Good schools, bad schools: Principals motivating Lebanese teachers

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Abstract

This research aimed to identify the impact of the Principal's leadership style on teachers' motivation in some Lebanese intermediate public schools. It aimed to reveal those teachers' needs, enabling them to perform professionally. Moreover it sought to find out the extent to which the instructional leadership style had been adopted by the Principals in these schools. A small-scale survey approach was used where a cross-sectional study design was assumed.

By sampling extreme cases (five high-performing schools and five low-performing ones), the researcher was able to reveal the differences that existed in the teachers' attitude towards motivation as well as towards their Principals' leadership styles in the two sets of schools selected. Moreover, it enabled her to identify the different factors that affected the school performance level. To achieve her objective, the researcher triangulated the quantitative data collected from questionnaires administered to 203 teachers, with the qualitative data collected from interviews conducted with twenty teachers using a semi-structured interview schedule.

Teachers at the high-performing schools were found to be significantly more motivated than their colleagues in the low-performing ones by recognition and by the school climate. Teachers reported their need for a higher level of equity to be prevailed among teachers, where high-quality teachers are to be better recognized. However, most of the teachers seemed to be cherishing the job security that the public educational system is offering.

Principals in the schools investigated were found to assume climate-related functions more than the technological ones under the instructional leadership style. Both sets of functions were significantly more performed by the Principals in the high-achieving schools in comparison with the Principals in the low-achieving ones.

The factors that affected the school performance level were teachers' quality and the way they are motivated, the Principal's leadership style, the physical conditions of the school (including the required tools and equipment), as well as the students' SES.

The researcher ended up by recommending the remedies required to keep teachers motivated, and by advancing some strategies to enhance the teaching's quality in Lebanon.

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Chapter One

1. Background to the Development of Effective Schools

Global trends in educational management involve the creation of effective schools. In a competitive market-oriented society, schools, like all organisations, are being forced to produce results through systems of continuous improvement and effective management (Everard and Morris, 1996; Fullan, 1993). Within effective schools, there is a need for productive staff and progressive leadership.

Changes to the culture of work, such as the processes of decision-making, communication, recognition, professionalism, teamwork and personal regard are currently transforming the structure of the school system. They have also given rise to new relationships within school organisations, particularly new models of leadership. These changes reflect a wider and more comprehensive set of values shaping social reality in recent decades and require a different approach to creating educational excellence. New and increasing demands are being placed on educational administrators in that they need to develop new ways of thinking and new strategies (McGaw et al, 1992). New administration, management and leadership skills are also needed (D'Orsa and D'Orsa, 1997). Problems brought about by structural and cultural change are complex and value-laden given the increasing participation of a variety of stake-holders in the educational decision-making process.

The devolution of management responsibility at the school level means that schools are becoming more organisationally demanding (Ainley, 1995). Rising expectations about higher academic standards and the need for the schools to provide a greater variety of social education, coupled with economic and political pressures for efficiency and accountability, add to the already considerable workload on teachers and educational leaders. In the 21st century, special talents and skills will be required for all educators, especially those in leadership positions.

Effectiveness is a central concept in the management of schools and school systems. However, there is no uniform definition of an 'effective school'. Definitions vary depending on the orientation of those examining the issue. For instance, McGaw et al. (1991, p.2) suggest that "[a]n effective school is one that achieves greater student learning than might have been predicted from the context in which it works".

Schooling depends more than ever on the quality and professionalism of teachers. Chrispeels (1996) identifies a number of qualities characteristic of effective schools that were revealed fairly consistently across studies. Typically, these include: clear school mission and strong academic focus; the opportunity to learn and allocate student time on tasks; setting high expectations and positive home-school relations; frequent monitoring of student progress and program effectiveness; and a positive, safe, and orderly learning environment.

Research on school effectiveness indicates trends towards decentralisation and the emergence of the self-managing school (Ainley, 1995). Purkey and Smith (1985) suggest a model for creating an excellent school through the emphasis on first, classroom research on teacher effectiveness; second, research into the implementation of educational innovation; third, research into school organisation which identifies the role of school culture in school improvement; and finally, research into consistency between effective schools and the experiences of practitioners.

A good leader is crucial in creating a vision for the school and encouraging an organisational culture conducive to reflection, criticism, negotiation and compromise (Duignan, 1987; Fullan, 1987). According to Schon (1983, p.165), "successful educational leaders become agents of organisatonal learning". Good leaders also build effective networks and mould the normal interactions of daily school life into dynamic yet focused outcomes. Dimmock (1991, p.160) suggests that "more coordination and control among the elements of a school are a likely consequence of school-based management. Less control from the center might imply more control at the school level".

Therefore, good leadership is vital for two crucial reasons. The first is to implement effective school-level control and vision as well as to enhance teacher motivation. Second, to ensure that the participants in the planning process (such as teachers, parents, and community) are properly informed, do not exert undue influence, have an opportunity to provide feedback and are involved in monitoring and reviewing outcomes.

Wallace (2002) finds that the impact of leadership upon school effectiveness and school improvement is significant; and Leithwood and Jantzi (2000a) argue that this impact is indirect but powerful not only on the effectiveness of the school but on the achievement of students as well.

Research in many parts of the world had demonstrated the connection between the quality of leadership and school effectiveness (Dalin, 1998), (Mortimore et al., 2000; cited in Bush & Jackson, 2002). Moreover the school improvement literature makes similar links between the leadership of the Principal, teachers' motivation and the quality of teaching and learning (Day et al., 2000; Eraut, 1994; Fullan, 1992).

Contiguous with good leadership, an effective school has a thoroughly professional staff who set high but realistic standards, monitor their own effectiveness and are willing to be motivated and innovative. Such teachers are actively involved in whole-school curriculum planning, but develop their own curriculum guidelines. They participate in decisions on which classes they will teach and are consulted on issues affecting school policy. Rowe (1991) argues that effective teachers are organised, methodical, reflective, collaborative and are willing to try new ideas and adapt. As a school's staff is charged with the responsibility for implementing the major curriculum changes and new thrusts in school improvement, it is crucial that they support the values espoused by the school and the school system (cited in McGaw et al., 1992).

There are many issues at the core of managing effective schools. Over the next few years, the agenda will become more demanding. For instance, expectations about producing better outcomes focused on developing 'active' individuals will increase significantly (Whitaker, 1998). Reassessment of organisational processes in order to achieve the optimum in a student's ability to think and learn must be addressed. The

agenda will also consider the special issues behind teachers' motivation. Solutions that work in one situation may not work in another. Johnson (1986) argues that the best ways to motivate teachers have yet to be discovered. Further, he claims that discovering what matters to teachers and how best to motivate them for sustained and improved work is apparently a complicated puzzle, one that has yet to be solved.

In modern, industrialised society, education and schooling play a crucial role in providing a literate and socialised workforce and community. In recent decades, the pace of technological development has considerably expanded theoretical knowledge and practical application to such an extent that different types of organisations and individuals are required to manage new techniques and ideas. The continuous nature of innovation, and consequent change of pace it causes, demands that businesses, social organisations and individuals be very adaptable and able to keep ahead by constant improvement. It also demands that they be prepared to take the necessary steps to achieve success. Educational organisations and educational administrators are a part of this setting.

In order for the contemporary school organisation to provide effective, quality education for the technological and industrial society, educational administrators will need to develop leadership skills to mobilise and motivate people, and to manage physical resources in a dynamic and positive environment. Crowther and Caldwell (1992) argue that leaders need to be creative, innovative, motivated and confident.

Principals need to develop an entrepreneurial spirit and positive political skills (Block, 1987). These skills involve daring to question, to be creative, to be motivated, to be different, to take risks and be lateral thinkers. Sergiovanni (1987) reveals that leaders are initiators of new structures, procedures, and goals. Leadership implies change. He believes leaders are active, influential people who change other peoples' outlooks, moods and expectations. However, Starratt (1993) states that a leader with passion and intensity will risk all in order to achieve his/her goals.

Hallinger (2003) argues that for the long journey of school improvement, school leaders have to develop and expand their leadership repertoires; because this

journey offers a context for the development of new understandings about both leadership and school development. For instance, teachers will be given the opportunity to study, to learn about, to share and to enact leadership (p.340).

The Principal's role in an effective school is to reflect on the changes occurring in wider society as well as in the school, and to turn these changes into challenges and creative opportunities.

Barth (2002, p.6) highlights the Principal's impact on the school's culture; he said that the Principal "can provide forms of leadership that invite others to join as observers of the old and architects of the new. The effect must be to transform what we did last September into what we would like to do next September" (quoted in Hallinger, 2003, p.346-7).

2. Purpose of the study

The study's principal aim is to examine the effects of Principals' leadership styles on teacher motivation, and to identify the motivational strategies, if any being used.

There is insufficient understanding of why some people do not work to their potential and why there seems to be a continuous erosion of motivation. These enigmas about the bases of motivation framed the research problem of this thesis.

This study examined the theoretical bases of motivation and assesses the state of motivation within the special group of schools being investigated. Suggestions were made about particular motivational strategies for the improvement of the educational environment in these schools. It may be possible to generalise the findings for use in a whole range of schools.

This research considered to what extent the teacher, as the deliverer of instruction, is a primary factor in school performance and educational excellence. Educational excellence requires high motivation from all teachers and through motivation; educational organisations can achieve their goals (Levine, 1993). The difference

between an effective school and an ineffective school will depend, to a large part, on how motivated the staff are (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). Successful schools have well-motivated staff who are encouraged to explore new avenues of instruction who welcome change and who desire to grow professionally.

The most important role in a successful and effective school is that of the Principal as staff motivator and catalyst for improvement (Louis and Miles, 1990; Leithwood, 1992). To be effective motivators, school administrators must know, and be able to utilise, the fundamental theories and strategies of motivation. Therefore, the study aims to examine the effects of the Principal's leadership skill on teacher motivation, and to identify the motivational strategies, if any, being used by the Principals in the selected schools. Everard and Morris (1996) argue that in motivating people, leaders should be concerned with the needs and potential of three parties. These are the group being managed, the individuals who make up that group, and the clients of the school or other organisation. Such knowledge will help administrators to introduce or enhance motivational strategies that will have maximum impact on staff performance.

Moreover, this research aimed to identify those factors leading to a high or a low level of school performance by putting light on the differences that might arise in teachers' motivation, the Principal's leadership style as well as other issues affecting performance.

The objective of this study was to collect data enabling the researcher to answer the following research questions:

1- What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?
2- What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?
3- What Principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by school Principals to improve teacher motivation?

4- What are the factors affecting the school performance level?

Thus, the objective of this research was to provide Principals as well as policy makers the opportunity of acquiring a better understanding of all aspects of their own practice especially the leadership style adopted in given circumstances and its consequences on teachers' motivation. Moreover, this research highlighted the teachers' needs in the Lebanese public schools that, when fulfilled, lead to higher and better level of performance. Indeed, effective schools, especially in the public sector, are badly needed in Lebanon. First, because of the long war period Lebanon had experienced that had led to the physical and psychological deterioration of these schools. Second, the public or state schools are badly needed nowadays, when parents are unable to afford the tuition fees of the private schools in these too bad economic conditions Lebanon is passing through.

There are three major assumptions underlying the problem of teacher motivation to be researched in this study. First, that leadership style is indispensable for motivating teachers. Second, that teacher motivation is an important concept in the schools in the study and, therefore, there is a need to better explore it, and finally, that schools' Principals in the study consciously employ strategies to motivate their teachers.

3. Significance of the Study:

The significance of this study came to be in its originality in the Lebanese market, a market that hungers for research in general and for topics in educational management in particular. The researcher wanted to put light on an issue somehow neglected in education and on the importance of such a major, somehow absent in the Lebanese universities. Also, its significance was reflected in its findings that might trigger the motive of interested researchers to undertake further studies, starting from where the researcher here had reached. Consequently, a greater body of research will be available guiding the decisions of those policy makers, and hence working towards the improvement of education by improving and sustaining effective schools.

The study is concerned with the effects of the Principal's leadership style on teacher motivation and the identification of motivational strategies in the Lebanese public schools. The outcomes of this study may prove to be significant for education providers who are involved in developing and maintaining top quality staff, and the management of effective schools.

Results from this study could help Principals in the schools investigated understand their personal leadership style by reflecting on the results, and the impact of their style on the perceived motivation of teachers. It may also assist the policy makers to nominate or evaluate the Principals in their schools, considering the findings and recommendations of this study. This would hopefully benefit the schools, teachers, parents and students.

The study also provides crucial information that might be beneficial to education providers in the selection of Principals for schools undergoing restructuring. Restructuring increases the need for schools to be led by Principals who understand how to create quality change and who are not only self-empowered, but also can create a climate conductive to the motivation of others (Norris, 1994).

Improving at times of rapidly changing educational and societal circumstances will increase school variability substantially because of the ways in which the schools will differ markedly in their ability to cope with rapid, externally induced changes (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). This contemporary situation intensifies the need for schools to be led by Principals who are capable of dealing with the culture of schools as well as with their structure. They must deal with the deep structure of values, motivation, relationships and interpersonal process, as well as with the world of behaviour. School improvement practitioners should consider the crucial factor of teacher motivation that lies behind successful improvement.

Schools could use this information to design training programs that could more effectively develop Principals' awareness and skills by matching leadership style to different situations and cultures, and by enabling those Principals to understand the motives behind effective teachers' performance. Consequently, they will be able to enhance their teachers' motivation.

Furthermore, the cross-sectional study design adopted in this study, enabling the researcher to test her research questions in two different sets of schools (high-performing vs. low-performing), increased the significance of this research. This significance was seen in the results that highlighted the factors that affected school performance. These factors dealt with the Principal's leadership style, teachers' motivation and other issues such as students SES, teachers' quality, and the schools' physical conditions. The Lebanese Ministry of Education might end up using these findings to ameliorate the educational public system in general, and to set short-term and long-term strategies to make all the public schools, high-performing schools.

Finally, findings from this study indicate strategies which, when applied, may help to improve teacher motivation, to assist the improvement of school leaders and enhance the school's educational environment.

4. Research methodology:

The development of a theoretical framework for the topic under investigation, and due to the deficiencies of the managerial system of the education in Lebanon, the researcher adopted a cross-sectional study design. Under such a design, the researcher got answers to the research questions she has set and tested them under two extreme groups, where one group involves the best five intermediary public schools, and the second group involves five bad ones.

Semi-structured interviews as well as self-completion questionnaires and attitude scales were data-gathering techniques used in this study. Thus, data analysis was based on a mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence. Here the issue of triangulation, one of the approaches used to ensure the trustworthiness of the study, was well respected.

To secure content validity in the instruments administered to teachers, theoretical support was sought from the pertinent literature and technical evaluation from the pilot study.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 11, was used to code and analyze the data collected from questionnaires.

Then, by cross-tabulating interview data alongside questionnaire data, the researcher had a means of validating results. Seale (1999) argues that the insistence on artificial division "between data expressed in words and data expressed in numbers damages rather than enhances the quality of social research" (p.102). All these issues had been discussed, in depth, in the research methodology chapter.

5. Context of the study

5.1. Education in Lebanon: from history to current situation

The establishment of confessional schools in semi-autonomous Mount Lebanon more than one century ago gave Lebanon's present educational system a predominant confessional character. Public schools in the semi-autonomous Mount Lebanon were almost entirely absent. Before World War I, it had only one public school (Mathews and Akrawi, 1949). However, areas outside the present Lebanese territories, which were parts of the vilayets of Beirut and Damascus and subject to the direct rule of the Ottoman government, had public schools administrated by *Nizam Al Maarif Al Uthmani* (Ottoman Ministry of Education) (Abu Mrad, 1985). These schools formed the nucleus of the current Lebanese public schools when the former Ottoman regions were annexed to Mount Lebanon by the French mandatory authorities in 1920.

Following the establishment of the Lebanese Republic in 1926, Lebanon had few public schools. Currently, schools in Lebanon can be categorized under two types: private both philanthropic and foreign and public (state schools) (Bashshur, 1988).

Public schools are the non-fee paying schools, and the private ones are of two styles: private fee-paying and private subsidized by the government. The administration of public schools is centralized and is entrusted to the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts (Legislative Decree number 10832, October 9, 1962). On the other hand, private schools which were the largest group of schools before independence in 1943, are run either by confessional communities, or private association and individuals (Article 10 of the Lebanese Constitution, May 23,1926 and Decrees number 7962 May 1, 1931 and 7000 October 1, 1946).

Following the collapse of the Ottoman Empire in World War I, Lebanon was put under the French Mandate in 1918. General Gouraud, the High French commissioner to Lebanon and Syria, established Greater Lebanon by annexing territories to Mount Lebanon in 1920. These territories were economically disadvantageous and included a majority of non-Christians and few public schools which were established by the Ottoman Empire during its rule of the Levant. As a result, the number of non-Christians mostly poor increased and poor public schools were juxtaposed alongside the well-established private ones both confessional and foreign. Following the establishment of Greater Lebanon in 1920, the newborn country consisted of different geographical regions characterized by economic disparities and confessional polarisation.

Public schools attracted Muslim students from the underprivileged areas of the annexed territories in the south, north and the Bekaa plain. This type of school started to grow shortly before Lebanon gained its independence in 1943. However, despite their growth, they did not outnumber the private confessional and foreign schools which were well established since the commencement of missionary education following the capitulation of 1535. Moreover, the rate of enrolment in public schools did not surpass that of the private ones because they did not have secondary schools (Bashshur, 1988), and its elementary and intermediate schools which were founded by the Ottoman authorities were deteriorated and corrupted (Szyliowicz, 1973).

Following independence of Lebanon in 1943, many changes took place at the educational policy level, of which the most important were to Arabise the curriculum,

exercise governmental control over private schools and empower the public sector of education.

The new Lebanese government set out to eliminate the imprints of the French Mandate which officially prevailed for about 25 years (from 1918 till 1943) in almost all spheres of the country's administrative and political institutions. As a result, the government removed the French supervision and inspection scheme of private schools both national and foreign. Section 18 of Decree number 1436 dated March 23, 1950 stipulated that all private schools both foreign and national are subjected to the supervision of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts.

On January 16, 1958, inspection was no longer the direct responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, instead, it was assigned to the arbiters of the various Lebanese regions by legacy of Decree number 2869 Section 40 which established what was referred to as "Educational Regions" in which the *Muhafiz* (Arbiter) of each *Muhafaza* (Region) represented the Ministry of Education, inspected public schools and supervised the private ones. In 1959 the inspection body of the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts was replaced by a central inspection commission which operated under the aegis of the Chamber of Ministries whose task was to supervise the public sector solely (Abu Mrad, 1982).

Despite the reluctance of the government to inspect private schools, it is to be noted however, that during Lebanon's economic boom in the early 1950s and late 1960s, the government lost interest in private schools and focused on the improvement of its own educational institutions which resulted in a growth of public schools within a policy of reform and national integration.

The process of expansion of public schools started at a more rapid rate than private schools between 1945-48 (CERD, 1974), due to the government's vigorous policies to increase the number of public schools (Abu Rjeili, 1985). The first school established by the government with a full programme which included the upper secondary level was in 1959 (Bashshur, 1988).

A full Lebanese schooling programme includes primary, intermediate and secondary levels. The primary level extends from nursery till grade five. The intermediate level extends from grade six till grade nine. Grade nine is also called 'Brevet', at the end of which all Lebanese students have to succeed in official examinations held by the government, enabling them to pass to the secondary level. In the secondary level, a student spends normally three academic years. The first year is for the 'first secondary', the second year is for the 'second secondary' traditionally known as 'Baccalaureate I'; and the third year is for the 'third secondary' traditionally known as 'Baccalaureate II'. At the end of this third year, students have to sit again for the official examinations. Their success in these examinations allows them to join the university. Students at this level are normally eighteen years old.

The over all expansion rate of schools in Lebanon including public, foreign and private reached its zenith in the mid-1960s and early 1970s. But the government failed to extend its health, educational and agricultural services into the underprivileged regions of the country, namely, the Bekaa plain, the south and the north.

On the eve of the war (early 1976), a series of dramatic political events took place in Lebanon. These events coincided with the growth of schools in general and public ones in particular, though riddled with inequalities and economic disparities between and within regions. Education was placed at the center of two diametrically opposed positions. The first aimed to reform education and improve public schools within a motive to promote national integration, and the second strove to deepen the country's internal politico-economic contradictions.

Undertaking the fundamental task of educational reform, the government established the Center for Educational Research and Development (CERD) by virtue of Legislative Decree number 1637 dated August 11, 1971. It was granted certain educational responsibilities such as revising the curriculum, publishing educational material and conducting educational research. In addition, a public school-building project was approved by the government after receiving financial support from the World Bank in 1971 (Abu Rjeili, 1985) and governmental allocations for education

rose from 13% in the late 1940s to 20% during the country's economic boom (CERD, 1975).

Despite the vigorous policies of the government to improve the public sector of education, the reforms came late because many confessional communities had already started a process of branching out their own philanthropic schools to the underprivileged regions which did not receive adequate governmental help in health and education.

It was noted that public schools must be established in places where they are not found, so that they may accommodate all children; in particular those in the deprived regions of the country (Al Nahar newspaper, March 31, 1973).

In connection with public schools, the war led to the destruction of many school buildings. The fact that many public schools were damaged resulted in them occupying rented premises which were quite unsuitable for teaching, lacked educational facilities and recreational areas. The Council for Development and Reconstruction (CDR 1996, p.21) estimated that 86% of public and intermediate schools were not in purpose built accommodation during the war and school buildings were used for a double teaching shift per day (Abu Rjeili, 1985). In addition, many public schools were occupied by displaced people and vandalised by militia men. At the administrative level, the Ministry of Education was unable to control teachers' attendance in the public sector of education as many of its administrative buildings were either damaged or occupied. The resultant severe damage of public schools decreased the rate of enrolment in almost all educational cycles with the exception of the secondary one, whose student numbers decreased only during the Israeli invasion of Lebanon in 1982.

The fact that there was one teacher per 10 students in the public sector during the war (Abu Rjeili, 1985) placed a burden on the government's budget for education, since 67% of education funding went on teachers' salaries (CERD, 1996). In addition, governmental allocations for education dropped down from its 22.1% in 1974 to 14% in 1983 (Ministry of Education and Fine Arts, 1984). This budgetary decrease coincided with an annual increase in educational costs such as educational

equipment, teachers' salaries and miscellaneous by 14.2% from 1971 throughout 1980 in the pre-primary, primary and intermediate cycles, and by 21% in the secondary one (CERD, 1983). The public sector of education was further exacerbated by lack of governmental control over the national examinations and constant changing of examination policies which gave preferential treatment to students enrolled in private schools.

The accomplishment of the educational tasks of the Ta'ef (i.e. a meeting held in Saudi Arabia by all the deputies, in 1989, resulting in an agreement to terminate the war and to make some changes in the Lebanese Constitution) necessitated an agency to develop a new educational system which patterns after the new Constitution. These tasks were assigned to the Center for Educational Research and Development (CERD) in 1993. As a result, it developed a comprehensive educational plan which received the go ahead by the Chamber of Ministers in August 17, 1994 within a governmental economic policy, Horizon 2000. Under the mandate of the government's reconstruction plan for Lebanon, Horizon 2000, many public schools were rehabilitated.

Despite the vigorous policies of rehabilitation and building up schools by the government, its share of enrolment did not increase ranging between 32.72% and 30.03% throughout the period between 1992-95. To elaborate, the total number of students in all schools and levels during the academic year 1992/93 was 733,228 students of whom 32.72% were enrolled in the public sector, 14.43% in the private subsidized and 51.85% in the private fee-paying (CERD, 1993). This means that public schools share of enrolment which remained at the 40% mark before the war decreased to 32.72% after. During the 1993/94 academic year the number of students decreased to 770,599, of whom 30.60% enrolled in the public sector, 14.88% in the private subsidized and 54.52% in the private fee-paying schools (CERD, 1994). In the academic year 1994/95 the number of students increased to 799,903 of whom 30.03% were in public schools, 13.99% in subsidised and 55.98% in the fee-paying schools (CERD, 1995).

