing effective professional development opportunities for school directors; and 3) School directors' candidates in regards to being aware of effective high school directors' leadership behaviors; and/or anyone influential in the shaping of the cognitive perspectives which impact high school directors' leadership behaviors. Also, the change is needed in schools, particularly to enable schools to engage in new activities while bringing forwards traditional academic values and practices, i.e., learning and teaching according to the education Strategic Plan 2009-2013. High schools strengthen themselves in five main ways:

1. Both school directors and teachers should engage in reciprocal shared leadership. They should be shared, exchanged, and learn leadership from each other.

This leadership should be established at all levels of schools will be strengthened and all aspects of schools will progress together effectively. For example, the school directors should share their objectives and vision with teachers. Some suggested activities that school directors may do are as follows: 1) they might appear to other to share their version of the future as their own, 2) they might give the members of the school many opportunities for application and support for their contributions, 3) they might make certain that the project they lead are broken down into manageable steps, 4) they might make sure that people are recognized for their contributions to the success of projects. While school directors are employing their leadership with teachers, teachers are learning leadership from their school directors. Also, as the teachers employ the leadership they have learned from their school directors, the school directors can learn leadership based upon teachers' perspectives while they are working together.

2. Teachers should bring knowledge of new approach and technique in learning and teaching into their classrooms scientifically by doing classroom research while employing the new approaches and techniques. The results of classroom research may be shared with other schools. In doing so, they will adapt, change, and extend themselves out to the environment of the rapidly changing world and achieve high standards and quality in education.

3. School directors should be established in learning and teaching by using the dimension of translating a shared vision into actions, respectively, because learning and teaching are at the heart of education our students. The school directors may also interact closely with teachers by providing and supervising instruction in learning and teaching for teachers. This technique will encourage teachers to bring knowledge of new approaches and techniques in learning and teaching into their classrooms.

4. The schools should continue to provide services and activities. These activities include member services, benefits, in-service education, and publication and public relation.

5. The schools should wish to consider the addition of a new service category. The services and activities within this category would focus on the development of the common interests and needs of contemporary leadership practices issues. The further development of the school directors' leadership practices through the services provided by the institute may include in three dimensions: 1) continuous in-service education programs addressing leadership practice issues, 2) programs accommodate the needs of the school directors caught in the transition of roles designed to develop leadership practices skills, attitudes, and characteristics, and 3) providing a publication which presents current research in the area of school improvement and contemporary leadership practice issues.

2. Implications for Practitioners

The school directors should use the findings from this study to evaluate their own school director's leadership behaviors and try to improve/eliminate their weaknesses. They schools should also equip themselves with characteristics of contemporary leadership practice, seek interests and additional knowledge, and participate in the intensive training in order to exchange experiences and ideas with professional or other successful school directors. The school districts should also mandate ongoing, continues evaluation on the teacher's perception of the school director's leadership behaviors to help ensure school directors understand how their leadership behaviors are perceived.

Often, school directors are introduced to theories in leadership, but there is little information provided to the school directors on their perceived leadership behaviors. The school directors who continue to explore methods to improve their own perceived

leadership behaviors will benefit students and teachers, which, in turn, may improve the academic performance of the school. School directors must cultivate a climate where the teacher's feedback on the perception of the school director's leadership behaviors is welcomed and encouraged. This study will increase the knowledge base of factors predicting perceptions of school director effectiveness in the areas of education program, organizational development, and organizational environment.

The Office of the Public Secondary Education Commission should: 1) promote planning of personnel development in administration in schools, emphasizing the quality of administration. This includes short-term and long-term planning, 2) improve the process of appointment of school directors in public schools. School directors need to be trained before being permitted to take a job or being considered as qualified for a job, 3) work out a plan of personnel development in public schools to increase school effectiveness. To this end, it is the must to coordinate with the public and private sectors in organizing different means to upgrade and update knowledge in their work setting to be able to cope with changes, 4) create situations in which ideas and experiences among administrators, school directors and teachers can be exchanged. It is anticipated that in a high schooling atmosphere, the school directors can increase effectiveness in their administration, and 5) play an important role in the promotion of different means to develop multiple-dimension leadership in administrators.

Recommendations for Further Studies

In considering this study, a variety of additional unanswered questions arose that could be the impetus for further investigations. The following are some suggested research ideas the researcher feels would be of value.

1. Further research should be conducted to determine if the results of this study can be replicated with a large number of participants to confirm the results and to verify the weak points of this study. Studies should be extended to school directors from urban and rural school districts throughout Cambodia to compare the findings with the present study.

2. Additional research of school directors' leadership behaviors should also be conducted in private schools to find out whether the results would be the same or not. Studies are needed on the actual work of school directors; for example, survey studies that report perceptions of teachers must be supplemented with fieldwork studies that make systematic observations of daily work patterns of school directors.

3. Future research should be conducted on the leadership practices of school directors by surveying a wider range of stakeholders such as superintendents, parents, and school supporting staff. Using a 360-degree approach, would offer a greater variety of perspectives regarding school director's leadership behaviors. If perceptions of leadership behavior are more comprehensive, school directors could experience enhanced growth through feedback analysis.

4. Longitudinal and/or mixed-methodology approach should be conducted to provide a more detailed understanding of how school directors perceived leadership behaviors over an extended period of time. Interviews should be utilized to check inaccuracies in data collection due to the survey instrument. The strength of interviews is that subjects can ask questions for clarification and the interviewers can provide explanations.

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