Figures on student distribution by region (CERD, 1996) show that enrolment rate in the public schools in the north, south and the Bekaa plain in general is higher than

students' enrolment rate in Beirut and Mount Lebanon in the same category of school. On the contrary, student enrolment in the private sector in Mount Lebanon and Beirut is higher than student enrolment rates in the Bekaa, north and south Lebanon in the same type of schools.

Families in the poor regions of Lebanon, for whatever reason, seem to be more inclined to enroll their children in the public sector than those of Mount Lebanon and Beirut who cherish private education. Despite the fact that public schools in Lebanon outnumber the private ones, the highest percentage of student enrolment in schools in Lebanon lies in the private schools, both subsidized and fee-paying. This could be attributed to the shortage of well-equipped public schools as well as to the lack of secondary ones especially in the remote areas (CERD, 1996).

5.2. Poverty and characteristics of the poor in Lebanon:

Reliable data are not available to make accurate estimates of the poverty line or the number of individuals and families living in poverty in Lebanon. However, partial and unofficial information points to considerable variations in the spread of poverty among regions and sectors (UNDP, 1997). Poverty appears to be concentrated mainly among agricultural families and those whose main provider is employed in the public administration. Also many of the poor live in the suburbs of the capital and other cities. Those who are extremely poor live mostly in rural areas; abject poverty is found mostly in the remote regions of Akkar (North Lebanon), Baalbeck, and Hermel (Bekaa Region). The rest of the wretched poor are believed to live in the suburbs of the capital and other cities.

The areas where the poor live, especially in cities, are overcrowded and suffer from the effects of random urbanization, scarcity of green space, the accumulation of garbage near houses, and lack of sewerage systems or their intermixing with water distribution networks. Furthermore, some of the houses where the poor live are lacking in maintenance and badly deteriorated, even often partially damaged due to neglect or as result of the war.

It is estimated that no less than 65% of the Lebanese labor force is dependent on wages and salaries, or similar forms of compensation, for their livelihood. Over the last decade, the real value, or purchasing power, of wages and salaries deteriorated sharply. In constant prices, the minimum wage in 1992 was only 30% of its 1974's value. Social benefits and allowances (family and health) were similarly hit by inflation. This situation has been aggravated by the fact that a large segment of the labor force is not covered by any form of insurance which, in any case, does not provide unemployment benefits.

The level of educational attainment among the poor, men and women alike, is low. Only a minority among heads of poor households received secondary or higher education (with the exception of public administration employees), or proper vocational training.

The high national enrollment ratio at the elementary level implies that poor families, in general, send their children to school. However, the enrollment ratio is expected to be lower for the poor, as may be deduced indirectly from such phenomena as the increase of child labor. The fact that the number of public schools in poor districts is not adequate adds to the pressure on the poor who have little choice other than enrolling their children in free-of-charge schools, or schools affiliated to sectarian associations and institutions. Hence, the main problem lies in the low quality of education accessible to the poor, the high drop-out rates, and the reduced number of students who pass to higher levels. The chances that students attending private elementary schools reach university level are estimated between three and five to one compared to students of public elementary education.

Plans and statements had been set by the Lebanese government showing its intention to deal with the problems in the system of education, and to develop its potential to enable it to make a better contribution to sustainable human development and cope with the challenges of the times. An important programme relating to the plan to revive the sector of education was included in Horizon 2000 for Development and Reconstruction. This programme concentrates on public education and the development of its infrastructure, implying a policy that aims to improve the absorptive capacity of the public education sector. Of the eight projects included in

the plan, only one (10 million US$) is concerned with improving the quality of education; the remaining seven projects deal with construction and equipment.

Other aspects of education (teachers, curricula, books, etc.) are provided for in the plan to revive education in the public sector, which is the responsibility of the Center of Education for Research and Development. The plan, which was approved by the Council of Ministers on 17 August 1994, comprises a nine-year expenditure programme for the Center covering education reform, including the following components: school administration, curricula, books, teaching techniques, training of instructors, school buildings, specialized education, youth and sports activities, educational services, an information and guidance related to education.

The introduction of a new programme structure at the beginning of 1996 was the first important step in the implementation of the Education Recovery Plan. The plan aims to achieve universal elementary education and provide for mandatory education of children aged between six and twelve years; for automatic promotion from the first three elementary grades. The students' automatic promotion law is spelled out in Decree number 10227, dated 8-5-1997 that defined the new curriculum and its objectives within the process of school restructuring in Lebanon. It includes one item describing the students' automatic promotion law that states that students are to be promoted to the next grade regardless of their performance and achievement, given they are in Grade one, Grade two or Grade three. If they are in Grades four, five or six, they will be entitled to pass to the next grade once they achieve an average of 9.5 over 20. The normal passing average for other grades is 10 over 20.

The plan also sets new objectives that stress skills and civic values, and provides for the teaching a second foreign language, artistic and sport activities, and computer training. The new structure has made it possible to introduce new curricula.

5.3. The different problems facing the teaching profession in Lebanon:

Teaching is a profession, it is the mother profession that gives birth and prepares individuals to undertake other professions required to assume the new

responsibilities imposed by the third millennium. Consequently, the teacher seems to be key element in this operation. The Center of Education for Research and Development paid attention to this issue. Thus, it started to implement the Educational Recovery Plan in 1997.

The researcher found it necessary to look at the current situation of the Lebanese teaching profession in order to find out the context in which her study was taking place, enabling her to better understand the conditions that shaped her findings.

5.3.1. The profession status:

Some statistics supplied by the CERD (2000) show that the percentage of part-timers, in the public as well as in the private sector, is high. This high percentage is not a healthy indicator (table 1.1); and it is more severe in the secondary schools where 2,767 full-timers teach in parallel with 4,632 part-timers. Those 4,632 part-timers correspond to 2,126 full-timers (if we assume the number of hours to be supplied by one full-timer), which means that half the secondary schools are bearing the expenses of part-time, morally unsecured teachers.

Thus, those teachers do not feel that they belong to the teaching body, but they consider what they are doing as just a bridge to reach job security somewhere else, not necessary in education and teaching. Moreover, those part-timers are excluded from any training program and academic development. Thus, there is a necessity to fill in this gap by appointing new full-timers in order to maintain the good standard the secondary schools are achieving.

Table 1.1: Allocation of full-time, part-time and other teachers over the public & private sectors for the year 2000.

School type	Full - timers		Part - timers		Others (clergy)	
	number	percentage	number	percentage	number	percentage
Public sector	27,007	74.62%	8,625	23.83%	560	1.54%
Private sector	25,715	60.61%	16,038	37.8%	670	1.57%

5.3.2. The average number of students per one teacher:

The goodwill the secondary public schools are gaining in the Lebanese market and the bad economic conditions the parents are suffering from, have led to an increase in the number of students enrolled in the public schools versus a decrease in the number of students enrolled in the private (fee paying) schools, (Table 1.2).

Table 1.2: Allocation of students over the public & the private schools for the 2 academic years: 1998-1999 and 1999-2000.

School type	Academic Year 1998-1999	Academic Year 1999-2000	Difference
Public Schools	320,936 students	332,522 students	+ 11,586
Private Schools	550,645 students	544,598 students	- 6,047

This development is still following the same trend due to the absence of any change in the Lebanese conditions (Sanjakdar, 2001). This increase in enrollment in the public schools raises the question about the fairness of the average number of students per one teacher. Statistics shows that this number is 9.18 students per teacher in the public sector and it is 12.83 in the private one (CERD, 2000).

These numbers are accurate in terms of statistics, but they are unrealistic (Sanjakdar, 2001). Sanjakdar (2001) estimates that the realistic numbers are around 15 students per teacher in the private schools and on average more than 30 students per teacher in the public ones, given that this 30 may reach the 45 in cities and big villages. The discrepancy between the statistical figures and the estimated realistic ones is attributed to many reasons.

First, the majority of the part-timers are supplying the schools with few hours only, thus their inclusion in the computation of the average number of students per teacher understates the result.

Second, individuals who undertake managerial duties in the public schools belong to the faculty of the school in contrast with their colleagues in the private sector where they belong to the staff of the school. Thus, statisticians end up using the gross number of public schools' teachers in their data, when the effective number is much smaller. Twenty percent of the overall number of teachers in the public sector assumes managerial duties, thus they do not teach. For instance, there are 3,492 teachers in the secondary public schools, out of which 733 perform managerial duties (Ministry of Education, 2000-2001).

Third, there are 44 public schools with less than 25 students and 50 ones with total student numbers ranging from 25 to 50 students. Those schools employ a big number of teachers relative to the number of students available, thus understating the overall actual student ratio per teacher. Those schools are causing problems to the Lebanese educational authorities, but they cannot be closed because they are secured by the politicians in the regions to which they belong. A few number of these schools are shown in table 1.3.

Fourth, the Lebanese war had a great impact on emigrating a big number of the Lebanese, including teachers who left the dangerous regions and joined the safer ones and their schools that ended up with a surplus of teachers.

Table 1.3: some Lebanese public schools with a very low number of students.

Name of the school	Number of students	Number of teachers
School of Beit Chlala	11	13
School of Selaata	18	14
School of Berhalioun	10	11
School of Sarira	4	4
School of Kfarhaouna	13	20

Since the outbreak of the war in 1975, and up to its end in 1990; 810,000 citizens (around 28% of the resident population) were affected by waves of forced displacement. With the cessation of military operation, some 450,000 persons were still displaced comprising 90,000 families, of which 70,000 could be considered

genuinely concerned. Among these, 45,000 families were occupying other people's homes and another 12,000 were living in very poor conditions and accommodation. Prolonged displacement cannot be explained entirely in terms of the inability of families, for security reason, to return to the places where they lived before the war. Economic and social considerations have played a role in determining the pace of return. Displacement produced large-scale demographic shifts resulting in partial segregation on religious/sectarian basis. Moreover, it led to the deterioration of conditions affecting education among others (Ministry for the Displaced, 1992; cited in UNDP, 1997).

After 20 years, it seems difficult to reallocate this surplus of teachers over the deprived areas. The reason is that those teachers got used to their place of work and they are not still young to be ready for this change.

5.3.3. Teachers' academic qualification:

Teachers' academic qualification measures the degree to which teachers are teaching courses or subjects they have been specialized in and studied themselves. Unfortunately 52.68% of the Lebanese teachers (both in the public and the private sectors) are of a Baccalaureate II level (the last year in the secondary school) and below, showing their deficiency in satisfying the teaching requirements (CERD, 2001).

As for the teachers' educational upgrading, enabling teachers to use the appropriate educational means in delivering the message to the students, 2.62% of the Lebanese teachers hold a teaching diploma (they are university graduates) and 12.43% hold a special Lebanese teaching degree enabling them to teach in the primary and intermediate schools (they are graduated from Dar al-Moalemeen). Given that the total is 15.05%, this percentage is very low in addition to being useless, because, even those teachers are to be upgraded once again to cope with the educational changes imposed by the new curriculum implemented (CERD, 2001).

Consequently, the Lebanese educational authorities assumed that all the teachers are to be upgraded. However these upgrading sessions were held in the summer or in a vacation, thus teachers felt exhausted and not motivated to attend; this in turn diminished the effectiveness of their learning.

Teachers' age is to be taken into consideration in assessing their abilities, willingness and readiness to learn new things. It is hard to train and update the skills of a teacher who is in the 50s. 21.4% of the Lebanese teachers in the public sector are above 50 years old. Upgrading their skills seems somehow impossible or at least a very hard mission (CERD, 2001).

One of the reasons behind this considerable percentage of elderly teachers could be the absence of 'Dar al-Moalemeen' sessions in the period between 1985 and 1994 (table 1.4), noting that the number of graduates in year 1985 was only 216 teachers. Moreover, the number of teachers graduated in years 1999 and 2000 amounted to 797 only. Those teachers were specialized in music, drawings and physical education; and were targeted to the primary education (table 1.5). The sessions of 1994 and 2002 graduated a greater number of teachers for both primary and intermediate schooling, with more specializations. However, the Lebanese intermediate public schools are still in need for around 5,500 teachers; the president of the CERD revealed this fact while discussing this issue with her.

Table 1.4: Number of teachers graduated from Dar al-Moalemeen from 1975 till 2002.

year	1975	1977	1978	1980	1981	1983	1985	1994	1999	2000	2002
Teachers' number	708	1,460	943	875	1,087	1,448	216	1,971	392	405	907

Table 1.5: Classes of Dar al-Moalemeen and their specializations over the last four sessions.

year	Specialization for primary teaching	Specialization for intermediary teaching
1994	General, French, English, Nursery.	Sciences, Maths.
1999	Music & Drawings, Physical Education.	none
2000	Music & Drawings, Physical Education.	none
2002	General, French, English, Nursery.	Sciences, Maths, French, English.

5.3.4. The deterioration of the financial and social standing of the Lebanese teacher:

In the past and up to early 1980s, the Lebanese teacher enjoyed an excellent financial and social standing. Some historical figures clarify this idea: in 1955, the deputy salary was 545 Lebanese pounds; the teacher's salary was 505 Lebanese pounds; and the engineer's salary was 480 L.P. The teacher's salary was 93% of the deputy's salary, thus occupying an excellent rank in comparison with the other professions in Lebanon. However this situation does not hold anymore, because the current teacher's salary account for only 8% of the deputy's salary. It seems that the increase in the teacher's salary over the years did not go proportionally with the increase in other professions' salaries. This fact had a negative impact on the good social standing, the teacher was previously enjoying. Consequently, outstanding students are currently not motivated to join teaching.

5.3.5. Principalship in Lebanon:

Recently the issue of educational management in general and the school management in particular is considered a hot topic in most of the Arab countries. This is seen in the numerous seminars and conferences for educational restructuring and development, and the projects and recommendations that came out focusing on improving the managerial side as a way to end up with an effective educational system ready to cope with the social change caused by the fast and tremendous

advancement in computer, technology and communication. This advancement has shaped the understandings of the managerial educational system in Lebanon that adopted a traditional and rigid style.

Few years ago and the Lebanese Ministry of education is working hard to improve the educational sector through an overall educational plan named the Educational Recovery Plan as within the Horizon 2000 for Development and Reconstruction.

In 1998, the Center of Education for Research and Development (CERD) started the implementation of the new curriculum that finished in 2001. Currently it is in the process of evaluating the results and consequences of implementing this curriculum as well as the major problems that hindered its effective implementation.

However, modest efforts only dealt with the managerial system inside the school that badly needs restructuring and renewal in order to facilitate the adaptation of the new curriculum and its evolution.

By looking at the different decrees describing the job of the Principal in the Lebanese public schools, one can discover the rigid and traditional duties that the Principal is supposed to perform preventing him/her from being creative in playing the leadership role required for an effective school management. The Principal performs routine duties such as students' registration, defining the number of sections for each class, preparing teachers' schedules, controlling their presence in the school and reporting their absences. The Principal does not possess the privilege of selecting the teachers for his/her school. The centralization between the school and the higher educational authorities hinders to a certain degree the Principal's effective performance. A list of the different functions performed by the Principal in a Lebanese public school follows, he/she:

- Implements the policies set by the Ministry of Education regarding the different schooling activities given that he/she is always updated with the newly emerged issues.

- Informs teachers with what is expected from them and controls them all the way long.
- Attends classes to check teachers' performance and the extent to which the required teaching methodologies are being implemented.
- Checks regularly three different notebooks for each course in each class: 1- the teacher's preparation notebook, 2- the rolling notebook (a notebook that rolls on among students where everyday one student writes on it all the materials explained by the teacher and the problems solved as well), 3- the students' personal notebooks.
- Prepares the monthly teachers' payroll detailing the working days for each teacher, attaching with it any excuse submitted by the teacher who was forced to miss one or more working days (due to sickness, death in the family, or others). Three copies of this payroll are prepared: one sent to the educational inspection body, one sent to the director of the educational area in which the school operates; and one kept in the school's archives. These payrolls help determining if any amount is to be deducted from a teacher's salary, and compute the number of working days for each teacher, based on which the teacher is allowed to cash the transportation allowance.
- Prepares the yearly financial budget at the beginning of each academic year, where he/she spells out in details the expected expenditures to run the normal activities in the school including for instance the electricity expense, maintenance expense, stationary expense and others. This budget is to guide the Principal in the monthly expenditures after being approved by the director of the educational area.
- Renews and improves the school's assets from the school's cash fund.
- Asks for funds from the municipality of the village or the city in which the school operates.
- Organizes educational trips for the students (visits to museums, special scientific exhibitions).
- Reports to the director of the educational area his/her need for a teacher for a particular subject, given that he/she can suggest a name.
- Suggests names out of the current teachers for the appointment of a supervisor for his/her school, but the final formal decision remains in the

Minister of Education's hands. (A supervisor here means a person who helps the Principal in the proctoring and administrative work).

To achieve these objectives, the Principal has to be present daily at the opening and the closing hours of the school. He/she is allowed to be out of the school for one hour and a half daily but to be taken from within the working hours. Thus, he/she is considered as a school keeper who proctors all what happens inside the school in order to submit detailed reports to the higher authorities in the Ministry of Education.

It is worth noting that the appointment of the Principals is based on political and personal criteria rather than on scientific and specific ones. Decree number 14 of the schools' internal bylaws is always subject to changes in order to fit the politicians' desires. Thus, there is no clear description of the characteristics required for a person to fit this post.

Moreover, the current Principals in the Lebanese pubic schools do not hold any degree in educational management. In Lebanon, like in most of other Arab countries, there is an absence of a faculty that offers programmes in educational management enabling graduates to undertake the managerial task in the schools. Faculties of education are graduating teachers and not Principals. Thus, the selection of a given Principal is being made from the faculty members available. After that, this newly appointed Principal might attend a seminar or a training session for his/her newly assigned managerial duties. Statistics shows that 90.4% of the Principals in the Lebanese public schools did not attend any training program (CERD, 1999).

However, in summer 1998 the CERD held the first sessions to introduce the new curriculum and to train teachers to apply it. Teachers at that time revealed their worries about the extent to which their Principals are convinced with and will show understandings to the new curriculum and will provide support to the teachers while implementing it. Consequently the CERD asked the Principals to accompany the teachers to the training sessions. After that, the CERD organized three different training sessions for the Principals. Each session was for three days and dealt with different issues. The first session was held during the academic year 1999-2000 and took into account three major topics: 1- innovation in the teaching methodologies, 2-

the necessity of continuous upgrading for the teachers' skills, including the selection mode of those teachers who have to attend the training sessions held and 3- the way the meetings must be managed including the necessity to invite teachers to participate in the decision-making process and to create a teamwork spirit. The second session was held in summer 2002 and took into account the following issues: the educational supervision over teachers' performance, conflict resolution and time management. The third session was held in summer 2003. It discussed the school's policies and spelled out the students' and the Principal's duties (CERD, 2004).

In assessing the effectiveness of these sessions, the CERD (2004) questioned the following: will the Principal's performance be really affected by these sessions? What are the factors and the conditions facilitating or hindering this effective performance? Is it possible to train Principals in the absence of a project working towards making principalship a profession and granting the Principal all the rights allowing him/her to exercise this profession?

Additional statistics about some biographical variables were deemed necessary to better understand the conditions of principalship in the Lebanese public schools. Table 1.6 shows the distribution of the Principals in the Lebanese public schools according to their academic degrees, and table 1.7 shows their distribution according to the teaching diplomas they hold (CERD, 1999).

Table 1.6: Principals' distribution according to their academic degrees.

degree	PhD	Master	BA	Dar al-Moalemeen	Bacc.II	Bacc.I	Brevet	Others
percentage	1.1%	12.7%	31.3%	0.9%	40.8%	3.5%	8.8%	0.9%

There are 1275 Principals in the Lebanese public schools, accounting for the 58.3 % of the total Lebanese Principals. Their distribution according to the different age groups is shown in Table 1.8.

Table 1.7: Principals' Distribution according to their teaching diplomas.

degree	percentage
Do not hold a teaching diploma	84.3%
A qualification from Dpt of Education	0.2%
Dar al-Moalemeen	0.9%
BT (Nursing)	14.4%
others	0.2%
total	100%

Table 1.8: Principals' distribution according to different age groups.

Age Group	Percentage
Less than 30 years	0.8%
31 to 40 years	13.8%
41 to 50 years	48.4%
51 to 60 years	31.7%
Over 60 years	5.3%
Total	100%

5.3.6. The physical conditions of the Lebanese public schools:

In a study about teachers' motivation, it is highly important to look at the physical working conditions that might have a great impact on teachers' performance. The tables, shown in Appendix C:1, are supplied by the Center of Education for Research and Development and show up to date statistics about the current and accurate physical conditions of the schools where the teachers in the public sector perform their teaching duties.

Table 1 shows the distribution of the 761 Lebanese intermediate public schools over the different Lebanese regions called Mouhafaza. 31% of these schools are found in the north region and this is the highest percentage. It is followed by 19.7% for the 'Al-Bekaa' region, 17% for 'Mount Lebanon', 10.5% for the south, 9.7% for the 'Nabatie',

8.3% for the suburbs of Beirut, and finally the lowest percentage is for Beirut and it is 3.8%.

In looking at the number of buildings per one school, table 2 shows that 82% of the Lebanese intermediate public schools are occupying one building, 14% are occupying two buildings, 3% are occupying three buildings and 1% are occupying four buildings. These statistics show that the school operations are not always centered in one building.

Moreover, these buildings are not always designed to fit the school activities as some of the Lebanese public schools have been rented from individuals or municipalities who constructed them originally to fit a residential need. Table 3 shows that 68% of the Lebanese intermediate public schools show a school-based architecture, 31% show a house-based architecture and the remaining 1% have an unidentified architecture.

Concerning the population density, the noise and the pollution in the school's surrounding, tables 4, 5 and 6 respectively clarify the idea. 29% of these schools operate in a surrounding of high population density, 16% in a high noisy surrounding and 7% in a surrounding where the pollution is considered high. For the pollution, the majority of the schools, 75% are found in surrounding of low pollution; as well as low noise (53%).

In describing these schools physically, table 7 shows that 61% of these schools only have fences and 18.7% of them have to repair their fences, leaving 20.3% of the schools in need for fences. To find out if in those schools, central heating systems have been installed, table 8 shows that a central heating system is found and working in 6% of the schools only. Table 9 reveals that 56% of the schools benefit from other types of heating facilities.

As for the clean water and its availability in these public schools, table 10 shows that 67% of the schools have clean water inside. Table 11 shows that 81% of the schools have electricity, and 56% have telephone facilities (table 12).

Table 13 shows that 83% of the schools do not have an open playground and 3% are to change or to repair their available one; leaving 14% only of the schools with a playground. For the gymnasium, 92% of the schools do not have one (table 14). Table 15 shows that 45% of the schools have and 55% of them do not have a multi-purpose laboratory. For the Art workshop, 97% of the schools do not have one (table 16). The percentage is not really better for the Technology workshop which is available in only 7.6% of the schools (table 17). Moreover, table 18 shows that a computer laboratory is available in 15% of the schools.

Tables 19, 20 and 21 show respectively that a Principal's office is available in 71% of the schools, a teachers' lounge is available in 62% of the schools and a waiting area is available in 56% of the schools.

Regarding the conditions of the toilets in the schools, table 22 shows that 61% of the students' W.C. are good (or not bad), 37% of them need repairs, and 2%, there is no way to repair them. For the teachers' W.C., table 23 shows these percentages as being 75%, 21% and 4% respectively.

Finally, table 24 shows the ownership of the Lebanese public schools' buildings: to whom they belong. It shows that 31.7% of these schools are owned by the government, 2.4% are donations and 1.05% are of both. The remaining percentage is allocated over other owners such as individuals or municipalities.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The dissertation consists of seven chapters. Chapter One includes the significance of the study, its purpose, aims and objectives as well as its scope; in addition to the context in which it was conducted. It summarizes the evolution of education in Lebanon and discusses the administrative and the physical framework of the Lebanese public schools. Chapter Two discusses the school organization in which the teacher-Principal relationships are embedded, including structure, power, culture, collegiality and climate. It reviews the literature related to leadership by discussing the major leadership styles and concludes with a section on the central themes that

many researchers have argued are critical to teacher motivation. These themes include the Principals' leadership style, decision-making and recognition. Chapter Three puts light on the Lebanese context, canvasses the major theories of motivation and assesses their appropriateness to the study, and discusses the context of teaching. It concludes with the conceptual framework for the study.

Chapter Four describes the research methodology and the two major research instruments used. Chapter Five starts with describing the ten schools in this study, then presents the qualitative and the quantitative data collected; and ends with a concluding section drawing together both types of data. Chapter Six analyses the findings of the study by structuring them around the research questions set. Chapter Seven includes the researcher's claim to originality, the limitations that faced her, as well as what this research had added to her experience. Moreover, it includes a section describing the different strategies and recommendations that must be adopted to enhance teachers' motivation, make Principals more prepared and improve the quality of education in the Lebanese public schools.

Chapter Two
Literature Review: Leadership

1. Introduction:

Three major sections form this chapter about leadership. Section one discusses the school organization in which the Principal-teachers relationships are embedded. Under this section, literature about school structure, power, culture, collegiality and school climate was reviewed; in addition to the impact of the socio-economic factors in the school and community on Principal leadership and on students' academic achievement.

The second section deals with leadership, in terms of definition, different approaches to understanding leadership and major theories. In deciding upon the leadership theories to be discussed, the researcher took into account what researchers have argued about this issue, and tailored it to her objective in this study. Bryman (1992) traced four different stages in the development of leadership since the Second World War (cited in Fidler and Atton, 2004, p.21). The first stage, lasting till late 1940s, is for the trait approach assuming that the leadership abilities and characteristics are innate and developed in life till the person exercises first leadership. Under the second stage, lasting from late 1940s to late 1960s, leadership has been discussed in terms of leadership styles manifested in actions and behaviours acquired by the person. For instance, a person can show a high concern for people and another one can show a high concern for results after initiating structure. The best leadership style is revealed in a person showing concern for both, people and results. The third stage, lasting from late 1960s till early 1980s, is for the contingency theories of leadership which assume that an appropriate leadership is dependent on the situation requiring the exercise of leadership. The fourth stage is for the "[n]ew Leadership [that] concentrates on what leadership is rather than what those in formal leadership positions do" (Fidler and Atton, 2004, p.24). It has lasted since early 1980s and has under its umbrella charismatic leadership and, transformational leadership which has been always contrasted to transactional leadership. In this review of literature chapter, the researcher discussed the third and the fourth stages

of leadership in addition to those leadership theories for school: instructional leadership, distributed leadership and Sergiovanni's (1995) forces of leadership. She started with the third stage as the first two stages are old and because of the emphasis current educational researchers are placing on contingency leadership. For example, a strong instructional leader is required in a school facing problems or undertaking change (Day et al., 2001), whereas a transformational leader is required thereafter, while moving on to the desired direction (Fullan, 2002). The researchers' findings triggered the curiosity of the researcher in this study to find out the extent to which the instructional leadership style is adopted by the Lebanese public schools' Principals, especially that these schools have been undertaking a change: school restructuring and the implementation of the new curriculum.

The third section discusses the Principal-teachers relationships manifested in the way Principals recognize the effort of the teachers and invite them to participate in the decision-making process; both of which have an impact on teachers' motivation. Motivation theories are discussed in the following chapter in this thesis.

2. The school organization in which Principal-teacher relationships are embedded

2.1. School Structure, Power and Culture:

Schein (1992) states that organizations are created by human beings who build them up. However their existence is not dependent on the existence of its founders, because others may assume the responsibility to safeguard the existence of the organization they belong to or they join; by defining its mission and finding out the ways, the jobs and technologies to be used in order to attain its purpose (cited in Bennett, 2001).

In the process of attaining this purpose, jobs are to be organized in some kind of structures that "imply that tasks and responsibilities are allocated and that resources reach the right place at the right time..., a means by which the activities of organizational members are influenced or directed..., an accountability between

members for the proper discharge of the tasks they have to complete..." (Bennett, 2001, p.103). While the mechanistic views of organizations look at structures as fixed entities, unless major decisions are taken by managers; the organic views see them as dynamic ones, being at same time static and fluid.

Bennett (2001) suggests that this dynamic which is at work is power. Organizational structures define the network of formalized relations between members as well as the extent to which they will be free to make decisions about what to do and how to do it. Thus, due to the job description of each individual, the amount of discretion granted to him/her and how central he/she is to the issue under consideration, he/she might end up not putting equal contribution compared to his/her colleagues in the process of achieving the organizational purposes. As a result, these interpersonal relations inside an organization end up being not between equals. This is the power that each individual benefits from, that is a significant dimension of the relations formally defined by the structure.

Hales (1993) discusses four sorts of power resources: one is the physical resource power residing in the ability of a person to use physical force in order to adapt others' actions to his/her wishes. Two is the economic resource power shown in the ability of a person to supply or withhold what others require. Three is the knowledge power which can be administrative, related more to the operations of the organization, or technical related more to the core of the job. Four is the normative power that rests on the access of an individual to scarce values and desired ideas. While the first two resources of power are determined by the position an individual holds, the second two resources rest in the individual him/herself (cited in Bennett, 2001). The greater is the discrepancy in the allocation of power resources among individuals, the greater will be the compliance on the part of individuals benefiting from fewer power resources. However, when those power resources are distributed among members in a more equitable way, compliance may be taken by a more negotiative process. "Structures, then, both create and are created by power relationships" (Bennett, 2001, p.107), but how tasks are distributed and external pressures are prioritized, depend on the beliefs of the individuals who are responsible for organizing the internal set up of the organization; thus depend on the culture of the organization.

Culture creation and maintenance depend on individuals with access to power resources in order to direct the actions of others.

Those are the "cultural players" who benefit from some forms of power resources, which they have acquired by adopting initially specific norms and then promoting, expressing clearly and nourishing a particular interpretation of them (Bennett, 2001).

The concept of culture has been defined or discussed by many authors who have reached somehow similar definitions. Schein, 1985 (p.9) states that culture is:

> A pattern of basic assumptions –invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and integration– that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore has to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems (Quoted in McMahon, 2001 p.126).

Alvesson (1993), and Bolman and Deal (1991a) added the issue of symbols representing the organizational culture. Alvesson (1993, p.3) argues that culture is: "A shared and learned world of experiences, meanings, values, and understanding which are expressed, reproduced, and communicated partly in symbolic form" (Quoted in McMahon, 2001, p.126)

Bolman and Deal (1991a) argue: "our view is that every organization develops distinctive beliefs and patterns over time. Many of these patterns or assumptions are unconscious or taken for granted. They are reflected in myths, fairy tales, stories, rituals, ceremonies, and other symbolic forms" (Quoted in McMahon, 2001, p.126).

These symbolic forms are the key points from which managers or leaders have to start. Once understood, the leader's first task is to discover how the cultural forces inside the organization are working in order to be able to manage or implement a change (Bennett, 1995). Given that culture is not stagnant, leaders are to be always updated with these changes in order to set strategies convenient to the development of this culture. Moreover, the diversity of the groups that might be available within the

same organization, increases the numbers of sub-cultures within the single organization's culture, and in turn makes the leader's job harder.

Busher (1998) states that the culture is highlighted by the practices occurring inside an organization, such as, the extent to which people trust each other and are ready to talk about their differences, as well as the degree to which they are given the possibility to share in the decision-making. Also it is manifested in the readiness of senior staff to support and give from their time, staff and students, as well as in "the language used in talking about particular events or people and the stories that are told to illustrate success or failure" (p.25).

Samier (1997) suggest that the school culture is depicted by the informal dimensions of organization life. Busher (1992) refutes this by arguing that culture is embedded by each behaviour of every person inside it whether this behaviour is formal or informal. This view is approved by Wallace (1997) who argues that the usage of different dimensions leads to better understanding of the school culture (cited in Busher, 1998).

Hallinger and Heck (1998) argue that 'organizational culture' is one of the school conditions through which leadership may exercise its influence; and it stresses the importance of developing shared meanings, values, norms, beliefs and assumptions that shape members' decisions and actions. The contribution of culture to school effectiveness depends on the content of these norms and values (e.g. student-centered), and on the extent to which they are shared and stress collaborative work. This shares meanings with the 'learning environment' described by Reynolds et al. (1996) and the 'consensus and cooperative planning' described by Scheerens (1997).

Gerstner and Day (1994, p.123) argue that "[b]ecause leadership is a cultural phenomenon, inextricably linked to the values and customs of a group of people, we do not expect differences in leadership prototypes to be completely random. Rather they should be linked to dimensions of national culture" (quoted in Hallinger and Heck, 2003, p.228).

School's culture as well as the Principal's leadership style are affected by the national and local socio-political contexts in which the school operates (Earley, 1998; cited in Busher and Harris, 1999). The way the leader adopts the legal and curriculum changes facing the school, from local and national agencies, influences culture (Busher and Harris, 1999). For example, effective Lebanese Principals do not only have to have a clear understanding of the progress of curriculum reform and the process of school restructuring introduced recently by the Lebanese Ministry of Education; but also, they have to be able to advise staff and teachers on how to implement the processes required effectively.

From another side, the local or civic community that a school serves requires great attention in finding out how the school's culture is shaped. Busher and Harris (1999; p.9), argue that ".... It will raise questions about the pedagogy [Principal and teachers] use to meet the learning needs of students from particular ethnic and religious backgrounds and of varying socio-economic status".

In its relationship with structures, Bennett (2001) argues that "just as structures generate the degree of freedom or constraint of individuals, so cultures shape how they act within those freedoms or constraints... They shape what is seen as legitimate action in a given setting" (p.109).

While structures and cultures are both established by legal activities and are subject to change, structures create formal and publicly admitted rules; whereas, cultures create informal and mainly unspoken rules.

Economic power resource is legitimated by structures, thus it can be used overtly and directly, whereas cultures legitimate the normative and much of the knowledge power resources since these forms of power originate from the individual him/herself, rather them from the office assigned by the structures.

As for the research conducted on school improvement and school effectiveness, Bennett (2001), argues that effectiveness researches are obliged "to look beyond issues of structure into questions of organizational culture and how they interpenetrate with structures. The power dimension provides a vehicle through

which this can be attempted" (p.119); whereas, improvement researches are concerned with both cultural and structural issues.

Heterogeneity among members inside an organization and the associated conflict that may arise are to be acknowledged and viewed as a normal process "through which differences can be aired and resolved openly" (Blase and Anderson, 1995), (Stoll and Myers, 1998; cited in Busher, 1998).

Power is used by every individual in the organization in a condition that he/she can have access to it. Once this access is secured, access to other resources will be open enabling individuals to establish legally their educational and social values (Busher, 1998).

Power has been traditionally viewed as domination through formal authority flowing down from the top of the chart. However, facilitative power is based on mutuality and understanding and it flows in multiple direction. While the hierarchy remains intact, facilitative leaders use their power to support professional give-and-take. This power is a power through, not a power over. Dunlap and Goldman (1990) and Lashway (1995) argue that it is best suited for schools where teaching needs autonomy direction, not standardized formulas.

Since schools cannot be updated by simple prescriptions, researchers began looking for more sophisticated conceptions of leadership, they have greatly directed their attention to "transformational" or "facilitative" models of leadership that stress collaboration and empowerment (Lashway, 1995).

Originally, transformational leadership was viewed as a personal quality that inspires others to look beyond their self-interest and focus on organizational goals; but with time, the concept has evolved and it is often considered now as a broad strategy that has been described as facilitative (Lashway, 1995), Facilitative Leadership is defined by Conley and Goldman (1994) as "the behaviors that enhance collective ability of a school to adapt, solve problems, and improve performance" (Quoted in Lashway, 1995 p.2).

This definition is followed by the key strategies a facilitative leader uses, and they are: overcoming resource constraints; building teams; providing feedback, coordination, and conflict management; creating communication networks; practicing collaborative politics; and modeling the school's vision (Lashway, 1995, p.2).

In practicing collaborative politics and inviting participants to share in the decision-making, the Principal might be exercising a collaborative leadership, but not all collaborative leadership is transformational (Busher, 1998). Busher and Saran (1995), defined two extremes for collaborative leadership, one is the corporate style, two is the co-operative one (cited in Busher, 1998); while Hargreaves (1994), contrasted the first opposite which is contrived collegiality to the second which is real collegiality (cited in Busher, 1998). Under the first extreme, the leader consults with the teachers but the decision-making power remains in his or her hands. However, the second "envisages a major delegation of power, within an agreed framework of decision-making, to those responsible for enacting practice" (Busher, 1998, p.21); this is what Telford (1996) refers to as collaborative leadership (cited in Busher 1998).

Stoll and Myers (1998) stress the importance of the collegial style of leadership in sustaining a school environment full of enthusiasm and raising the staff morale by empowering them and inviting them to share in the decision-making (cited in Busher, 1998).

> The responsibility of educational leadership is to ensure that all members of the institution have access to powerful information; have spaces and opportunities to debate policy and practice; and are freed as much as possible from the communication impediments of hierarchy, formality and status consciousness. The educative leader attempts to establish the conditions for dialogue, participation and respect for persons, then there are serious ethical issues to be addressed in a framework which goes beyond management culture. It does not seem inappropriate in this context, that the leadership of an educational institution should be defined as primarily "educative" in this whole institutional sense rather than primarily managerial or executive (Crawford et al,1997, p.64).

2.2. Collegiality:

The impact of teachers' development on school improvement has been the interest of many researchers (Wallace, 1998). However the effectiveness of staff development is dependent on the sources of this development. Effectiveness here measures the degree to which teachers transfer their newly acquired skills and knowledge to classroom practice. Lam et al. (2002) argue that a one-shot deal in form of course or workshop without on-site continual coaching is not necessarily effective; however, Singh and Shifflette (1996) argue that peer observation or coaching and continuous collegial interaction and support are highly effective.

Collegiality and congeniality are two terms sometimes used interchangeably. But, their meanings differ in the professional setting. Congeniality describes the friendly relationships that emerge among teachers, developing a social group with norms not always aligned with school purposes. However, collegiality describes a work environment characterized by high levels of cooperation and shared work value between teachers and Principal as well as between teachers themselves. Here, conversation among group members is mainly dedicated to teaching matters. The norms governing these groups align with school purposes and lead to a great commitment and a high level of performance (Sergiovanni, 1995). "Collegiality is less concerned with interpersonal themes and more concerned with norms and values that define the faculty as a community of like-minded people connected together in a common commitment, colleagues share common work traditions and help each other" (Sergiovanni, 2001, p.108).

Rosenholz (1989) found that Principals in high collegial schools have been described as being supportive and as considering problems to be of a school wide interest that gave chances for collective problem solving and learning (cited in Sergiovanni, 1995). Elliott (1996) mentions the importance of collegiality in the process of school improvement where the schools have to become more educative institutions rather than more effective ones.

Grimmett and Crehan (1992) caution against the way collegiality is implemented. They argue that any attempt at initiating collegiality is inevitably contrived (cited in

Lam et al., 2002). However they differentiated between an administratively imposed collegiality, where teachers are mandated to collaborate voluntarily, and an organizationally induced type of contrived collegiality. This last type is "characterised by 'top-down' attempts at fostering 'bottom-up' problem-solving approaches to school improvement through careful manipulation, not of teachers' practices and behaviours, but of the environment within which teachers live and work and have their professional being" (p.70) (quoted in Lam et al., 2002, p.192). This type is fostered in a collaborative school culture. Without the right culture, the practice of peer coaching will not generate genuine collaboration.

Barth (1990) mentioned the term risk when teachers have to openly discuss topics related to their job and to share knowledge; however he argued that this risk is nothing next to the risks and costs of working in isolation. Lam et al. (2002) argue that peer coaching has to be separated from staff appraisal; consequently, teachers will be more able to give up performance goals and endorse learning goals. The reason is that "learning can be a risk-taking activity in which one's competence may be subject to judgments" (Lam et al., 2002, p.192).

Sergiovanni (2001) calls for stressing the issue of developing communities of practice rather than collegiality alone. In that case, teachers view "themselves as being involved in a shared practice of teaching that transcends their own individual practices... They share a common body of knowledge, when they work together to expand that knowledge and to use it more effectively. Learning is key" (p.108-9).

2.3. School climate:

The social interaction among school members, between teachers and Principal as well as between teachers themselves, promotes the successful implementation of any change leading to an effective school improvement (Sergiovanni, 1995). Clark et al. (1984; p.58) argue that "teachers report that they learn best from other teachers. Teacher-teacher interactions provide for technical and psychological support as well a personal reinforcement".

In order to motivate teachers and increase their commitment, Principals have to find out ways to strengthen the social interaction among teachers and to forbid isolation in the work place. As a result, teachers may be suppliers of useful data and new ideas to each others, and all together, they act as problem solvers to problems they face and share (Glatthorn, 1984; cited in Sergiovanni, 1995). In that way, the quality of work life improves in the schools.

The Principal is responsible for creating a positive climate for teachers that stimulates and supports professional growth which will in turn enhance and foster student achievement. For instance, the Principal has to discuss with teachers instructional and curricular matters rather than administrative ones in a way to let them explore new and more fruitful techniques. Moreover, he or she has to find out ways to stimulate teachers' curiosity to read or search topics of their interests and motivate them to pursue additional education (Wallace, 1996).

2.4. The school as a context for school leadership and its impact on students' academic performance:

Socio-economic factors (SES) in the school and community seem to influence Principal leadership and its impact on school effectiveness (Hallinger and Heck, 2003; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2003). Also, they affected how elementary school Principals perceived their work (Hallinger and Murphy, 1986). For instance, Principals in low SES schools emphasized the mastery of basic skills and defined clear school-wide goal targets for instruction. They "built fairly elaborate systems of rewards and recognition for student success ... [they] tended to define their leadership role more narrowly in terms of curriculum coordination, control of instruction and task orientation" (Hallinger and Heck, 2003, p.226). However, in high SES effective schools, Principals do not always define specific and measurable goals for their school, but they use mission as a motivational force (Hallinger and Heck, 2003).

Leithwood and Jantzi (2003) argue that "SES is a crude proxy, masking a host of family interactions which have powerful educational consequences" (p.201). They

believe that these interactions are not constant among families, and their variances are often without much relation to family income; this explains the authors' preference of using the term 'family educational culture' instead of the term 'SES'. The family educational culture encompasses family work habits, academic guidance and support, academic aspirations and physical setting enhancing academic work in the home (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1998; cited in Muijs and Harris,2003); these dimensions are what Walberg (1984) referred to as the 'alterable curriculum of the home'.

With respect to the impact of SES on the students' academic performance, the 'social' and the 'economic' components of socioeconomic status were found to have distinct and separate influences on educational outcomes. While both components are important; social factors, such as parents' educational attainments, have been found to be more significant than economic factors (the family's monetary capacity to spend on goods and services) in explaining different educational results (Considine and Zappala, 2002). Girls were found to outperform boys within high or low socioeconomic groups; and the boys' performance deteriorates more rapidly than the girls' performance as they move down the socioeconomic scale (Teese et al., 1995; cited in Considine and Zappala, 2002). Moreover, HREOC (2000) reported that students from non-metropolitan areas are more likely to have lower educational outcomes in terms of academic performance and retention rates than students from metropolitan areas; however, Considine and Zappala (2002) did not confirm this finding. Sparkes (1999) and Considine and Zappala (2002) found that lower educational achievement is associated with children living in public housing compared to those in private housing.

2.5. Conclusion:

In the foregoing section, school structure, power, culture, climate, collegiality and students' SES were discussed. Such discussion for a school, an organization in which teacher-Principal relationships are embedded, deemed convenient before embarking into the discussion of leadership and motivation. For instance, it is important to understand the culture in which leadership is to be exercised, as one

leadership style can be suitable in one culture and not efficient in another one. The same is for motivation, which can be much dependent on what the culture stresses and prioritizes. For example, a Lebanese teacher, living and breathing in the Lebanese culture, can be motivated by the satisfaction of his/her social needs; something really important for a Lebanese who, from early childhood, is exposed to the importance of welcoming foreigners and offering them special foods, sweets and others.

Discussion of students' SES is interesting as well, as the family educational culture is one of the variables upon which the Principal's leadership, the teachers' motivation and the school performance might be dependent. Lebanese public schools were taken into consideration in this research. These schools are satisfying the needs of students with low SES, as Lebanese students with better SES usually join private, fee-paying schools. Thus it will be exciting to find out how this 'alterable curriculum of the home' (Walberg, 1984) shapes the way teachers are motivated and the level of achievement those students are reaching.

3. Leadership

3.1. Definition of Leadership:

As leadership has been studied and analyzed from different angles and by many scholars over the years, it might be difficult to end up with one definite definition of leadership. Stogdill (1974) put it, "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept". Thus, it will be practical to assume the definitions of those who are the pioneers in leadership research. Stogdill (1974) defined it as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its effort toward goal setting and goal achievement". Bass (1960, p.447) stated that "leadership is the observed effort of one member to change other members' behaviour by altering the motivation of the other members or by changing their habits".

Bass (1981, p.16) pointed that "leadership is an interaction between members of a group... Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group".

Most of the leadership definitions are centered on the same points: leadership involves an influence process in creating a vision in order to direct followers' behaviour in a way to attempt organizational goals (Burns, 1978; Gronn, 1996; Parry, 1996; Caldwell and Hayward, 1998).

Vision is to be communicated in a way securing commitment among followers:

> "Their visions or intentions are compelling and pull people toward them. Intensity coupled with commitment is magnetic... [Leaders] do not have to coerce people to pay attention; they are so intent on what they are doing that, like a child completely absorbed in creating a sand castle, they draw others in. Vision grabs" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.28; Quoted in Crawford et al., 1997 p.30)

However, the issue to be raised is whether leadership is distinct from management (Yukl, 1989). Zaleznik (1986) pointed out that leaders and managers differ in motivation, personal history and in the way they think and act.

Leaders are more inclined to work from high risk positions, they are concerned with ideas more than with people but relate to people in more intuitive and empathic ways.

Kotter (1990) offered different distinction between leadership and management. Good managers design and follow formal plans and rigid organization structures, and, control and compare results with plans. Whereas, leaders communicate with the followers a created vision of the future and inspire them to surpass difficulties in their way to achieve the targets. Thus, in order to maximize organizational effectiveness, both strong leadership as well as strong management are required.

While the act of leadership focuses on how one person inspires others and helps them to develop a sense of shared values and purpose (Brighouse, 1991); Busher

(1998) continues, that "[t]he quality of management complements these, enacting them through planning, organizing, coordinating, monitoring and evaluating the work of other people who are engaged in the particular project or activity" (p.22).

3.2. Different approaches to understanding leadership:

Studies have stressed the importance of the Principal leadership quality in achieving success and effectiveness in the schools (Hall et al., 1986; Sammons et al., 1995; quoted in Baker, 2001, p.65).

Evans (1998a) argues that school-specific issues and situations have a far greater impact on teachers morale, job satisfaction and motivation than those centrally initiated policies and conditions of service such as pay or any new curriculum implementation. The single greatest influencing factor of all the school-specific issues is the Principal's leadership. It acts in both directions: motivating and demotivating teachers. The Principal demotivates teachers by giving them no, or insufficient positive feedback. When teachers' efforts go unrecognized, Principals will be assumed to be not caring for school's matters. In such a case, "heads were typically accused of lacking vision, awareness of educational issues and, in some cases, intelligence" (Evans,1998a, p.27).

However, the interesting issue that Evans (1998a) raises is the teachers' different attitudes towards their Principal's leadership style. Within the same school, some teachers find their Principal adorable and the others find him or her unbearable. Evans (1998a) attributes this disparity of responses, among other factors, to teachers' professionality which is defined as "the embodiment of professional ideologies and job-related values. It reflects what the individual believes education is about, and what teaching should involve" (p.28-9). Hoyle (1975) discusses two types of teacher professionality: 'restricted' and 'extended' (cited in Evans, 1998a). Restricted professionals assume practical matters, perform their duties intuitively and without analyzing them. Whereas extended professionals are more intellectual in teaching, rationalize things, and show interest in educational research. Being an extended professional, a restricted one or somebody in between, shape the individual job-related needs and in turn the factors that might motivate him/her. Thus,

there is a need for a match between the teacher's type of professionality and that of the Principal. In such a way, the school climate shaped by the head's extended professionality, for instance, suits the teachers showing also extended professionality; and consequently they will be full of joy and commitment.

In studying how to get the best out of teachers, Evans (1998a) identified five foci of primary headship to be highly important; they are: individualism, interest, awareness, recognition and direction. Individualism measures the ability of the head to take into consideration the teachers' varied individual job-related needs, mainly dependent on their level of professionality, and to customize the assigned duties in order to fit those needs. Moreover, the Principal has to have interest in, and awareness of what is going on in the school under his/her supervision; knowing what is being taught and how. Recognition, taking the form of acknowledgement and praise, is found to have a positive impact on teachers' motivation. "Finally, direction for the whole school's development, which reflected headteachers' visions for their schools, motivated teachers by giving them a sense of purpose and collegiality" (Evans, 1998a, p.29).

Litwin and Stringer (1996) studied the impact of leadership styles on school climate and employee performance (cited in Baker, 2001). The experiment was based on creating three different organizations A, B and C; where organization A was aimed to arouse the need for power revealed in the control, order and criticism of poor performance. Organization B was directed to arouse the need for affiliation expressed in the close interpersonal relationships, positive rewards and relaxed atmosphere. And organization C was aimed to arouse the need for achievement shown in the rewards for outstanding performance, the focus on high standards for individuals as well as for organization, in addition to the cooperation, stress and challenge. The result was that desired organizational climates can be created quickly and sustained; and once created, they can impact on employees' motivation, satisfaction and performance. Between the three climates, organization C proved to be the most successful.

Baker (2001) investigated contrasting schools to test Litwin & Stringer's model and to find out the degree to which schools are subject to the influence of their Principals.

Those schools, identified as poor performers, were unhealthy, unhappy organizations, lacking direction and purpose. Those schools' leaders are lacking the personal assets enabling them to cope with the complex environment of the modern education. They use their personal power to dismiss people, criticizing them and making them feel weak rather than strong. They used to stick in their offices, avoiding taking initiatives. The climate in these schools corresponds to Litwin & Stringer's organization A. the second group of poor performers schools corresponds to organization B where Principals emphasize friendly atmosphere, support weaker members without challenging poor performance. Under such circumstances, social rather than academic values and goals are strengthened. In addition to what is found under the two types A & B, Jones (1987) and Baker (1990) discussed the impact of leaders lacking political skills and holding negative attitudes toward others on eroding followers' confidence and discouraging initiative. Consequently, unproductive environments are built up. Jones (1987, p.67) argues that the skills required for an effective school leaders are "motivating, conflict resolution and negotiating" (quoted in Baker, 2001, p.72).

Baker (2001) found that the high-performing schools' leaders adopt a positive, self-confident approach enabling them to increase staff morale. They work on diffusing the "established power hierarchies and replace them with legitimate, collaborative structures" (p.74). In addition to focusing on standards improvement, they do not hesitate to push aside those teachers seemed unable to perform effectively. They adopt an open door policy, ready to coach groups and individuals. It seems that authoritarian style of Principal leadership, based on power and influence, may reduce motivation and thus, effectiveness (Baker, 2001).

Theodory (1981) found that most Principals in the Lebanese high schools establish good relationships with teachers as they find it the primary means to achieve the school's targets and manage the daily operations. Under such circumstances, the Principal ended up securing a high level of job satisfaction among teachers and neglecting to a great extent the issue of controlling their performance. This situation

impacted negatively upon the students' results in the official examination, and positively upon the students' results in exams held inside their schools. Moreover, the more organized the job is, the lower is the teachers' satisfaction and students' success inside the school, but the higher is their achievement in the official exam. And, the more the Principal uses his/her position power, the lower is teachers' satisfaction but the higher is students' success inside the school as well as outside it.

3.3. Leadership theories:

3.3.1. Contingency Models:

3.3.1.1. Fiedler Model:

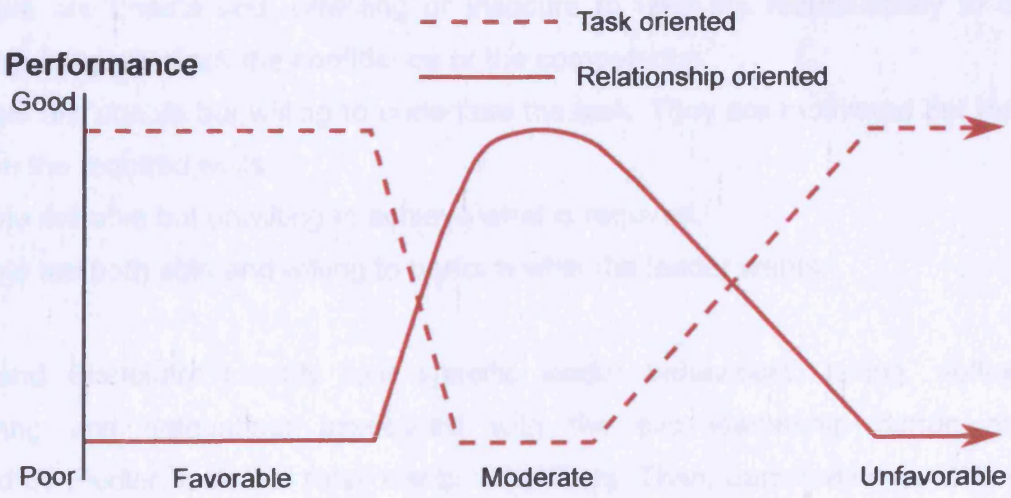
Fiedler (1967) is the first who developed a comprehensive contingency model for leadership (cited in Robbins, 1998). "The Fiedler contingency model proposes that effective group performance depends upon the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with his or her subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader" (Robbins, 1998, p.354).

Fiedler believes that an individual's leadership style is innate thus it is and remains fixed regardless of the situation facing the leader; however the situation can be shaped by three different dimensions. First, the leader-member relations measuring the confidence, trust, and respect followers show to their leader. Second, the task structure referring to the degree to which the activities assigned are specific and clear. Third, the position power reflecting the "influence derived from one's formal structural position in the organization" (Robbins, 1998, p.355), and the freedom associated with this position to hire, promote, reward or punish followers. Each situation can be rated as high or low on each of the three dimensions mentioned above, but the leader influence on any given situation is maximized when the leader-member relations are good, the task structure is high and the position power is strong.

Moreover, Fiedler created an instrument, the least preferred co-worker (LPC) questionnaire to find out whether a person is task (shows more concern for work accomplishment) or relationship (shows more concern for people) oriented. Then, the Fiedler model is constructed to maximize the leadership effectiveness, where the leader's LPC is matched with different assumptions of the three contingency variables. For instance, in order to maximize followers' performance, a task oriented leader is required where the situation is characterized by poor leader member relations, low task structure and weak position power. Details of the Fiedler Model are shown in the figure 2.1.

Since Fiedler assumes that the leader's style is fixed, two options will be available anytime the situation does not fit the present leader's style: to change the leader or to alter one or more of the situation's conditions in a way to maximize leadership effectiveness.

Figure 2.1: Findings from Fiedler Model



Category	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader-member relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task structure	High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

Source: (Robbins, 1998, p.356)

Supportive evidence validates the results of the Fiedler Model; however, other studies show that it is not secure to rely on the LPC because the respondents' LPC scores are not stable; and it is not always simple and easy to identify precisely a situation in terms of the three dimensions discussed by Fiedler (cited in Robbins, 1998). Although the initial interest in Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership has diminished in recent years due to these criticisms and others, nearly all of the recent and more sophisticated models of leadership acknowledge the role of situational variables in finding out the reasons of leaders' effectiveness (Steers et al, 1996).

3.3.1.2. The Situational Model:

The Situational Leadership Theory is a contingency theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1974, 1993). It focuses on the followers' readiness to select the convenient leadership style to achieve effective leadership. Followers' readiness refers to the degree to which people are able and willing to accomplish a specific assignment or job. Four stages of followers' readiness have been defined:

R1: People are unable and, unwilling or insecure to take the responsibility to do something. They may lack the confidence or the competence.
R2: People are unable but willing to undertake the task. They are motivated but they don't have the required skills.
R3: People are able but unwilling to achieve what is required.
R4: People are both able and willing to perform what the leader wants.

Hersey and Blanchard identify four specific leader behaviours; telling, selling, participating and delegating; associated with the two leadership dimensions discussed by Fiedler, task and relationship behaviours. Then, each leader behaviour is matched with one stage of the followers' readiness, in a way to maximize the leadership effectiveness.

• Telling (high task, low relationship) is suitable at R1 (unable and unwilling), where the leader has to show a directive behaviour in order to make everything clear to the followers.

• Selling (high task, high relationship) is appropriate at R2 (unable and willing), where high task behaviour is for guiding the followers into the leader's desired course of action; and the high-relationship behaviour is for the leader to secure the followers' votes.

• Participating (low task, high relationship) is convenient at R3 (able and unwilling) where the followers possess the required skills but are not motivated to perform effectively, thus the leader's role here is to find out ways to induce this required performance by adopting a nondirective, participative style.

• Delegating (low task, low relationship) is adopted at R4 (able and willing). Here the leader is lucky because his/her followers are able and ready to take any responsibility.

3.3.1.3. Leader-Participation Model: (the Normative Decision Model of Leadership):

The leader-participation model (a normative one) provides a set of rules to determine the form and the amount of participation as well as the situations where followers can participate in the decision-making process (Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Vroom and Jago, 1988).

The model provides the leader with a decision tree along which answers to a series of questions about the nature of the problem, guide him/her to select the appropriate and effective decision style. This decision tree is shown in figure 2.2. The decision-making styles are five, going from the very autocratic to the highly participative:

• Autocratic I (AI): The leader makes the decision alone with whatever information he/ she has on hand.

• Autocratic II (AII): The leader seeks information from followers but the decision is his/hers.

• Consultative I (CI): The leader shares the problem with relevant followers individually to obtain their ideas and suggestions but the final decision remains his/hers.

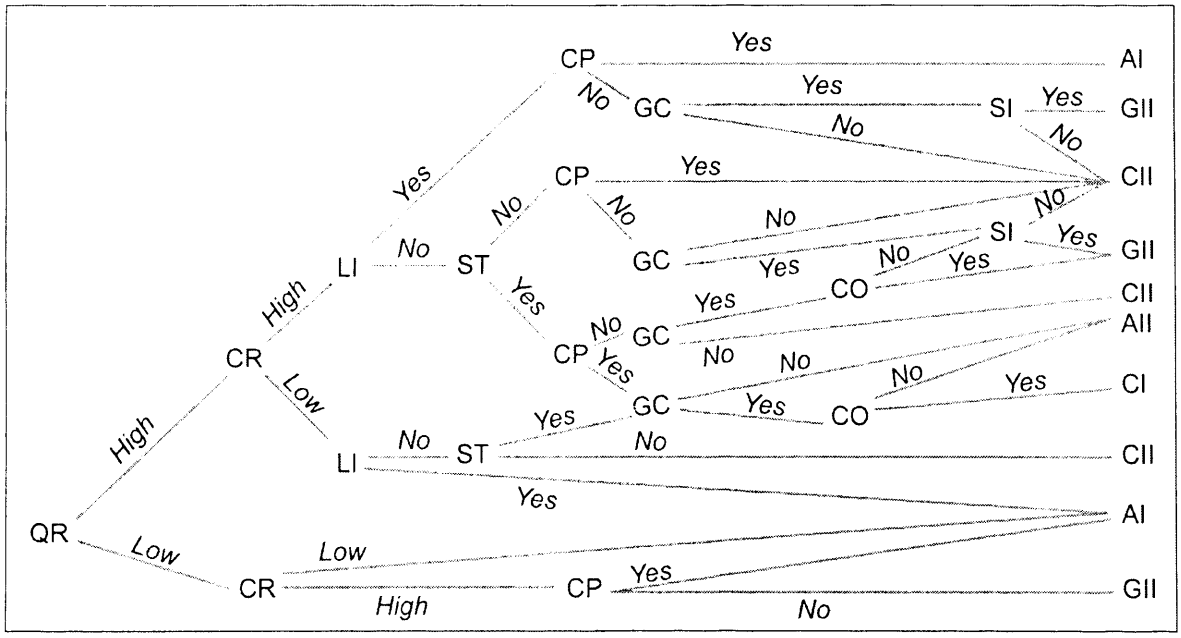
• Consultative II (CII): The leader meets with the followers as a group to get their ideas and suggestions but the leader remains the sole decision-maker, in a way that decisions may or may not reflect followers' influence.

• Group II (GII): The leader and followers meet as a group to share and discuss the problem, and the group makes the decision. Here, the leader's ideas are given equal weight to those of followers. Thus the agreement is reached on a consensus basis.

The leader-participation model assumes that the leadership style can be adjusted to suit different situations. It confirms that leadership research should be directed to the situation rather than the person, "it probably makes more sense to talk about autocratic and participative situations than about autocratic and participative leaders" (Robbins 1998, p.365).

Many studies (Field et al., 1990; Field et al., 1989) supported in general the validity of the normative decision model of leadership. However, the major criticism was that the model erroneously assumes that all leaders are sufficiently skilled and able to use effectively each of the decision procedures (Steers et al., 1996). Further, Yukl (1994) finds out that the model fails to take into consideration that many important decisions need to be addressed in multiple meetings with multiple groups at different times and with changing environmental circumstances.

Figure 2.2: The Revised Leadership-Participation Model (Time-Driven Decision Tree Group Problems)



QR	Quality requirement:	How important is the technical quality of this decision?
CR	Commitment requirement:	How important is subordinate commitment to the decision?
LI	Leader's information:	Do you have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?
ST	Problem structure:	Is the problem well structured?
CP	Commitment probability:	If you were to make the decision by yourself, is it reasonably certain that your subordinate(s) would be committed to the decision?
GC	Goal congruence:	Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?
CO	Subordinate conflict:	Is conflict among subordinates over preferred solutions likely?
SI	Subordinate information:	Do subordinates have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?

Source: (Robbins, 1998, p.365)

3.3.2. Charismatic Leadership:

Charisma was first used by Max Weber when he described a sort of social authority (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). He then defined it as: "a quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional qualities" (Weber, 1968, p.48).

House (1977), Bennis (1984) and Conger and Kanungo (1988) worked on identifying the personal characteristics of a charismatic leader. Charismatic leaders show high confidence in their ability, set a vision to improve the status quo, are able to translate this idealized goal in understandable and achievable terms and show strong commitment all the way in achieving it. Thus, their behaviour is believed to be extraordinary as they are ready to make radical changes, and as being highly sensitive to the environment, its constraints and its resources.

Bass (1985) put it that way, "... charisma has come to mean anything ranging from ... celebrity to superman status. It has become an overworked cliché for strong, attractive, and inspiring personality". Followers believe that their leader is "able to walk on water" (Bass, 1981, p.160).

Due to this high confidence, the followers' response becomes unquestionable. Here, the role of personal power is great: there is an emotional bonding between leaders and followers; followers view the leader as a father they can depend on. As of the relationship between charisma and nonverbal expressiveness, charismatic leaders are found to be more animated than others. They use non verbal cues in communicating their emotions, "they smiled more, spoke faster, pronounced words more clearly, and moved their heads and bodies more often" (Kouzes and Posner, 1995, p.138).

The process by which a charismatic leader influences followers starts first with the leader proposing a better future, exploiting new opportunities, and communicating his/her confidence in the followers' ability to achieve this vision. Leaders who propose small changes, however, may be effective but would not be described as

charismatic (Yukl, 1994). Second, the leader transmits, through words and actions, a new set of values and, by his/her behaviour, makes him/herself a role model for followers to imitate. Third and to prove courage and strong beliefs in the vision, the charismatic leader takes on high personal risk and engage in self-sacrifice (Robbins, 1998).

The charismatic leader uses praise and recognition as a means to convince the followers that they can achieve the vision. Thus, two factors are at the base of this success: first is the personal identification, that is, the followers want to adopt and follow the leader. Second is the internalization, that is, the adoption of the leader's values (Yukl, 1994), especially if those followers are dissatisfied with their status quo (Conger, 1989). There is a high and impressive correlation between charismatic leadership and, high performance and satisfaction among followers; due to the greater effort put by followers to express their love to the leader (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996). This is most appropriate when the follower's task has an ideological component (House, 1977), that is, in wartime, politics, religion or when a business is adopting a radical change. But when the crisis is overcome, the charismatic leader becomes a liability as he/she will be "unable to listen to others, becomes uncomfortable when challenged by aggressive subordinates, and begins to hold an unjustifiable belief in his/her rightness on issues" (Robbins, 1998).

House and his colleagues specified the conditions under which charismatic leadership is more likely to emerge and to be effective (Shamir et al., 1993). First, is when the organizational goal is closely related to dominant social values to which potential followers are exposed, and in that way, it will be easier for the leader to convert these values into a mission. Second, is when performance goals cannot be easily specified and measured, thus, it will be hard for the leader to trace extrinsic rewards to individual performance. Under such circumstances, followers search for self-related justifications for their efforts and as a result they will be more influenced by the charismatic leader. Third, is when the situation is a non routine one requiring an exceptional level of effort and sacrifice. This unusual situation may be a crisis to overcome or an opportunity to benefit from.

3.3.3. Transactional Leadership:

In transactional leadership, there is an exchange process. In order to attain his/her objectives, a transactional leader puts the followers on the right way to follow and clarifies to them that, in order to satisfy their needs, the leader's needs must be first satisfied. Starrat (1993, p.7), argues that "[t]hese exchanges are governed by instrumental values such as fairness, honesty, loyalty, integrity. The transactional leader ensures that procedures by which people enter into these transactions are clear".

Under transactional leadership, the relationship between the leader and the followers might take one of the following four forms (Bass, 1990b): contingent reward, management–by–exception either active or passive and laissez-faire. Under contingent reward, the contract between both parties says the following: followers will not be rewarded unless they put effort in their assignments and perform well, in that way only, the leader recognizes their accomplishments.

According to Podsakoff et al. (1990), the followers' level of satisfaction and performance increases as the positive reward behaviour is contingent on followers' performance. The management–by–exception relationship is when the leader intervenes if the follower is acting in a wrong manner. This relationship could be passive or active. It is active when the leader is to watch and find out deviations from rules and standards and take corrective action before a problem occurs in order to prevent it. It is passive when the leader interference is limited to the case where standards are not met, thus after the occurrence of the problem in order to rectify it and punish the followers (Howell and Avolio, 1993). In a laissez-faire situation, the leader avoids making decisions.

3.3.4. Transformational Leadership:

Transformational leadership has its roots stemming from the writings of Weber (1963) on charismatic leadership and Downton (1973) on rebel leadership. Many

scholars have extensively addressed the topic in their works (Burns, 1978; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Bass, 1981, 1985; Howell and Avolio, 1993).

A transformational leader is a leader who inspires followers to go beyond their own self-interests and let them work for the good of the organization. This can be explained by the following attributes that characterize a transformational leader (Bass, 1990a). First is the charisma that enables him/her to gain respect and trust, to create a vision and articulate a mission that must stir the imagination and feed the soul. Transformational leadership goes beyond charisma, in that, under the later, followers are to assume the charismatic's world view and go no further, whereas transformational leaders invite the followers to question not only established views but also those of the leader (Avolio and Bass, 1985).

Second is the inspiration shown in the leader's ability to communicate with the followers high expectations, to simplify the ways they have to undertake and put their efforts in, in order to attain organizational targets.

Third is the intellectual stimulation where the leader promotes intelligence and liberate energies that have been imprisoned by outdated procedures and habits of thought (Gardner, 1990). The leader helps followers examine the situation in a rational way. He/she is willing and able to show followers new ways in finding solutions as well as encouraging them to be creative in suggesting other alternatives in solving problems (Bass, 1990a). The final characteristic is individualized consideration where the leader coaches and advises each individual separately by paying attention to this individual's needs and helping him/her to achieve personal growth.

In transformational leadership, the quality of personal interactions is one of the many factors determining the success in collaboratively achieving the organization's mission.

Starrat (1993, p.7) argues that transformational leadership "seeks to unite people in the pursuit of communal interests beyond their individual interests. Motivating such collective actions are large values such as freedom, community, equity, justice,

brotherhood... [it] attempts to elevate members' self-centered attitudes, values and beliefs to higher, altruistic attitudes, values and beliefs".

Charisma is shown to be an important component of transformational leadership (Yammarino and Bass, 1990). However, a charismatic leader has been differentiated from a transformational one and the reason is that the latter develops followers into becoming leaders rather than exciting them, as charismatic figures are inclined to do (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Transformational leadership is more than charisma. "The purely charismatic [leader] may want followers to adopt the charismatic's world view and go no further; the transformational leader will attempt to instill in followers the ability to question not only established views but eventually those established by the leader" (Avolio and Bass, 1985, p.14).

Although charisma is a major component of transformational leadership, charisma alone can not lead to effective and successful transformational leader, as Bass (1985, p.31) put it:

> The deep emotional attachment which characterizes the relationship of the charismatic leader to followers may be present when transformational leadership occurs, but we can distinguish a class of charismatics [such as celebrities] who are not at all transformational in their influence... On the other hand, with charisma, transformational leaders can play the role of teacher, mentor, coach, reformer or revolutionary. Charisma is a necessary ingredient of transformational leadership but by itself it is not sufficient to account of the transformational process.

Moreover, Klein and Dikert (1999) discuss the emotional commitment in arguing that leadership is artful and not creative. Gardner (1998) discusses the intelligence of leaders shown in their abilities "to tell a convincing story; and they can embody that story in their own daily lives" (p.204). Jenkins (1997) argues that cultural change through 'collaborative cultures' can be used by leaders to foster and support learning amongst staff (cited in Gunter, 2001).

The conceptual model of transformational leadership that had originated in studies of political and corporate leadership, seemed to be better suited to the needs of schools as they evolved in the era of restructuring (Kirby et al., 1992, Kleine–Kracht, 1993, Gunter, 2001).

Leithwood et al. (1999) argue that the school of the future is a "high reliability learning community" (p.223), thus it requires a deeper and broader approach of transformational leadership, as shown in table 2.1.

Leithwood (1994) and Leithwood et al. (1999) described a model of transformational leadership in schools. This model was originally based on six dimensions: building school vision and goals; providing intellectual stimulation; offering individualized support; symbolizing professional practices and values; demonstrating high performance expectations; and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions.

Recently, four new dimensions have been added to this model in order to reflect the transactional practices; which are undermined in most transformational leadership models. They are managerial in nature and essential to organizational stability. These new dimensions are: staffing, instructional support, monitoring school activity and community focus (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2003).

This model seeks to influence people by building from the bottom-up (understanding the needs of individual staff) rather than from the top down (coordinating and controlling). Moreover, it assumes that leadership is shared between Principal and teachers (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000a, Louis and Marks, 1998). Under such a model, the Principal's efforts are viewed in the school conditions that produce changes in people rather than in promoting specific instructional practices (Bottery, 2001; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000b). Those Principals spend considerable time developing human resources, support teachers, provide recognition, know the school's problems and seek new ideas. Bogler (2001), Day et al. (2001) and Fullan (2002) found that transformational leadership has an impact on teachers' perceptions of school conditions, their commitment to change, the organizational learning that takes place; as well as on their perceptions of enhanced student outcomes.

Table 2.1: Developing transformational leadership

Dimension	Outcomes
Problem-solving • Understanding the problem. • Solving the problem.	The following are effective: Guided practice in problem-solving. Encountering progressively complex problems. Knowledge acquisition about common problems. Guided reflection on problem solving processes.
Fostering Teacher Leadership • Nature and perceptions of teacher leadership.	Principal leadership is more influential than the leadership exercised by teachers overall. Principal leadership is greatest on school improvement planning, school structure and organization, school mission and school culture. Teacher leadership greatest on school improvement planning, and, school structure and organization. Principals and teachers are expected to lead in different ways and have different types of impact on the school.
Building Teachers' Commitment to Change • Personal goals. • Capacity beliefs. • Context beliefs. • Emotional arousal process.	The following are strong influences on teacher commitment: The direction-setting dimensions of leadership. Building shared vision. Creating consensus about school goals. Demonstrating high performance expectations.
Creating the conditions for growth in teachers' professional knowledge and skill • Development of individual teachers capacities	Symbolic features of transformational leadership do not make a direct contribution to school improvement and could be seen by teachers as trivial. Transaction or instrumental tasks can be used for transformational purposes.
Leadership for organizational learning • Team learning. • Whole school learning.	Leadership makes a difference to group and whole school learning. Leaders are able to control the opportunities for and the ways in which learning takes place, e.g. missions, cultures, structures and resources.
Maintaining the emotional balance • Preventing teacher stress and burnout.	Leadership is a factor in the creation and amelioration of teacher burnout. Leadership has an indirect impact on teacher burnout through the effect on organisational factors.

(based on Leithwood et al. 1999).

The leadership in the schools in which sustained school improvement has been maintained, is characterized by patterns that are more collaborative, interactive and

dynamic; this is the shared transformational leadership. It offers teachers the opportunity to share and enact leadership. Jackson (2000) argues that this dispersed leadership increases the level of uncertainty. (A greater analysis of this issue is shown on p.66, under distributed leadership).

3.3.4.1. Comparison between transactional and transformational leadership:

Transformational leaders go beyond transactional leaders by not only creating a vision but also by motivating followers to be involved in defining and implementing change (Busch, 1989 and Owens, 1995). Thus, transformational leadership is "qualitatively different from, and ethically superior to, what appears to be crude manipulation and control" (Gronn, 1995, p.16).

Moreover, it is transformational leadership that focuses on a committing style (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). While under a calculating style, everything is well set to guide members on their way to achieve targets with no concern for their preferences, under a committing style, "strategies take on value only as committed people infuse them with energy" (Mintzberg, 1994, p.109; cited in kouzes and Posner, 1995, p.133).

With transformational leadership, individuals in their interactions

> "raise one another to higher level of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused... But transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both the leader and the led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both" (Burns, 1978, p.20).

Another distinction between transactional and transformational leadership is that the first one accepts and works within the structure as it is, while the second one renews and is always in the search of new understandings leading to new solutions. Transformational leaders offer to their followers education and lifelong growth in a way to let them be ready to come up with new targets appropriate to new situations (Gardner, 1990).

It is found that both styles are positively associated with effectiveness, but "transformational leadership factors... were more highly related than transactional leadership factors to satisfaction and effectiveness" (Bass, 1985, p.219). This can be explained by the transformational leaders seeking to fulfill followers' higher needs and elevate them up and up on the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, in a way to convert them into leaders. In such circumstances, transformational leaders may be acting as moral agents. And those leaders in particular who are the "real movers and shakers of the world" (Bass 1981, p.20).

3.3.4.2. Criticism of Transformational Leadership:

Allix (2000) criticized Burn's transformational view of leadership. He shows that the theory's democratic and educational credentials are not safeguarded. In discussing the sources of leadership, Burns (1978, p.68) states that "it is in the transformation of human wants into needs that leadership first occurs", where wants become needs as they are influenced and shaped by the environment. Thus, "the feeling of want is highly subjective, internal and autonomous" (Burns, 1978, p.63). Whereas, need "implies a more socialized, collective, objective phenomenon, in the sense of persons requiring something needful in the view of others, as well as themselves (Burns, 1978, p.64). Although Burns differentiates wants from needs, he then darkens this difference and confuses the two (Allix, 2000). Allix's criticism starts when Burns claims that needs are wants influenced by the environment (Quoted in Allix, 2000, p.14). Allix (2000, p.14) finds that this transmogrification creates ambiguity between the status of wants and needs, for now wants are no longer exclusively subjective, and needs are no longer exclusively objective.

This confusion motivates Burns to pay less attention to wants being autonomous and to focus on the leader as the one who initiates and arises interests in followers in a way to educate their wants, so that they come to want what their leader needs given that this leader does not believe in the autonomous cognition. Thus what is subjective in the view of Burns is what a leader wants for others; however, this is not what he claims first when he defines want. However, Burns concludes that needs are more related to existence, thus superior; and since leaders initiate those needs, so it

turns out that leaders are superior to followers: they work at a level higher than the one of the followers and try to push followers up. Thus Burns' refuse for elitist conceptions of leadership is not respected (Allix, 2000).

> "The implication here is that leaders have some sort of monopoly on moral truth, knowledge and wisdom, which they exploit to draw followers up to their own perceived ethical standards. In the process, the subjective and intrinsic end-values and goals of leaders become the objective social standards for others to meet. However, once again, despite the implied moral elitism, it appears that the precise nature and point of the transformation between subjective and objective values remains vague, and inadequately justified" (Allix, 2000 p.15).

Given Allix's discussion of Burns' transformational leadership and its related characteristics and "policy-making mechanisms", it is found that what Burns stresses on as "engagement and collective action" is more a "democratic centralism" that would be synonymous with dictatorship (Allix, 2000, p.17).

The educational process in Burns' theory is also highlighted, where Burns (1978) defines education "as the reciprocal raising of levels of motivation rather than indoctrination or coercion" (cited in Allix, 2000 p.18). However what is found out is that "learning is facilitated by inducement, persuasion, frustration, gratification, appeal, and inspiration, which together boil down to influence" (Allix, 2000, p.18).

Allix concludes by saying that "this analysis of transforming leadership exposes a conception that, in its essence, collapses into a transactional process of emotionally charged ideological exchange, ... which implies a pattern of social relations structured not for education, but for domination" (Allix, 2000, p.18).

Foster (1989) believes that the true transformational feature has been removed away, thus it is more about assisting bureaucracy and less about social change. Additional critiques have been advanced by Blase and Anderson (1995) about managing the culture which is nothing than domination, because differences among those concerned in the restructuring process in education are not taken into

consideration; and by Maxcy and Caldas (1991) who describe the situation as a "critical imagination" where the collective work is viewed as a "collusion" rather than "a democratic encounter over choices" (Gunter, 2001, p.73).

Angus (1989) argues that the entrepreneurial traits such as vision and risk-taking do not secure success in the educational settings (cited in Gunter, 2001). Leadership is to be considered as distributed rather than concentrated (Gronn, 2000); in such a way performance management will leave the hands of the leaders because it becomes embedded in the self-discipline of the individual's performance (Ball,1999).

3.3.5. Distributed Leadership:

Many authors have written about leadership and have come out with different theories spread on a long continuum where on one end lies the managerial leadership and on the other opposite end lies the transformational leadership. While the first one focuses on structure, the second is typical by its reliance on the individual. Most of the leadership theories are gathered around the individualistic view of leadership thus they assume the leader-follower(s) dualism, where the leader possesses all the required skills to motivate others or followers to perform effectively and achieve organizational objectives.

However, Kerr and Jermier (1978) stated that there are many factors such as the personal characteristics of the employees, the organizational processes and the type of the work that can act as substitutes to leadership in explaining organizational outcomes (cited in Gronn, 2000). Leadership is shown in the contributions of few organization members which induce contributions from other members and secure the coordination among those contributions in a way to achieve the organizational targets (Gronn, 2000).

Lakomski (1999) introduced the issue of learning in the leadership process, "it is much more plausible to think of organizations as constituting networks of distributed cognition" (quoted in Gronn, 2000, p.321). However, Gronn (2000) thinks that leadership stays an important factor in any type of organizations based on the issue

of distribution. The notion of distribution was first mentioned by Gibb (1954) when he stated that "leadership is probably best conceived as a group quality, as a set of functions which must be carried out by the group" (Quoted in Gronn 2000, p.324). The act of leadership is viewed as the sum of the contributions made by each individual for the success of the organization. Here, there is no superior role granted to the leader, but followers are as important and may be as effective as the leader, and the relationship between the two is so close as it will be difficult to find out the direction of influence as well as its strength (Gronn, 2000).

> "Conjoint agency presages a new division of labour in which the authorship and the scope of the activities to be performed have to be redefined to encompass pluralities of agents whose actions dovetail or mesh to express new patterns of interdependent relations. Second, the abandonment of fixed leader-follower dualisms in favour of the possibility of multiple, emergent, task-focused roles necessitates a reconceptualization of the nature of influence and its relation to activity" (Gronn, 2000, p.325).

The whole task is to be divided into smaller units or activities where each activity is to be performed by one specialist who will be dependent on his/her colleagues for the achievement of this task. Thus specialists have to be reintegrated at the same moment as they are differentiated. The reintegration occurs by the process of influence where each activity is triggered by its preceding one, and the first activity is initiated by someone with special talents in terms of self-confidence meshed with a strong motivation in pursuit of the interests and well-being of the organization. Strauss (1985) puts it, "none of this work is called into play automatically", in discussing the importance of task integration in the cooperative effort and effective conjoint activity (Quoted in Gronn, 2000, p.334). Gronn (2000) finds out "that leadership... still has a significant role to play in accomplishing good practice" (p.335). He argues that a more explicit theory of power, enabling the source of the dynamics to be shown, is still missing from the activity theory. His concern is with a lack of clarity about "what provides an activity system with its dynamism, nor what happens in the case of more open-ended, less well defined and new activities for which actions are less clearly culturally circumscribed and well defined" (p.329).

Gunter (2001) states that "power is not so much distributed or concentrated, more a struggle for distinction" (p.136).

The division of labor in schools is shown to be "the product of an increasingly complex schooling system with the post-1944 education structure unevenly overlaid by comprehensive education, and then various forms of site-based performance management" (Gunter, 2001, p.131). Gronn (2000) argues that the trend of downsizing and de-layering has granted distributed leadership, explicit credit and recognition from the part of commentators who first neglected the idea.

Research conducted by Moos and Dempster (1998) reveals the demand of teachers as well as students to shift away from bureaucratic to a more distributed leadership. By this restructuring, every member in the school becomes a leader; consequently, the same amount of work and even more will be achieved in a cheaper way (Fergusson, 1994), (Menter et al., 1997; cited in Gunter, 2001).

Distributed leadership, being at the core of the capacity-building model, considers that leadership resides in the human potential available to be released within the organization, by engaging expertise wherever it exists rather than seeking this only through formal position (Harris, 2004). Elmore (2000, p.14) argues that, in a "knowledge–intensive enterprise like teaching and learning there is no way to perform these complex tasks without widely distributing the responsibility for leadership among roles in the organization" (quoted in Harris, 2004; p.14). Harris (2004) argues that, although the responsibility is distributed, this leadership process is made coherent through a common culture created by those in formal leadership roles, responsible for holding the pieces of the organizations together in a productive manner.

Research indicated that the quality of teaching is enhanced when teachers learn together and share good practice (Lieberman et al., 2000 and Little, 2000; cited in Harris, 2004). Even though collaboration and collegiality are at the core of distributed leadership, they will not generate it unless the level and quality of teachers' involvement as well as the degree of skillfulness within the group are secured (Harris and Lambert, 2003). It is the formal leader role "to orchestrate and nurture the space

for distributed leadership to occur and to create the 'shelter conditions' for the leadership of collaborative learning (Hopkins and Jackson, 2002)... and to harness the leadership energy that results" (Harris, 2004; p.15). Thus, the "development of distributed leadership... may be found in the shape of a 'top-down' initiative from a strong or charismatic leader" (Bennett et al., 2003; p.9; quoted in Harris, 2004; p.15).

Given that it is normal for those in formal leadership positions to retain certain functions, it is important to secure that the distributed leadership is not a simple misguided delegation, but a "leadership function [that] is stretched over the work of a number of individuals and where the leadership task is accomplished through the interaction of multiple leaders" (Spillane et al., 2002; p.20; cited in Harris, 2004; p.20). One of the important functions of the formal leader is the allocation of time for teachers to meet, to collaborate with one another and to generate developmental activity of benefit to the school (Ovando, 1996).

Another function could be the creation of a school culture that encourages leadership from teachers, in order to overcome some factors that teachers might experience including inertia, over-cautiousness and insecurity (Barth et al., 1999; cited in Harris, 2004).

Research indicated the positive impact of distributed leadership on student outcomes (Glickman et al., 2001), on teachers' self-efficacy and levels of morale (Mitchell and Sackney, 2000), and on pedagogy, school culture and educational quality (King et al., 1996), (cited in Harris, 2004).

3.3.6. Instructional Leadership:

Research on school effectiveness shows that effective schools are usually led by Principals showing proficiency in terms of instructional leadership. Instructional leaders focus on building and maintaining a spirit of collegiality in the school where teachers work closely together as colleagues in order to let teaching practices be open to scrutiny, discussion and refinement. Bird and Little (1985) state that "by each interaction, teachers and administrators confirm or erode that set of professional norms and relations on which steady improvement rests" (Quoted in Ellis 1986, p.6).

Successful Principals help professional relations to grow among teachers, based on high standards and accompanied with mutual trust and respect. Respect is an essential ingredient in the school (Persell, 1982).

Effective instructional leaders share with the teachers the planning and the preparation of lessons and materials, discuss with them all what is related to teaching, develop the curriculum collaboratively; and make regular classroom observation based on assumed criteria and procedures. In studying the impact of Principals intervention in the classroom to promote new instructional practices, Rutherford and his colleagues (1983) find out that improvement is most likely to result, anytime these interventions state or deliver the Principal's expectations and are coupled by action to assist and monitor (cited in Ellis, 1986).

Hallinger and Murphy (1983) identified two functions performed by an instructional leader: One is technological and the second is a climate-related function. The technological functions deal particularly with the teaching and learning process, setting goals, coordinating the curriculum, supervising instruction, evaluating teachers' achievement and controlling student progress. Whereas under the climate-related functions, the Principal assumes activities to create in the school, an environment motivating to learning, by protecting instructional time, minimizing the number of non-instructional interruptions that teachers experience in their classrooms, promoting personal and professional development, providing positive support, stressing on the academic standards and maintaining high visibility. Moreover, they found that: in high-income schools, Principals adopt the technological functions of coordinating curriculum and instruction; they work mainly in the background to meet the parents' and teachers' high expectations. Whereas Principals in low-income districts are more concerned with securing a positive learning environment to surpass the societal norms that assure and deliver low expectations; they exercise a direct control over instruction and offer frequent and tangible rewards for achievements (cited in Ellis, 1986).

Andrews et al. (1986) found that the whole educational process is more efficient in schools where teachers perceive their Principal as a strong instructional leader; strong in terms of mobilizing resources, communicating, serving as an instructional

resource and being a visible presence. The reason can be traced to the Principal's visible presence around the school which can, by itself, lead to more effective teaching and learning (cited in Ellis, 1986). Rosenblum and Jastrzab (1980) mentioned that, relatively more effective Principals get out of the office (cited in Persell, 1982).

Principals are seen as effective if they lead the school by setting clear expectations, maintaining firm discipline and implementing high standards. This view of leadership implicitly assumes that Principals use the authority granted to them from their hierarchical position to direct the teachers.

Hallinger (2000) developed a model of instructional leadership based on three dimensions: the first dimension is 'defining the school's mission', the second one is 'managing the instructional program' and the third is 'promoting a positive school-learning climate'. The first dimension is concerned with the Principal communicating with the staff the clear and measurable school's goals focusing on the students' academic progress. The second dimension focuses on the Principal supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. The third dimension ensures that the Principal protects instructional time, promotes professional development, maintains high visibility, and provides incentives for teachers and for learning (cited in Hallinger, 2003).

Hallinger and Heck (2002) argue that features of the school context, such as a socio-economic status and school size, influence the way the Principal builds the school mission (cited in Hallinger, 2003). Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found that mission is defined more broadly in high SES effective schools; and clear and measurable goals on students' academic achievement are set by Principals in low SES effective schools. Moreover, Principals in small primary schools can more easily spend substantial amounts of time in classrooms working on curriculum and instruction. Furthermore, given that instructional leadership was originally and generally conceived to be a unitary role of the elementary school Principal (Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982); Lambert (1998) is worried about the extent to which this type of leadership can be effectively implemented in secondary schools, where, in many

cases, Principals have less expertise than the teachers whom they supervise and lead (cited in Hallinger, 2003).

3.3.7. Sergiovanni's forces of Leadership:

In order to improve and maintain quality schooling, Principals have to use the five forces of leadership which are, technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural (Sergiovanni, 1995). The first three forces are to ensure the performance of the school and the last two are to secure high level of commitment, performance and excellence.

The first force of leadership is the technical one. It provides Principals with the management techniques of planning, organizing, coordinating and designing strategies and circumstances to ensure maximum effectiveness. Here, Principals are labeled "management engineers" and are responsible for the order and reliability of the managerial system that, once organized, release the teachers and let them focus on their central work activities.

The second force is the human one, where Principals are considered as "human engineers", ensuring the smoothness of the human relations, providing support, encouragement and growth opportunities for their staffs. Since schools operate in the service sector, they are labor intensive; thus, the human force of leadership is essential in that case to keep teachers motivated who in turn work for the best of their schools.

The educational force is the third force and its deals with the education aspects of leadership. During 1960s, this force of leadership was neglected and technical and human forces of leadership have been highlighted. This was explained by the Principal being considered as a manager rather than a teacher. However, many critiques and many studies helped reemphasize the educational aspects of leadership. Goadlad (1983, p.331) argues; "it is now time to put the right things at the center again. And the right things have to do with assuring comprehensives quality educational programs in each and every school in our jurisdiction" (quoted in Sergiovanni, 1995, p.86).

As for the preparation of Principals, Boyer (1983, p.223) argues:

> "new preparation and selection programs are required. Principals cannot exercise leadership without classroom experience... without a thorough grounding in the realities of the classroom. Principals will continue to feel uncomfortable and inadequate in educational leadership roles. Moreover, they will continue to lack credibility in instructional matters with their teacher" (Quoted in Sergiovanni, 1995, p.86).

Sergiovanni views the educational force of leadership as a force taking one of two forms. One form is a strong instructional leadership exercised on those newly engaged teachers or those teachers with not yet fully matured competencies. The second form is the "leader of leaders" where the Principal is viewed as a colleague with equal teaching and learning abilities as the teachers. Under both cases, the Principal's principal aim is "to help the school become a community of leaders" (Sergiovanni, 1995, p.87).

The fourth force of leadership is the symbolic one. Here the leader signals to teachers what is important and fruitful in the school by being the model the teachers have to follow, and by clarifying the school's basic purposes. In such a case, teachers will not find difficulties in selecting from among different behaviours, but they will be directed to choose what is of value to the organization and its leader. Under this force, leaders are to provide "a unified vision of the school through proper use of words and actions" (Sergiovanni 1995, p.87). The symbolic leadership provides "purposing" to the school. Purposing is defined by Vaill (1984) as "that continuous stream of actions by an organization's formal leadership which has the effect of inducing clarity, consensus, and commitment regarding the organization's basic purposes" (quoted in Sergiovanni, 1995, p.87). Thus, the symbolic force's major target is to manage "the faith that people have in the school" (Sergiovanni, 1995, p.88).

The cultural force is the fifth force and refers to the force the leader uses to build a specific identifiable culture for his/her organization by spelling out the values, the norms, the expectations and the belief that are at origin of the school's success. Here, the leader's role is to define and reinforce the characteristics of the school's

culture, helping new comers to adopt this culture by showing them directly and indirectly the benefits of being a member and rewarding those who assumed and respect this culture. Then, at a later stage, teachers enjoy this special feeling of belonging to this special community where the school and its purposes are viewed as a sacred mission. This feeling of belonging motivates the teachers (Peters and Waterman, 1982; cited in Sergiovanni, 1995 p.89).

The issue discussed previously about the importance of the symbolic and cultural forces over the technical, human and educational ones in creating excellent schools, has been debated by Saphier and king (1985, p.72) who state "cultures are built through the everyday business of school life. It is the way business is handled that both forms and reflects the culture... Culture building occurs... through the way people use educational, human and technical skills in handling daily events or establishing regular practices".

While Telford (1996) is in accordance with Sergiovanni about the division between the symbolic aspect and the cultural one; Bolman and Deal (1991b) combine those two aspects into a single one "which focuses on the creation, portugal and enactment of values and beliefs" (cited in Busher, 1998, p.22).

By looking into the future, the new leadership required for effective schooling, will not be the "superhero leadership" previously known seeking leadership by "the sheer force of their personality" or "the sheer force of their bureaucratic authority". However, what is fruitful is

> "leadership for schools themed to learning, to the development of civic virtue, and to the cultivation of self-management. In this new leadership, leaders will spend mush more of their time on purposing, developing idea structures for their schools, building a shared follower ship, and helping their schools become communities of responsibility" (Sergiovanni, 2001, p.38).

3.3.8. Conclusion:

In conclusion, the appropriateness of a leadership type is dependent on the location of the school on its improvement journey (Hallinger, 2003). Gray (2000) has shown

that very directive, task focused, and authoritarian 'top-down' forms of leadership are prevalent in failing school context or in schools in special measures or serious weakness (cited in Harris, 2004). However, less directive forms of leadership are required to sustain school improvement (Muijs and Harris, 2003). Hopkins and Jackson (2002), and Mitchell and Sackney (2000) reveal the importance of 'capacity building' in sustaining school improvement, and Hopkin and Jackson (2002, p.95) argue that "distributed leadership along with social cohesion and trust" is the essence of the capacity-building model (quoted in Harris, 2004; p.12).

4. Principal-Teachers Relationships

4.1. Recognition:

High quality teachers are at the essence of an effective school (Reynolds and Cuttance, 1993). The Principal in such a school knows how to support and motivate those teachers, in such a way to work harder, perform well and achieve the organizational mission (Reynolds, 1997). Those high performers have the right to be acknowledged, respected and honored. Since honor is one of the most important properties of social life, human beings seek opportunities to earn honor and jobs are the means to develop a respected personal image in society. Teachers as members of a society and practitioners in an occupation would like to be recognized and respected (Ozcan, 1996).

Lortie (1975) pointed out that teaching as a social position occupies a special but shadowed social standing. Even though it is a respected occupation, the real regard shown for those who teach does not match the professed regard.

One of the many reasons that might be behind this low prestige could be the young women performing the teaching profession in the nineteenth century and the low social rank attributed to the young and the female many years ago (Ozcan, 1996).

The available research conducted on the honorific rewards of teachers, found out that recognition is important to teachers and opportunities to earn it, motivate them (Johnson, 1990).

The sources of teacher's recognition are many. Teachers receive praising comments from students, parents, colleagues and Principals. Each source accounts for recognition differently. Kids' progress, flowers, cards or notes offered by the students to their preferred teacher at the close of the school year, reveal the students appreciation and recognition of their teacher's efforts. As for parents, it will be highly rewarding for teachers when the parents request their younger children to be placed in their classes. Moreover, teachers appreciate the compliments of colleagues who taught their students in subsequent grades and praised them for preparing those students well (Johnson, 1990). The forms of recognition that might be used by a Principal are many and effective: appointing teachers in a special committee, praising them in front of others, taking their advice and involving them in decision making.

Teachers are always complaining that their efforts go unnoticed even though they are working hard (Sparks, 1983). As being subject to anxiety and suffering from intensive stress, teachers will be demotivated and their performance level declines (Brown and Ralph, 1994). In such a case, administrators have to find a quick remedy for the teacher burnout (Turney et al., 1993). Recognition is highly important, but alone, can not prevent the negative impact of the high work-related stress levels on teachers motivation and thus on school's effectiveness (Russ, 1995).

Coming from different work settings, 1500 employees were asked about their most powerful workplace motivator; their answer was: Recognition, recognition, and more recognition! (Caudron, 1995). The findings enforce the reinforcement theory of motivation: as positive behaviour is immediately recognized, it is likely to encourage its repetition.

4.2. Decision-making:

In the early 19th century, educational leaders adopted some concepts and principles from business and scientific management; where teachers are considered as similar to factory workers, and viewed as agents charged with implementing detailed duties and specifications (Callaham, 1964; Lortie, 1975). In a factory, workers on an assembly line perform specialized assignments. In a school, teachers are experts in different subjects, and students have to move from one expert to the second. Teachers "would repeat routine, predetermined tasks rather than adapt their approaches to changing students" (Johnson, 1990, p.119).

But, what has been missed in this approach is the basic feature of teaching as an occupation. Teachers deal with humans who are varied, complex and changing beings; thus, their activities can be only partially specialized. Johnson (1990, p.5) pointed out the importance of the decision-making power for teachers: "As a result of both variety of students and teaching's relatively unspecified technology teachers must exercise discretion in their work. Autonomy, whether intentionally granted by superiors or necessarily seized by teachers behind the classroom door, is a central feature of their work."

In teaching, teachers expect to earn a set of rewards including economical, social and political power. They use their professional power to realize themselves and to make decisions related to teaching (Ozcan, 1996). Research shows the importance of decision-making to teachers. They choose power to influence as their most important extrinsic reward (Cohn and Kottkamp, 1993).

Since teaching is a collective mission, teachers can not be given full freedom in implementing their professional authority, even though they are naturally practicing some political power while performing their jobs. What can be done in such a case is that teachers might be given the power to select their teaching materials, methods and strategies, given that they will be held responsible for the outcomes of their decisions. This develops a sense of ownership which in turn leads to higher job motivation (Beck, 1983).

Participation in decision-making generally has a positive effect on members of an organization (Chapman, 1990) and the reasons are many: it enhances the sense of ownership of organizational goals and thus, increases productivity (Adler, 1997). It creates a feeling of team spirit and a motivation for making better decisions for the organization (Adler, 1997). Here, the quality of the decisions is improved. Moreover, Mohrman et al. (1987) found that in an educational setting, involvement in decision across all aspects of school activities leads to a greater extrinsic and intrinsic teacher satisfaction and less role ambiguity. Teachers who have the chance to be involved regularly and actively in the decision making process, are more likely to be enthusiastic about their school systems compared to those with limited opportunities to participate (Turney et al., 1992a &b).

One convenient term can be used to cover all the terms discussed above: employee participation or participative management, work democracy, employee empowerment and employee ownership. This catchall term is: employee involvement, defined as "a participative process that uses the entire capacity of employees and is designed to encourage increased commitment to the organization's success" (Robbins, 1998, p.208).

The Principal leadership is the most important factor in involving teachers in shared decision-making (Deal, 1987 and Johnson, 1989, cited in Haskin, 1995), (Smylie, 1992; Weiss and Cambone, 1994). Smylie (1992, p.16) argues that "the more that teachers perceive their relationships with their Principals to be open, collaborative, facilitative, and supportive of their judgment and discretion, the more likely they are to express willingness to participate [in decision-making]".

While researchers discuss the significance of leadership style in implementing successful shared decision-making, Haskin (1995) finds it secondary and emphasizes on "effective leadership" as a more important factor.

Deal and Peterson (1991) found "effective Principals as symbolic leaders who face conflict, using it to resolve disputes and build unity, and who use their own behaviour to exemplify core values and beliefs" (cited in Haskin, 1995).

Even though no one leadership style has been proved to be fruitful in all cases (Bossert et al., 1982; Fullan, 1993); "facilitative" leadership remains the best suited for school-based management than shared decision-making (Bredeson, 1993; Weiss and Cambone, 1994). Goldman et al. (1993) see "facilitative leadership as leadership manifested through someone rather than over someone; its power is not zero-sum, but interactive and additive" (cited in Haskin, 1995, p.9). Anytime teachers share in the decision-making process and find that their suggestions are taken seriously and implemented into the school's practices, their commitment will be secured and their performance will be more effective. In contrast, "where [P]rincipals were closed to formal influence, teachers either withdrew completely behind their classroom door, or continued to exert their personal and political sway informally in an effort to right bad decisions that impinged on their teaching" (Johnson, 1989, p.105; cited in Haskin, 1995).

However, Immegart (1998, p.263) explains the causality in the opposite direction, as the subordinate behaviour is what prompts the leaders' style. He says: "Leaders do tend toward a democratic style when subordinates exercise initiative and set goals and a more autocratic style when subordinates are passive, seek instructions, or are unquestioning" (cited in Haskin, 1995).

Facilitative leadership refers to the open, democratic or participative leadership style. Haskin does not view facilitative leadership as the opposite of authoritarian leadership, but as a middle point between authoritarian and the "invisible" leadership. While an authoritarian Principal is autocratic, an invisible one fails to articulate the organizational vision and relies on followers to provide leadership.

Moreover, Haskin (1995) argues that in general, women are better suited to leadership in school-based management" (p.12).

4.3. Local School Management:

As part of wider public sector reform, changes in school governance were introduced in many countries such as Australia (Mulford et al., 2003), the United States (Murphy

and Beck, 1995; cited in Mulford et al., 2003), New Zealand (Sullivan, 1994) and the United Kingdom (Russ, 1995). These changes involved a serious shift to Local School Management (LSM) where schools are considered as places embodying peoples (Principals and teachers) prepared for, and participating in, making decisions as part of the democratic process. The intention of this LSM is to achieve more effective educational outcomes through greater local control over the use of resources and the setting of educational policy. The success of this LSM implementation is based on the teachers (Berends, 2000) as well as on the Principals (Leithwood and Duke, 1999; cited in Mulford et al., 2003). Harris and Hopkins (1999) argue that changes in schools might experience failure caused by cultural resistance from those in schools; even though the reforms might be ideally structured with powerful sponsorship.

Under the LSM, teachers and Principals are to work collectively in order to make decisions. However Joyce et al. (1999) found that only a small number of schools cherish the effective results of this process. One of the reasons is that "teachers (Peters et al., 1996) and Principals (Dimmock and Hattie, 1994) prefer the relatively safe environment of congeniality that superficial structural and procedural change can bring, allowing teachers to let the administrators 'get on with it' while teachers retreat to the solitude of their classrooms" (cited in Mulford et al., 2003, p.67). Teachers must be convinced that activities outside their classrooms such as whole school planning are essential to their core job, which is teaching. Moreover, the common belief considering Principals as the ones responsible for any reform implementation, including LSM, might hinder the effectiveness of a collective process implementation (Caldwell and Hayward, 1998).

Mulford et al. (2003) argue that teachers do not trust quickly the authenticity of power sharing; thus, it is necessary for those teachers sharing in the decision-making to legitimize the governance regimes and in such a way only schools bureaucracies become communities (Vergugo et al., 1997; Robertson and Briggs, 1998).

Mulford et al. (2003) share the view of Murphy and Beck (1995) who argue that LSM advocates' expectations will not be met unless, in addition to the shared decision-making at the school level through meaningful collaboration and shared leadership,

LSM is to be refocused through creating a professional community by moving teachers beyond comfortable congeniality and conformity to collegiality. In addition to shaping the organization and the management in order to satisfy the learning environment's needs, and not vice versa (Quoted in Mulford et al., 2003, p.87)

4.4. Conclusion:

Four basic characteristics are the basis of a productive work environment: one, supportive administrative leadership; two, collaborative working relationships among teachers; three, opportunity to influence school policy, curriculum and instruction; and four, adequate facilities and resources (Seyforth, 1991). In such an environment, all the conditions enabling teachers to strive for excellence are met; they will be able to achieve the organizational goals successfully, and as a result they will be recognized and thus, motivated.

The positive impact of employee involvement on employees' motivation has been at the core of many motivation theories. For example, theory Y assumes the participative management, while theory X is consistent with the more traditional autocratic style of management (McGregor, 1950). As for the motivation-hygiene theory, employee involvement programs intrinsically motivate employees by giving them the opportunities for growth, responsibility and involvement in the work they are performing (Herzberg, 1959). Moreover; employees, by seeing the decisions they themselves have made being implemented and worked out, feel responsible and satisfied. They will acknowledge the feeling of achievement. Thus, employee involvement goes also with the ERG theory and tends to stimulate the achievement need. As a result, employees' need for growth and self-esteem will be fulfilled (Alderfer, 1969).

All these motivation theories in addition to others are discussed deeply in the following chapter.

Chapter Three
Literature Review: Motivation

1. Introduction: The Lebanese context

Low school quality is widely recognized as a serious problem in many developing countries, especially in the Middle East and North African Region (Chapman and Carrier, 1990). The reason is that during the 1970s and early 1980s, many of these countries witnessed an explosive growth in student enrollment, especially at the primary level. As a result, they found themselves obliged to employ a number of unqualified or under-qualified teachers with little or no experience (Ayyash-Abdo, 2000). Most of the teachers recruited come from a pool of low achieving students; the problem is that not many people want to be teachers, as the high achieving students focus on other professions (UNESCO, 1996).

Moreover, the political unrest that Lebanon has suffered from during the war period (1976-1990), has imposed severe economical and fiscal problems. As a result, the government cut back on teacher training, instructional supervision and school construction.

Instructional supervision visits are geared toward ensuring conformity with ministry regulations more than that of providing in-service upgrading of teaching practices. As a result, neither school nor regional supervisors address the specific teaching methods that teachers use. Lebanon reports a monthly evaluation procedure conducted by the Center of Education for Research and Development; this is in conjunction with school Principals and the Ministry of Education inspectors. Lesson plans, class observation and individual conferences are among the criteria used for evaluation. In Lebanon, in-service training is conducted every three to four years. It helps improving the quality of teaching through the provision of several strategies, new ideas and techniques that could be used by teachers. As a result, students' achievement levels might be enhanced, which in turn, leads towards more job satisfaction by teachers (Chapman et. al., 1993).

As for the stress brought about by the poor working conditions inherent in the nature of the school setting, it is considered as a major reason of the downfall of the teaching profession (Corrigan, 1985); thus a decrease in the quality of teaching might be the result of poor salaries, overcrowded classrooms, lack of equipment and support materials (Russell et al., 1987).

Since the researcher is born in a family where the majority of its members are teachers, she was able to accumulate information about 'teaching' in Lebanon from her early childhood. This experience in addition to some more recent direct observations in some public schools have enabled her to assess the reasons behind teachers seeking early retirement and the sources of the stress discussed earlier.

During the war period Lebanon has experienced, some teachers, in the public sector, used to stay at their homes or perform other jobs (such as trade) and receive their monthly salaries from teaching. They used to visit their schools occasionally and sign their names without performing any teaching duty. Others used to drink coffee all day and perform special favors to the Principal such as cooking or giving special lessons to the Principal's children; and if the inspectors came, the Principal was very clever in hiding the teachers' absence. The inspection body was not working efficiently because the government's primary concern was the war and not the education, even though it knew what was happening in the schools. Moreover, by belonging to political parties some teachers used this power to force the Principal to free them from any teaching load.

In the early 1990s and with the termination of the war, Lebanon started to feel that there are issues other than politics that need urgent interference; such as Education. The inspection body started to inspect the schools regularly and frequently giving the teachers as well as the Principals the impression that the case is more serious, that ineffective and inefficient teachers are to be punished, and any deviation from the bylaws is to be detected. Then, come the progress of curriculum reform and the school restructuring that the Lebanese Ministry of Education has implemented. Due to all these changes that had occurred during the post-war period, some teachers found themselves under a big pressure caused by the increased work load and a change in the familiar patterns and routines of work, thus making massive demands on time and effort. The researcher had witnessed the depression of some teachers

believing that they are unable to cope with the new curriculum attributing the cause to their age, even though they have been trained to it. Moreover, the Lebanese public schools have received recently, and through the aid of the National Bank, computers. Consequently, Principals have been asked to propose some teachers' names who will then attend training sessions enabling them to use these computers. What happened is that teachers were so afraid of this new responsibility since they are convinced that the computer is not for their age. The researcher observed some teachers begging the Principal to exclude their names.

Nowadays, the issue that many teachers are most worried about is the possibility of a decision taken by the Minister of Education requiring all the schools with extra teachers to declare that, enabling the Ministry to reappoint those teachers in the schools that are in need. If this is true, some teachers will be obliged to teach in schools far away from their homes. The researcher thinks that this will be the reason behind those teachers seeking early retirement.

In Lebanon, the Union of Democratic Youth has accused the government of marginalizing the country's public schools. The union urged officials to further develop the public school system and improve the living standards of its teachers. The union urged students, teachers and all concerned parties to voice their support for the schools, which it said the government was neglecting. Moreover, public school teachers are regularly going on strikes, calling for pay raises and other social benefits (the Daily Star, Nov.13, 2001; p.2).

In 2010, the estimated population of the age group 5-18 years old is 110 millions in the Arab countries. If the enrollment rate in general education will be around 80% for this age group, these developing countries would have to ensure educational opportunities to 88 million students; i.e. provide resources for an additional 29 million students. This demographic increase as well as the current poor working conditions will set serious pressures on the educational systems (UNESCO, 2000).

All what is raised in the foregoing discussion, including what the researcher heard, read and even witnessed herself, triggered her curiosity to raise the issue of the Lebanese public schoolteachers' motivation. In the following section, different theories of motivation are reviewed as well as their applicability to the school setting,

enabling the researcher to develop a conceptual framework for her study by picking up what seemed to be most suitable for the Lebanese context.

2. Motivation

Motivation is not an innate character, in the way that some have it and others don't. It is defined as the willingness of an individual to put a high level of effort directed to achieve organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy and meet a personal need. Where need here is this internal state that makes certain outcomes appear attractive (Robbins, 1998). Many motivation theories are discussed in this chapter. They are not all in competition with one another; rather, many of them are complementary. Since the topic here is dealing with the nature of human beings, theories of human motivation will differ as long as the assumptions about this nature are different. Since there is not a single theory that is able to fully understand and explain the employees' motivated behaviours, the challenge for managers and school directors is to tie these theories together to understand their interrelationship and implement what is appropriate to energize, empower and motivate employees as well as teachers.

The best-known motivation concepts were developed in the period of the 1950s. These are the hierarchy of needs theory, theories X and Y, and the motivation-hygiene theory. These theories are being regularly used by those in any school leadership position who might play a motivating role (Turney et al., 1992a). These theories also represent a foundation from which contemporary theories have grown. From that time, many theories have been developed by reworking the previous theories or by holding different assumptions of the human being.

The theoretical framework of this thesis is composed of the work of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), McGregor (1960), Porter (1962), Adams (1963), Vroom (1964), McClelland (1965), Locke (1968), Alderfer (1969), Hackman and Oldham (1980).

2.1. Maslow's hierarchy of need:

Abraham Maslow, in 1954, suggested a theory of human motivation based on a hierarchy of need that acts as stimulus to action. He hypothesizes that within every human being there exists a hierarchy of five needs according to which people are motivated to act specifically to satisfy those needs. These needs are physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization. Maslow's theory includes also two additional needs, the cognitive need which is the need to know and understand; and the aesthetic need which is the need to move towards beauty and away from ugliness (Maslow, 1954). However, when applied to organizational settings these two needs have been omitted from Maslow's theory. Moreover, Maslow suggested that these needs are hierarchically related in the way that as each need is substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. According to him, the leader needs to understand what level of the hierarchy the follower is currently on and focuses on satisfying those needs at or above that level. But he later revised the theory to say that individuals move through the hierarchy with unfinished levels of satisfaction at lower levels, thus, by looking for need satisfaction in more than one level at any given time. Managers must bear in mind that once a need is met, it becomes no longer motivating so, they must always be highly sensitive to their employees' status and depict their unfulfilled needs in a spontaneous way, and if possible matching rewards to these needs.

First, the physiological needs, which are at the base of the pyramid, represent the basic human necessity for hunger, thirst, sleep, shelter, sex and other bodily needs. Second, the safety needs, representing security and protection from physical and emotional harm; they include an individual need for stability, order and structure.

Third, the social needs including affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship. Fourth, the esteem needs, including both internal and external esteem factors. The internal factors give the individual a sense of achievement, positive self-image and autonomy. The external ones are more related to status, recognition and attention from others. Maslow highlighted the importance of respect from others.

Fifth, the self-actualization needs, which are at the top of the pyramid, represent an individual's desire for self-fulfillment. This is the drive to become what one is capable of becoming. Thus growth and achieving one's unique potential are at the heart of this need. Individuals seek to become all that they are capable of and to be autonomous in their functioning.

Maslow classified the five needs into higher and lower needs; where the physiological and safety needs are under the lower-order needs, and social, esteem and self-actualization are under the higher-order ones. He based his classification on the premise that higher-order needs are satisfied internally by the person him/herself, whereas lower-order needs are mainly fulfilled externally, by pay for instance. Thus one can make a point here, which is: permanently employed workers will have their lower-order needs mainly satisfied when economy is booming. Table 3.1 shows the needs in addition to the psychological and physiological indicators for each level of Maslow's hierarchy.

Although Maslow's need theory has received wide recognition and great popularity specially among practicing manager due to its intuitive logic and ease of understanding; however, research does not generally validate it (Rauschenberger et al., 1980). This lack of support is contributed to the definitional ambiguity because the concept of need is so general and vague (Wahba and Bridwell, 1973); Moreover, Korman et al. (1977) stated that the "available research should certainly generate a reluctance to accept unconditionally the implication of Maslow's hierarchy" (cited in Robbins, 1998). Landy (1985) argues that one of its most important shortcomings is that it is a broad theory of human development rather than a description of work motivation.

According to Maslow's theory, higher-order needs such as growth needs, do not usually motivate lower-level employees; however, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) found that these needs can motivate those employees via their self-esteem enhancement. Moreover, they found that top managers are primarily motivated by growth needs (e.g. self-fulfilment, advancement, autonomy); whereas, lower level employees are primarily motivated by the satisfaction of relatedness needs from colleagues.

Table 3.1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Needs		Physiological and Psychological Indicators
Level 5	Self-actualisation	Achievement of potential Maximum self-development, creativity and self-expression
Level 4	Esteem needs	Self-respect: achievement, competence and confidence/ freedom/ independence Deserved respect of others – status, recognition, dignity and appreciation.
Level 3	Belonging, love and social needs	Satisfactory associations with others/ affection Belonging to groups/ love Giving and receiving friendship/ affection.
Level 2	Safety and security needs	Protection against danger and threat Freedom from fear, anxiety and chaos
Level 1	Physiological needs	Hunger, taste, sleep, thirst, smell, sex, touch.

Source: Maslow (1954)

Despite all this criticism, the theory continues to enjoy wide acceptance in education, and Principals have to pay attention to it just "to create a school climate and working conditions that are responsive to the lower level needs of teachers for security, acceptance and self-esteem. In turn, this will allow staff to focus maximum efforts upon self-fulfillment through effective performance of professional tasks" (Turney et al., 1992a, p.215).

2.2. Motivation–Hygiene theory:

The Motivation–Hygiene theory was proposed by psychologist Frederick Herzberg. The theory and its supporting data were first published in 1959 (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg found that employees tended to describe satisfying experience in term of factors that were intrinsic to the content of the job itself. These factors called

"motivators" included such variables as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth, and act to increase an individual's job satisfaction. On the other hand, dissatisfying experiences were largely the result of extrinsic, non-job related factors. These factors termed "hygiene" factors are represented by the company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, and co-workers, (Table 3.2).

According to Herzberg, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but no satisfaction; and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. Thus removing dissatisfying characteristics from the job does not necessarily make the job satisfying, this means that it might bring about peace but not necessarily motivation. The implications of this theory are obvious; if you want to motivate an employee, you have to change the nature of this employee's job: that is, job enrichment. Job enrichment as opposite to job enlargement means a vertical expansion of an employee's job. It requires an increase in the skills repertoire which ostensibly leads to increased opportunities for advancement and personal growth, increased challenge and responsibility thus increased recognition. According to Herzberg, these later factors are the "content" factors that are primarily related to work motivation (Steers & Porter, 1991).

Table 3.2: Job Satisfaction Continuum – A Graphical Representation of the Motivation-Hygiene Theory

←(-) Dissatisfaction	Satisfaction (+)→
Hygienes (Dissatisfiers)	**Motivators (Satisfiers)**
Interpersonal relations – subordinates Interpersonal relations – peers Supervision – technical Policy, administration and supervision Working conditions Personal Life / feeling of unfairness	Achievement Recognition Work itself Responsibility Advancement

Source: Herzberg et al., (1959)

The applicability of the Motivation-Hygiene theory to an educational setting has been tested by many researchers. Schmidt (1976) confirmed the two different sets of needs of Herzberg's model for the teachers in the Chicago suburbs; and Lawler (1986) acknowledged the usefulness of the theory in an educational setting. Frase et al (1982, p.68) pointed that Herzberg's "motivation-hygiene theory is the most valid source of information to work from".

In finding out which factors are most likely to motivate teachers to achieve instructional excellence, studies have shown that they are motivated more by intrinsic than extrinsic rewards. Teachers have greater job satisfaction when they participate in decision making, use valued skills, have freedom and independence, are challenged, express creativity, and have opportunity for learning (Wagner & Hill, 1996). Teachers are motivated when they feel themselves successful in reaching and affecting students, when they receive recognition, and when they feel responsible (Ellis, 1985). Haefele (1992) identified the top five motivators that have great relevance as stimulators of high performance for teachers; and they are: doing the job, liking the job, achieving success in doing it, getting recognition for doing the job, and moving upward as an indication of professional growth.

Moreover, many researchers have found a broad consistency between their research findings and Herzberg's two-factor theory (Galloway et al., 1985; Farrugia, 1986; cited in Evans, 1998); (Nias, 1989); and more specifically, 'working with children' is seen to be very rewarding and motivating (Bredeson et al., 1983; Kasten, 1984; McLaughlin et al., 1986; cited Evans, 1998). In concurrence with Herzberg's theory, Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) found that remuneration and the satisfaction with fringe benefits do not enhance the self-esteem of low-level employees. They seem to be hygiene factors that must be present to prevent employee dissatisfaction.

By comparing Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory with Maslow's hierarchy of needs; the extrinsic or hygiene factors largely correspond to Maslow's lower-order physiological and safety needs; while intrinsic factors or motivators correspond to Maslow's higher-order needs. The motivators in this theory lead to positive job attitudes because of their potential to satisfy the internal need for self-actualization.

This close correlation with Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs gave Herzberg's theory additional credibility (Frase et al. 1982).

Table 3.3 illustrates this comparison; clarifying Maslow concentration on the general human needs of the individual while Herzberg focusing on the person in terms of how the job affects basic needs. Pinder (1984, p.35) states that both theories have practical utility for the "design of jobs based on responsibility, achievement and recognition".

While both theories provide an important basis for understanding the role of motivation in work organizations, Maslow focuses on the general human needs of the individual; Herzberg concentrates on the person in terms of how the job affects basic needs. Another difference lies in the hierarchy for the needs which was absent under the Motivation-Hygiene theory.

Although each theory has to take its portion of criticism, Herzberg was the first one who addressed the role of motivation in work organizations. Maslow, McCllelland and many others were concerned mainly with laboratory-based findings or clinical observations (Steers & Porter, 1991).

Table 3.3: Comparison between Maslow's Theory and Herzberg's Theory

	Herzberg	**Maslow**
MOTIVATORS	▪ Creative/challenging work ▪ Possibility of growth ▪ Responsibility ▪ Advancement/recognition	▪ Self actualization ▪ Ego/esteem

MAINTENANCE FACTORS	▪ Status
	▪ Interpersonal relations
	  ○ Superiors
	  ○ Subordinates
	  ○ Peers
	▪ Supervision
	▪ Policy/administration
	▪ Job security
	▪ Working conditions
	▪ Salary
	▪ Personal life
		▪ Ego/esteem
		▪ Social/belonging
		▪ Safety/security
		▪ physiological

Turney et al., (1992a)

The critiques here come from many angles: first, the theory ignores situational variables, second it is more a theory of job satisfaction and not motivation. Third, the procedure used by Herzberg is limited by its methodology, in that; individuals attribute success to themselves, but blame failure upon the external environment. Fourth, while Herzberg assumes a relationship between satisfaction and productivity, the research methodology based in his theory, looked at satisfaction only, not at productivity (Robbin, 1998).

2.3. Theory X and Theory Y:

Douglas McGregor, in the late 1950, after observing the way in which managers dealt with employees, came with the following: the way a personnel manager deals with his or her subordinates depends on two different sets of assumptions the manager sets on the nature of human beings. Under the first view of human beings, labeled theory X, the assumptions held by the managers are too negative: employees are accused of being lazy, disliking work, avoiding responsibilities and lacking ambition. For this reason, managers have to direct control, coerce and threaten employees with punishment to achieve goals.

The other positive assumptions of human beings are labeled theory Y. Here employees enjoy working, exercise self-direction and self-control once they are committed to the targets, accept and seek responsibility, and are ready to make innovative decisions. Theory X and Theory Y have something to do with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. While Theory X focuses on individuals being dominated by lower-order needs, Theory Y assumes that higher-order needs are the needs dominating individuals. McGregor finds the Theory Y assumptions more valid. Thus, to motivate employees, managers must assign challenging jobs and induce participative decision-making. Moreover, he says it is the responsibility of management to provide structures that make it possible for people to feel accepted and valued and to feel that they can best work toward their own goals by working towards organizational goals (McGregor, 1960).

2.4. Porter's revision of Maslow's hierarchy of needs:

After conducting a study of perceived need satisfaction in management jobs, Porter(1961) felt that the physiological needs are met by most of the American workers. He decided to modify Maslow's theory of motivation by excluding this first level needs (the physiological ones) and including one new need entitled autonomy by inserting it between esteem and self-actualization (Porter, 1962).

As a result, Porter developed the Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (NSQ) and conducted it on 2000 management personnel. Autonomy is defined as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (Steers & Porter, 1991; p.426). Porter (1962) found that there is a relationship between the degree of perceived satisfaction in terms of self-actualization, autonomy and esteem that the individual experienced and his or her position in the company's organizational chart. As one moves up on the chart, the satisfaction of these psychological needs becomes increasingly important.

Thus, managers in higher organizational levels place greater emphasis on their growth needs and are generally able to satisfy them more than lower-level managers (Porter, 1961). This finding is to support Maslow's theory, as higher-level managers tend to have more challenging, autonomous jobs where it is possible to pursue growth needs, while lower-level managers tend to have more routine jobs, making it more difficult to satisfy these needs (Steers and Porter, 1991).

Porter's modification of Maslow's hierarchy of needs also presents five levels of needs and is shown on figure 3.1. The hierarchy starts with the need for security at the first level; second, the need for affiliation; third, the need for self-esteem; fourth, the need for autonomy; fifth and finally, the need for self-actualization.

Porter placed the greatest importance in his hierarchy on autonomy. The contemporary organizational principles of self-government, self-direction and self-control are doing this also.

In education, Sergiovanni and Carver (1973, p.58-59) pointed that no one can motivate insecure teachers by offering them greater autonomy, or motivate teachers seeking autonomy by offering them security. Principals who seek to positively affect teacher motivation through their practices will find themselves in a critical situation. Here the economic conditions might shape the situation: higher-level expressions of self-esteem, autonomy and self-actualization are not found much frequent in countries where the majority of people are struggling for survival. However, Porter's modification to Maslow's hierarchy has particular relevance to education since "teachers and students have expressed a demand for control over their work environment and, indeed, over their destiny" (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1979, p.134).

Figure 3.1: Hierarchy of Work Motivation Based on Porter's Model

SELF-ACTUALISATION

Working at full potential
Feeling successful at work
Achieving goals viewed as significant

⇧

AUTONOMY

Control of work situation, influence in the organization, participation in important decisions, authority to utilize organizational resources

⇧

SELF-ESTEEM

Titles, feeling self-respect, evidence of respect by others, status symbols, recognition, promotions, awards, being part of "insiders" group

⇧

AFFILIATION

Belonging to formal and informal work groups, friendships, professional associations and unions, and acceptance by peers beyond the immediate organization

⇧

SECURITY

Pay, union, seniority, retirement plan, tenure, such legal concepts as "due process" and "fairness", statutory and policy protection establishing orderly evaluation and insurance plans

Source: Porter (1962)

2.5. Equity Theory:

Employees passively observe others and the events that occur in the workplace. This observation helps individuals take impressions of the social situations and lets them behave in a way based on their positive or negative evaluations. Theories of social exchange processes explain how social interactions in the workplace influence employee reaction to their jobs. The Equity theory developed by Adams in 1963 is one of the most popular of these theories. The major variables of exchange relationships in Adam's theory are inputs, outcomes and the referent. Inputs represent the contributions made by the person for the exchange such as effort, experience, education and competence. Outcomes are those things that result from the exchange such as pay, fringe benefits, status symbols and recognition. For the exchange relationship to exit, inputs and outcomes must be both recognized and considered relevant for both parties of this exchange. As for the referent, Goodman (1974) discussed three classes of referents: others, self-standards and system referents. Others are individuals involved in a similar exchange either inside or outside the employee's organization. Self-standards represent the employee's experiences in different situations or positions inside or outside his or her current organization.

System referents are implicit or explicit contractual expectations between the employee and his/her employer. The employee might be promised future rewards or promotions, and this can become a basis for evaluating the exchange. Goodman (1974) found that multiple referents can be used by employees in assessing their satisfaction. The choice of the referent is influenced by the information the employee holds about referents as well as by the attractiveness of the referent. The availability of information can be a function of the tenure and the rank of the employee in the organization. For instance, employees with long tenure in their current organization rely heavily on co-workers for comparison, whereas, those with short tenure rely more on their own personal experience since information about others inside the organization is still limited. Moreover, upper-level employees, and those with higher amounts of education tend to be more cosmopolitan and have access to better information about people in other organizations (Robbins, 1998).

The ratio of an individual's (called "person's") outcomes to inputs is compared to the ratio of outcomes to inputs of another individual or group (called "other").

If those two ratios are equal, equity is said to exist, if not, inequity will be the result (figure 3.2). This inequity lets the individual experience equity tension. Adams (1965) has proposed that this negative tension state provides the motivation to do something to correct it and to return to a condition of equity, through behavioural or cognitive means.

These means, used by employees who strive for what they perceive as equity and fairness, might be: changing their inputs by exerting lower effort, changing their outcomes by producing more at the cost of quality if they are paid on a piece-rate basis; choosing a different referent or simply quitting the job. Moreover, they might distort the perceptions hold of selves or others.

Figure 3.2: different output/input ratio comparison resulting in different equity and inequity status.

Ratio Comparison	Perception
$\frac{O_P}{I_P} = \frac{O_0}{I_0}$	Equity
$\frac{O_P}{I_P} < \frac{O_0}{I_0}$	Inequity due to being under rewarded
$\frac{O_P}{I_P} > \frac{O_0}{I_0}$	Inequity due to being over rewarded

"Equity theory recognizes that individuals are concerned not only with the absolute amount of rewards for their efforts but also with the relationship of this amount to what others receive" (Robbins, 1998, p.185). While historically, the equity theory was based on distributive justice that is the perceived fairness of the amount and allocation of rewards among employees; it must now consider also the procedural justice that is the perceived fairness of the process considered in distributing the rewards. While the first justice has a greater impact on employee satisfaction, the

second one increases employee's loyalty and commitment to the organization as well as the trust in one's boss (Korsgoard et al., 1995). Thus, managers as well as Principals must share openly information regarding the process of rewards distribution showing its fairness. In that way, employees feel that the procedural justice is respected.

The equity theory promised the development of a more comprehensive understanding of social behaviour and interpersonal interactions at the workplace; mainly the supervisory-subordinate relationships (Goodman and Friedman, 1971).

In discussing the issue of pay often perceived as a retention factor for teachers, Evans (1998b) argues that the belief of paying employees enough money will ensure that they do not leave the job, comes partially from the equity theory of motivation which assumes "that individuals are satisfied if they feel justly compensated for their efforts and accomplishments" (p.42). Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) found that employees want to receive a fair and equitable pay for a fair day's work, in such a way, to share in their productivity. "To employees their pay is a barometer which shows that the firm values their contributions and their inputs contribute to the prosperity of the firm" (p.715).

2.6. Vroom's Expectancy Theory:

In 1964, Victor Vroom formulated a theory of motivation and job satisfaction associated with work settings called the Expectancy theory. Vroom's Expectancy Theory states that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual (Vroom, 1964, p.165-7). It helps explain why a lot of workers are not motivated on their jobs and merely do the minimum necessary to get by (Robbins, 1998).

Vroom's expectancy theory contains three concepts crucial to understanding the core of the theory. These three fundamental concepts are: Expectancy, instrumentality and valence. Each of these concepts constitutes a belief.

Expectancy: Expectancy is the strength of a person's belief about whether a particular outcome is possible. It depicts the "effort-performance relationship"; by discussing the probability perceived by the individual that exerting a given amount of effort will lead to performance. There are many factors contributing to an employee's expectancy perceptions about various level of job performance. These are: the individual's level of confidence in his/her skills for the task performed, the degree of help he/she expects to get from the supervisor, and the quality and availability of the materials and equipment being used. Moreover, the previous success experiences at a task and a generally high level of self-esteem strengthen expectancy beliefs (Lawler, 1973).

Instrumentality: Instrumentality refers to the perceived probability that an incentive will be forthcoming after a given level of performance or achievement. It discusses the "performance-reward relationship".

The difference between expectancy and instrumentality is that the first one is perceived probability, while the second is perceived correlation.

Valence: Valence is defined as the affective or emotional orientation an individual holds with respect to a particular outcome (Vroom, 1964). It summarizes the "rewards-personal goals relationship", in that it measures the attractiveness of a potential reward offered by the organization for the individual, and the ability of this reward to satisfy the individual's needs.

The most important feature of people's valences concerning work-related outcomes is that they refer to the level of satisfaction the person expects to receive from the outcomes or rewards, not the real value actually derived from them (Steers & Porter, 1991).

Vroom's theory looks at motivation as a response to an individual's need to attain a defined target. It views performance on the job as a means by which the individual can achieve a personal goal. Motivation comes into existence when the outcomes or rewards offered are being appreciated by the individual. It becomes more and more

effective when the individual knows what needs to be done to obtain the desired outcomes; as well as possessing the ability to do what is required and offered the assistance needed to perform adequately (Vroom, 1964).

In the educational settings, Herrick (1973) concluded that schools with high centralization were staffed with teachers having low forces of expectancy theory. Miskel et al., (1980) find out from their study of secondary and higher education teachers that, to be motivated, teachers have to believe that they will succeed in doing what is necessary to obtain likely rewards. The advice for Principals here is to build an atmosphere that enhances anticipation of rewards which teachers view important.

Many researchers discussed the difficulty of testing Vroom's expectancy theory (Steers et al.,1996; Evans, 1998b).

> "The expectancy approach contains the implicit assumption that motivation is a conscious rational choice process. That is, individuals are assumed consciously to calculate the pleasure or pain that they expect to attain or avoid when making a choice. However, it is generally accepted that individuals are not always conscious of their motives, expectancies, and perceptual processes. Yet expectancy theory tends to ignore habitual behavior and subconscious motivation" (Steers et al., 1996, pp.22-3).

Nevertheless, some research results show consistency with the theory's basic premises. For instance, when Evans (1998b) discussed the issue of pay being a key motivator leading to improvement, she explained this by the expectancy theory which assumes that individuals are ready to improve their performance if there is an expected reward they value. "This government will one day have to pay its teaching force sufficiently highly to achieve the quality of education to which it has so far merely paid lip service" (Andain, 1990; quoted in Evans, 1998b, p.42).

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2.7. McClelland's theory of needs:

McClelland's theory of needs was developed by David McClelland and his associates (McClelland, 1965). It assumes that need, were learned by the kinds of events people experienced in their culture.

These learned theories shape the way individuals perceive situations as well as the way individuals can be motivated to achieve a certain target. The theory focuses on three needs: achievement "nAch", power "nPow", and affiliation "nAff".

1- Need for achievement: it represents the drive to excel and to achieve a behaviour directed toward competition with a standard of excellence. High-need achievers differentiate themselves from others by their desire to do things better, and by being able to find solutions to problems. They prefer to work alone to prove their efficiency. They are anxious to have a rapid feedback on their performance regardless of whether they have succeeded or failed. Moreover, high achievers tend to set moderately difficult goals and perform best when they perceive their probability of success as being 0.5. Money does not represent a very strong motivator for high achievers; however, they view it as an evidence of their success when they succeed. McClelland concluded that the need for achievement, like other personal characteristics, is apparently learned at an early age and largely influenced by child-rearing practices and other influences of parents (McClelland, 1965). He also argued that economic development and national prosperity were closely related to the need for achievement (McClelland, 1962).

2- Need for Power: the need for power was defined by Winter (1973) as a stable tendency to seek impact on others, to influence, persuade, or control others, and to gain recognition and acclaim through these forms of behaviour. It was studied extensively by McClelland (1970) who described "two faces of power": the need for personal power, in which people strive for dominance just for the sake of dominance, and the need for social power in which people are more concerned with the problems of the organization and what can be done to make goal

achievement easier. He argued that the need for social power is the most important determinant of managerial success because satisfying this need leads toward achieving organizational effectiveness rather than satisfying a self-serving egotism.

3- Need for affiliation: it relates to Maslow's social needs and it is the desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with other individuals. It also represents the desire to be liked and accepted by others. Managers, by creating a cooperative, supportive work environment where positive feedback is tied to task performance individuals with a high "nAff" tend to be more productive and have good attendance records (Steers & Porter, 1991).

Whether an individual rates high on achievement power, or affiliation, the manager must put the right individual in the right position in a way to let the job requirements suit the individual's characteristics in order to maintain a motivated workforce and to attain organizational goals.

Evans (1998b) finds out that McClelland's learned needs theory is partially justified in her research where many teachers show a high need for affiliation as well as a high need for achievement, but none manifested a high need for autonomy. The reason could be that those with a high need for autonomy are usually attracted by jobs allowing them to exercise more autonomy than teaching allows. As for the need for power, it is shown not to be high among teachers. Evans (1998b, p.38) attributes this to the need for power being "incompatible with teachers' professional culture".

2.8. Goal-Setting Theory:

Goals and goal setting have been a central feature of management theory and practice since Peter Drucker (1954) coined the term Management By Objectives (MBO). In the Late 1960s, Edwin Locke proposed that intentions to work toward a goal are a major source of work motivation (Locke, 1968). He has proved that individuals who have goals or objectives consistently outperform those who have no goals and those who are asked to do their best. However these goals must be

specific, challenging, and measurable. Specific goals increase performance. Difficult but achievable goals, when accepted, lead to higher performance than do easy goals. And finally, feedback results in higher performance than does no feedback. People like to know how well they are progressing in order to identify discrepancies between what they have done and what they want to do; in such a way to exert a higher level of performance to achieve the target.

Goal-setting theory assumes that an individual is committed to the goal. Goal commitment is enhanced when the goals are made public, self-set rather than assigned and when the individual has an internal locus of control meaning that he/she makes him/herself responsible for the achievement (Wofford et al., 1992). On the other hand, self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she is capable of performing a task (Gist, 1987). Thus, the higher the individuals' self-efficacy, the more confidence they have in their ability to succeed in a task.

Goal setting is a simple straight forward and highly effective technique for motivating employee performance, but it will not compensate for underpayment of employees or for poor management. For instance, if the goals set are unfair, arbitrary or unattainable, dissatisfaction and poor performance may result (Steers and Porter, 1991); and quantity may be achieved at the expense of quality as well. Goal setting technique, like any other management tool, works well only when combined with good managerial judgment.

In an educational setting, Principals and teachers jointly define their common goals in terms of expected outcomes. These outcomes can then be used to assess each member's contributions. This approach assumes that if teachers are given the responsibility of developing personal goals in achieving the organization's objectives, are encouraged to have autonomy over attaining their goals, and are involved in methods for evaluating their achievement, they will work harder and be more effective in their jobs.

2.9. Alderfer's ERG theory:

Maslow's research supporting his theory is largely limited to his own clinical experiences. Indeed, he noted that human laboratory studies could not examine the full range of human needs in an acceptable way. Thus he expressed his hope that more research would ultimately be directed toward confirming and reworking his theory (Maslow, 1968).

Alderfer revised Maslow's need hierarchy to align it more closely with the empirical research and labeled ERG theory; where Maslow's need hierarchy was condensed from five needs to just three: Existence, relatedness and growth (Alderfer, 1969).

1- Existence needs: these needs are concerned with providing the basic material and physiological requirements necessary to sustain human existence. They include the needs that Maslow labeled physiological and safety.
2- Relatedness needs: these needs refer to the individuals' desire for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. They encompassed Maslow's social needs and the external component of Maslow's esteem needs.
3- Growth needs: growth needs are those related to the development of human potential. They align with the intrinsic component of Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics of the self-actualization needs.

While Maslow's need hierarchy follows a rigid, steplike progression where lower need must be substantially satisfied before one can move on; the ERG theory argues, like Maslow, that satisfied lower-order needs lead to the desire to satisfy higher-order needs, but multiple needs can be simultaneously active for a given individual.

Moreover, the ERG theory demonstrates that frustration in attempting to fulfill a higher-level need can lead to a regression to a lower need. For instance, if one individual feels deprived of friends and social relationships, his/her desire for more money might increase.

Evans (1998b) finds out that 'restricted' professionals, whose educational ideologies are less developed compared to their colleagues, rate good interpersonal relations higher than other job-related factors; thus highlighting their positions on the belongingness level of the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Whereas, extended professionals are found to be located more at the higher level of the hierarchy: growth or esteem, where they appreciate the opportunities offered by their profession to fulfill their need for achievement. However, most of those teachers also give weight to the relatedness needs. This enables Evans to suggest that Alderfer's refinement of Maslow's hierarchy of need, in that one individual can show different needs from different levels at one time, is more accurate.

Considered as a more valid version of the need hierarchy (Robbins, 1998), the ERG theory gained more support from contemporary researchers as far as motivation in the work situation is concerned (Luthans, 1998). Its major strength lies in the job-specific nature of its focus (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002).

2.10. The Job Characteristics Model of Motivation:

The job characteristics model is one of the more recent theories of work motivation. It has been finally revised by Hackman and Oldham (1980), and it is shown in figure 3.3. There are five core job dimensions creating three critical psychological states that, in turn, result in a number of fruitful personal and work outcomes. The link between the job dimensions, the psychological states, and the outcomes are presented to be moderated by individual growth need strength.

The first psychological state is experienced meaningfulness. Here the individual must feel the work as generally important, valuable and worthwhile. This meaningfulness is the outcome of three job dimensions which are: skill variety, task identity and task significance.

Skill variety represents the degree to which the individual has to stretch his/her skills and abilities in order to achieve the job. Task identity measures the extent to which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work. Last, task

significance discussing the degree to which the job has a significant effect on the well-being of other people. When a job rates high on these three core job dimensions, its meaningfulness increases.

The second psychological state is experienced responsibilities. Here the individual must feel personally responsible and accountable for the results of the work he/she performs. This feeling is prompted when autonomy is granted. The individual is to feel free in scheduling the work and in determining the means to be used in carrying it out.

Third, the knowledge of results fostered by feedback highlights the individual's right in obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. The outcomes of the Job Characteristics Model are of high importance. After experiencing the three psychological states, the individual performs better and is motivated internally. This internal work motivation occurs as a result of the positive feelings an individual experiences from performing effectively. Additional results that have been mentioned are low absenteeism and turnover, and high satisfaction with the work especially satisfaction with opportunities for personal growth and development on the job (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). They argue that the theory does not provide a complete picture of motivational effects of job characteristics; it is rather a guide for research and an aid in planning for changes in work systems. Moreover, Hart (1990, p.36) argues that "[it] remains the dominant theoretical construct in work redesign" (quoted in Barnabé and Burns, 1994, p.171).

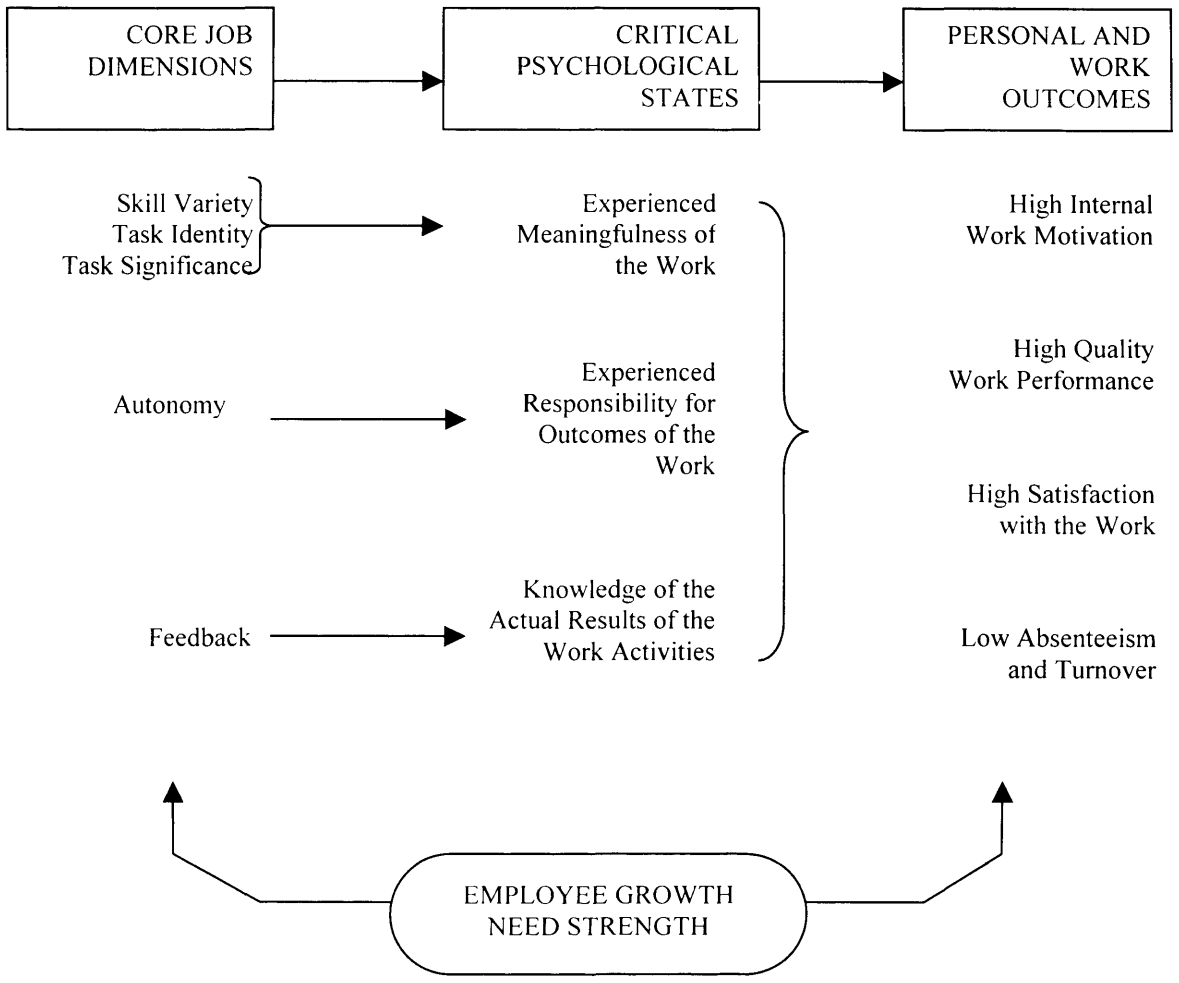
The importance of the Job Characteristics Model in the educational context has been highlighted by Sergiovanni (1995). Principals can use this model to build a conceptual framework to make informed decisions about the nature and structure of the teaching's work. In that way, teachers will be encouraged to perceive that their job is meaningful, they will be able to determine the actual outcomes of their efforts and feel responsible of the results.

As a consequence, Principals will be able to support teachers in becoming part of the school. Sergiovanni (1995) views these conditions as being related to high

intrinsic work motivation, increases in quality performance, high job satisfaction and lower absence and turnover rates.

Moreover, Barnabé and Burns (1994) found that the Job Characteristics Model has utility for the teaching profession. They argue that while recognizing its limitations, school administrators can use it in diagnosing the need for the redesign of the teachers' work.

Figure 3.3: The Job Characteristics Model of work motivation.



Source: Steers and Porter (1991), p.425.

2.11. Conclusion:

The problem of how to motivate employees has puzzled and frustrated managers for generations. One reason the problem has seemed difficult, if not mysterious, is that motivation ultimately comes from within the individual and thus cannot be observed directly. Moreover, most managers are not in a position to change an employee's basic personality structure. The best they can do is try to use personalized incentives to direct the energies of their employees toward organizational objectives.

Since motivation by definition is what energizes, directs and sustains behaviour, many divergent factors can affect in some way the desire of an employee to perform. Thus, a comprehensive theory of motivation in work settings, must consider at least three important sets of variables that constitute the work situation. These are the individual characteristics, the job characteristics and the work environment characteristics and are shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Variables affecting the motivational process in organizational settings

I. Individual characteristics	**II. Job characteristics (examples)**	**III. Work environment characteristics**
1. Interests	Types of intrinsic rewards	1. Immediate work environment • Peers • Supervisor(s)
2. Attitudes • Toward self • Toward job • Toward aspects of the work situation	Degree of autonomy Amount of direct performance feedback	2. Organisational actions • Reward practices • Systemwide rewards • Individual rewards • Organisational climate
3. Needs • Security • Social • Achievement	Degree of variety in tasks	

Source: Steers and Porter (1991), p.20.

These variables must not be viewed as three static lists of items, but a strong integrative approach is to be considered in order to study the relationships between these variables. And in that way, one can achieve a greater understanding of the complexities of the motivational process.

Moreover, a deep knowledge of the motivational processes is a requisite not only for management but also for the employees themselves if all members are to contribute more effectively to the goals of the organization and simultaneously receive greater personal satisfaction.

In finding out the implications of what is discussed here, about motivation in general and teachers' motivation in particular, for the Lebanese situation; the researcher took into account some issues holding true for the whole Lebanese context, in addition to other ones specific to the public schools there. The recession that the Lebanese economy has been passing through, the deterioration of the Lebanese pound's purchasing power towards foreign currencies, in addition to the low salaries that the teachers were suffering from and trying hard to ameliorate through their regular strikes have caused Lebanese public schoolteachers to be not satisfied with their salaries as some now face financial problems. Thus the government has to increase their salaries if it has to increase or enhance their job motivation. If this is true, this situation contradicts the work of Herzberg who found that extrinsic factors such as salaries are considered hygiene factors rather than real motivators. Related to this issue is the school's physical condition, a workplace which, in most of the cases, considered below average, not meeting the minimum standard of what is considered a school with all its tools and laboratories. According to Maslow, these conditions fall under the first level of needs, which, when fulfilled the individual can be motivated by higher level needs. If this is true for the Lebanese case, it means that the Lebanese teachers can not be motivated by other needs such as social, esteem or self-fulfillment. What might be better in explaining the Lebanese teachers' motivation is the Alderfer's ERG theory arguing that individuals can show different active needs simultaneously. Thus, even though the teachers' basic needs are not fully satisfied, those teachers might be motivated by the relatedness needs especially that the Lebanese in general place great importance on the social relationships.

Adams Equity theory casts light on the evaluation by the public schoolteachers of the exchange process, with two different referents, leading to two different outcomes: motivation and demotivation. First, when those teachers consider their colleagues in the private sector as 'referents' and compare their input with the higher input (work load, teaching hours) that the private schools are asking from its teachers and with the lower output (mainly in terms of less job security) those schools are offering to their workforce; public schoolteachers might feel motivated with their current work conditions. The researcher stresses the issue of job security as the trend recently has been for the private schools to lay off a considerable number of their teachers annually, either due to a decrease in the number of enrolled students or due to a possibility the private schools have: to replace the current teachers with new younger, cheaper ones. Second, some of the public schoolteachers might feel demotivated when they consider other low-performing teachers, in the same sector, as referents. The majority of those low-performing teachers are those receiving special treatment (mainly lower work load) due to their connection with politicians.

Regarding Vroom's Expectancy theory and its implication to the Lebanese case, the researcher questions the strength of the public schoolteachers' belief (i.e. expectancy) in their effort-performance relationships, especially after the implementation of the new curriculum and what it requires of special skills and special tools, given that the majority of the Lebanese public schools lack the presence of such equipments. Moreover, the issue of instrumentality, depicting the performance-reward relationship, might be raised by high-performing teachers; given that a single pay system is being adopted by the Lebanese government, disregarding the performance of individual teachers.

In the foregoing discussion, the researcher put light on the implication of what has been discussed abroad on motivation, on the Lebanese public schoolteachers taking into account the information she accumulated about the context of teaching in these schools. However, a clearer and more precise interpretation, based on a mixture of qualitative and quantitative data, was done later in this thesis.

3. Contexts of Teaching:

In analyzing the characteristics of teaching and the factors that determine the retention and the recruitment of people in that profession, Cockburn (2000) discusses the issues of salaries, social status, career prospect, relationships with colleagues, recognition and holidays.

Salaries are found to be barely sufficient to meet the everyday needs of teachers. As one English teacher in Cockburn's research declared that if an individual is in teaching for money, he/she will be in the wrong job (Cockburn, 2000).

In that profession, earnings are 'front-loaded' in the sense that a teacher starts at a high level relative to one's ultimate earning potential (Lortie, 1975: cited in Cockburn, 2000). In that way, teachers will not be optimistic about the issue that additional years of service promise unlimited rewards. Given the inadequate financial incentives, schools find difficulties in recruiting suitable candidates, academically eligible to apply for other, better paid jobs.

Rodgers-Jenkinson and Chapman (1990) argue that "teachers' status in their community [used to] operate as a non-monetary incentive helping to offset the otherwise low wages. [However] in many countries that equation is being threatened by a drop in the perceived value of the job, and by salaries falling too low to be meaningfully offset by such intangibles as status" (quoted in Cockburn, 2000, p.232).

Moreover, teachers ask the government to stop the complain about low standards and substitute this criticism by emphasizing teachers' strengths (Cockburn, 2000). Although the teacher's social standing has declined over the years, it does not have a negative impact on recruitment; but it is a way, for those viewing themselves in lower status roles beforehand, to increase their social status.

Regarding career progression, unlike some other professions, teaching provides a very limited number of stages one can go through and stay in the school. Consequently, the attraction of ambitious individuals is hindered.

Relationship with colleagues is a major factor in the teachers' enjoyment of their jobs. Colleagues are viewed as a source of friendship, a source of support in times of difficulty, as well as a source of strength when impositions are placed upon one (Cockburn, 2000). This social support is found by Argyle (1987) to be a "major source of both job satisfaction and positive mental health" (quoted in Cockburn 2000, p.233)

A distinct characteristic of teaching compared to other jobs is the long holiday period that teachers benefit from in order to recharge their batteries. However, this issue is viewed more important in the process of retention rather than in recruitment (Cockburn, 2000).

Spear et al. (2000) argue that throughout the 1990s the teaching profession in UK is facing the problem of recruiting students to teaching as well as retaining teachers within the profession. Sutcliffe (1997, p.10) attributes the reasons to "the combined effects of years of budget cuts, a funding system which penalises schools staffed by experienced teachers, an ever growing workload, and continuous pressure from politicians and inspectors".

The reasons behind choosing teaching as a career somehow vary between undergraduates, prospective teachers and practicing teachers. Hillman (1994) found that undergraduates in UK rate teaching high on: opportunity for creative input, benefit to society, application of degree subject and working with individuals. And they rate it low on: salary and associated benefits, opportunities for travel, prospects for promotion and good working environment. Hillman (1994) argues that teaching has been rated high on the features that are mainly viewed by undergraduates to be relatively unimportant in selecting a career (cited in Spear et al., 2000). Moreover, the portrayal of teaching in the media was found to have an important negative impact on the attitudes of those undergraduates reluctant to take up teaching as a career.

Prospective teachers are mainly attracted by the rewarding nature of teaching and working with children (Reid and Caudwell, 1997; Barnard, 1998 and Button, 1999). The reasons are somehow similar for the practicing teachers who placed great emphasis on doing a work of moral worth (Poppleton, 1989) and on liking children

(Jones, 1990). Moreover, women's choice of other occupations had been limited. Their basic employment opportunities included teaching, nursing or secretarial work. Whereas, men seemed to be more influenced by their parents and to have no competing career preferences (Spear et al., 2000).

The studies in UK investigating the drawbacks of teaching have identified poor pay, low status, poor working conditions, absence of future prospects, a personality not suited for teaching and the indiscipline of pupils; as major barriers to entering the teaching profession (Barnard, 1998; Smithers and Hill, 1989). Moreover, some student teachers attributed their loss of enthusiasm from taking up teaching posts, to moaning teachers who always complain about low pay, heavy workloads and high stress (Spear et al., 2000).

Maclean (1992) discussed the most important factors for teachers seeking promotion and they are: a wish to increase their influence and power in order to enhance the children's education and a desire to have greater freedom in their job (cited in Spear et al., 2000). On the other hand, not seeking promotion is attributed to the following reasons: the feeling of being too young or inexperienced to accept more responsibility at this stage (Marsh, 1989), the increased level of stress compared to the small pay differentials (Fisher, 1995), the desire of not wanting tc take on more administration (Maclean, 1992; cited in Spear et al., 2000); as well as the burdens of headship and the loss of close relationships with pupils (Mooney, 1999), given that women consider contact with pupils as a major source of job satisfaction (Jones, 1990).

The early retirement of teachers is often caused by stress (Devrell and Jinks, 1994; Leech, 1995; Draper and McMichael, 1996). The origins of this stress are: the increasing demands for accountability and improved personal performance; the increased workloads, paperwork, governor power and parent power; the more challenging children as well as the volume and frequency of changes within the educational system.

Leech (1995) argues that the greater emphasis on improving teacher competence and the teachers' awareness of the possibility of early retirement have led teachers to seek it early. Rainey (1996) state that "teachers have to display considerable

endurance, perseverance and commitment to survive the daily rigours that teaching provides" (cited in Spear et al., 2000, p.27). While Storey (1996) argues that much knowledge and experience is lost through early retirement, Williams (1996) looks at the positive side of it, stating that early retirement enables schools to replace older teachers with younger, cheaper ones who will be given the chance of quick promotion.

3.1. Teacher morale:

Evans (1992) and Varlaam et al., (1992) argue that although there is a great concern about the morale and motivation of teachers, there is a shortage of up-to-date research into this area. However, Evans (1992, 1997a,b) found that leadership, collegiality, professionality, relative perspectives and realistic expectations, are the factors influencing teachers' morale. Varlaam et al., (1992) found that the most important factors are the good relations with pupils together with helping them to achieve, a manageable workload enabling them to enjoy a sufficient free time with their family and themselves, especially for older teachers, as well as good relationships with colleagues and recognition of their efforts from the Principals.

Adequate support and resourcing to cope with the number and speed of recent education reforms, increased salaries, improved conditions of service and a more positive portrayal of the teaching profession by the media; are factors perceived to affect teachers' morale (Spears et al., 2000).

3.2. Job Satisfaction:

Thompson et al. (1997) discussed three types of theoretical framework relating to job satisfaction: content theories, situational theories and process theories. Content theories explain job satisfaction in terms of needs that must be satisfied. Situational theories explain job satisfaction in terms of different combinations of variables such as task characteristics, organisational characterisitics and individual characteristics.

Process theories look at how expectancies, values and needs are combined to lead to job satisfaction.

Herzberg's two factor theory, viewed as a content theory, is widely adopted to explain job satisfaction in the educational setting. Herzberg argues that job satisfaction in created by factors related to the job itself, known as satisfiers or intrinsic factors; whereas job dissatisfaction is created by factors related to the job context, known as extrinsic factors. He adds that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and not dissatisfaction; thus the absence of 'satisfiers' does not lead to job dissatisfaction (see page 89). The major criticism Herzberg has faced is that the discreteness of the two continua is overstated. Nias (1989) proposed a third group of factors known as 'negative satisfiers', those factors are external to the nature of the work performed and have an impact on job satisfaction. She argued that job satisfaction in teaching is not so simple to fit the Herzberg's model because "the work itself" involves the whole school operating as a social system. Consequently, "school organisation and management" and "good relations with colleagues" are factors fitting into Nias' negative satisfiers category.

Teachers derive their job satisfaction most from working with students and developing warm, personal relationships with them; the good relationships with colleagues; the intellectual challenge and opportunities that teaching offers; the autonomy they benefit from in the classroom enabling them to be creative and innovative (Fraser et al., 1998); the supportive, competent and sensitive school management (Varlaam et al., 1992 and Chaplain, 1995); pupil's progress (Varlaam et al., 1992 and Evans, 1997b) as well as recognition (Varlaam et al., 1992; Fraser et al., 1998).

Regarding the factors contributing to teacher's job dissatisfaction, they are mainly work overload, poor pay and the way they are perceived in the society i.e. their status (Fraser et al., 1998; Varlaam et al., 1992; Heafford and Jennison, 1998); as well as the redundancy of staff development (Fraser et al., 1998). Moreover, the inadequacy of resources (Fraser et al., 1998), disruptive pupils and the physical working conditions (Heafford and Jennison, 1998) seems to contribute to job dissatisfaction. Furthermore, the levels of support teachers get from the management (Heafford and Jennison, 1998) and their feeling of not being valued by

management (Varlaam et al., 1992) proved to lead to teachers' dissatisfaction; those are among the factors that Nias identified as negative satisfiers since they are external to the nature of the work carried out in the classroom and have a negative impact on job satisfaction.

The impact of teacher and school characteristics upon teachers' overall job satisfaction has been examined in a number of researches over the past ten years. In general, female teachers show a higher overall job satisfaction compared to male teachers (Chaplain, 1995; Braimoh and Moletsane, 1998). Because female teachers are more satisfied with the personal challenge (Bailey and Bailey, 1993); salary, school working conditions and culture (McCormich and Solman, 1992). And due to the low status attributed to teaching, men show less satisfaction than women in their occupation. However, male teachers appreciate more then female ones their influence on school policies and practices (Fraser et al., 1998).

As for the teacher age and the teaching experience, the studies show that teachers with up to five years' teaching experience are the most satisfied group. Teachers (up to 40-45 years old) with up to 15-20 years of teaching experience are the most dissatisfied group. Fraser et al. (1998) attributes the reason to the personal lives of this group that became more complex because teachers at this level are more likely to be married, have children and acquired mortgages; thus badly needing a career advancement at the time when the prospects of such advance seem to be diminishing. The oldest groups (over 40-45 years old) with the longest experience shows some dissatisfaction with some aspects of their work, but in general they are satisfied. Chaplain (1995) attributes this dissatisfaction to the resources and school facilities. Young teachers who are more satisfied in England (Chaplain, 1995) are less satisfied in Japan (Ninomiya and Okato, 1990) and in Singapore (Sim, 1990). Thus the level of satisfaction is also dependent on specific features of each culture, the educational system and the training of those teachers in these countries.

Research investigating differences in job satisfaction across different-sized schools show no clear trends; however across different school locations, they do. Poppleton and Riseborough (1990) revealed that job satisfaction is greater in rural English schools than in urban ones.

Primary teachers are less satisfied than secondary teachers with the balance between their work and personal lives, whereas secondary teachers are less satisfied with their influence over school policies (Fraser et al., 1998). Australian primary teachers seem to be more satisfied than secondary ones maybe due to the smaller size of primary schools, the more relaxed atmosphere and the more accessible managers (McCormick and Solman, 1992).

Fraser et al., (1998) found that the promoted staff in UK are more satisfied with their influence on school policies; whereas non-promoted teachers are more satisfied with the balance between their work and their personal life as well as through 'congenial colleagues'. McCornick and Solman (1992) found that the Australian promoted staff are more satisfied than classroom teachers by their advancement and their income, but less satisfied with the increased external duties required of them.

3.3. Career ladders:

Lortie (1975, p.84) argues that "compared with most other kinds of middle-class work, teaching is relatively career-less" (Quoted in Luce, 1998, p.4). Teachers have few potential steps upward with these steps holding little significance for them, because most of those steps remove teachers from teaching, thus from classroom. Lortie finds that stages in careers renew ambition and induce employees to put extra efforts. Stages enforce the relationship between effort and reward. Consequently the absence of stages in teachers' jobs makes the relationship between effort and reward useless.

In education, job enrichment is viewed as change from the traditional, isolated teacher role to new and broader role responsibilities. Thus in redesigning teachers' job, career ladders are introduced to improve teacher performance through increasing the chances for teacher incentives (Teacher Development in Schools, 1985; cited in Luce, 1998).

Rosenholz (1986) states that career ladders are associated with extra pay for additional contributions and responsibilities, where experience is usually a condition for advancement (cited in Luce, 1998). The extra responsibilities can take many

forms such as curriculum development or conducting in-service programs. Hart (1987; cited in Luce, 1998) views a career ladder as a plan aimed to reorganize a school so that teachers support colleagues and good teaching is encouraged. In such a way, interaction among teachers is facilitated by generating mentoring and peer coaching activities. Moreover, differences among individuals are recognized to take advantage of them and improve teaching; contributions are a function of capabilities. Personal strengths are to be turned into contributions helping to strengthen the school-wide program. Bacharach et al. (1984) argue that under career ladder, part of the salary is linked to assessments of competence and performance; enabling the school to have a measure of control over teachers' behaviour and encouraging improved professional development and performance (cited in Luce, 1998). English (1992) and Hart (1992) describe career ladders as a way to restructure teaching jobs so that status ranks are more formalized, tasks are matched to abilities and staff improvement are distributed among the professional staff resulting in more capable teachers assuming responsibilities as peer coaches or mentors for those with less experience and competence (cited in Luce, 1998).

The need for mentoring is paramount to the institutional development of new faculty, the revitalization of older faculty and the lengthening of the productive life of all faculties. Tepper et al. (1996) argue that in mentoring, a senior and experienced colleague behaves as a guide who looks after, advises, protects and takes a special interest in a junior colleague's development. It can take an informal relationship with faculty having similar backgrounds; as well as a formal relationship with faculty sharing the same interests. In the last case, the institution defines the process, the relationships and the time frame in which this mentoring is to take place. The mentoring process benefits both sides; the mentors benefit from the inter alia enhanced self-esteem, revitalized work interests and friendship.

3.4. Commitment:

Rosenholz & Simpson (1990) identified four different types of commitment (cited in Seashore Louis, 1998). The first is the commitment to the school as a social unit.

Under this type, teachers are ready to put extra efforts and work that lead to improvements in school climate and general functioning. The second is the commitment to the academic goals of the school where an atmosphere of high expectations is to be built up. The third is the commitment to students as unique whole individuals. Under this type, teachers are involved in extracurricular activities to motivate and support students. The fourth is the commitment to the body of knowledge to perform effective teaching. Here teachers have to be motivated to access and use new ideas in teaching.

In predicting teacher commitment, teacher sense of efficacy, and in finding out the impact of restructuring, Seashore Louis (1998) did not assume in her model the psychological predispositions of individuals (such as the need for autonomy) and the personal characteristics (such as gender or race); those factor that cannot be changed by administrative intervention. She only included the factors affecting the quality of work life. Thus she found that commitment is based on the teacher's ability to develop and use the skills related to his/her work; the respect that teacher gets from colleagues, students, Principal as well as from outsiders; and the feedback the teacher receives from peers and Principal about his/her performance. As for the predictors of teacher sense of efficacy, they are found to be: respect, opportunity to develop and use skills, goal congruence, and ability to control important decisions. Concerning collegiality, its impact seemed to be modest.

Seashore Louis (1998) argues that teachers are most committed in the schools that are most and least restructured, and lower in the schools in the middle category.

3.5. Conclusion:

The lack of research about teachers' motivation and satisfaction in the Lebanese context did not allow the researcher to base her view on previous statistical findings and analysis, before her own proper investigation started. However, the media and the conversations held in the society gave her the chance to picture what was going on.

Asking for a better pay was the main cause of the frequent strikes that the teachers' union was calling for (see p.84). Moreover, in Lebanese society, teachers do not stop talking about their low salaries that barely enable them to survive and about the purchasing power of this salary 25 or 30 years ago that allowed teachers to buy land, construct houses and own many other assets. However, and at the same time, those teachers are not denying, deep down, the job security (for public schoolteachers) and the opportunity they have enabling them to earn a salary (a fixed amount of money at the end of each month) in a country suffering from financial problems and where the economy is in a recession. Thus, this salary, even though low, will not let teachers die from hunger.

Teachers in Lebanon, like in most other countries, benefit from a long summer vacation (around two months and a half), other smaller vacations at Christmas and Easter and other official holidays; something not available in other professions!

The impact of salaries, job security, long holidays, in addition to other issues like physical resources, recognition, promotion, collegiality, leadership and school restructuring on teachers' motivation were studied in this research. Consequently, the researcher was confident to report what she found.

4. The Conceptual Framework:

Whitaker (1995) argues that organizations are learning that:

> "...survival in a fast changing world depends very much on the creativity, flexibility and resilience of staff. Management is adapting from its concern with bureaucracy, maintenance and efficiency to a determination to maximize the abilities of people by attention to the needs and aspirations that each participant brings with them into the organisation. This involves the creation of a management culture in which individuals feel more able to release their energies".

The concept of motivation is a recurring theme in management literature and it offers frameworks to consider the effectiveness of organizations (Stoll and Fink, 1996).

Rajput (1999) argues that the use of these frameworks demonstrates the importance and inter-relatedness of leadership, organizational culture and the associated human resource management policies.

By viewing the different theories of motivation established by Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), McGregor (1960), Porter (1962), Adams (1963), Vroom (1964), McClelland (1965), Locke (1968), Alderfer (1969), Hackman and Oldham (1980), the researcher was equipped with a useful infrastructure from which to construct a conceptual framework for this study. Each theory has studied different aspects of jobs from which to view motivational factors. The researcher looked at all the theories collectively and explained how they interact.

One specific theory was not able to fully explain the teachers' behaviour. This behaviour was viewed from different perspectives. Thus, each theory had something special and critical to offer for this study to succeed. Within this framework of diversity, importance was given to the way in which characteristics of the individual, the workplace, the Principal, and the organization can interact to influence the motivation of teachers in the workplace.

Teachers come to their schools bringing with them different interests, attitudes and needs. These individual characteristics, coupled with the likelihood and desirability of rewards, as well as the physical and psychological environment in which they perform their duties, can have a major influence on work motivation. For instance, it is not expected that a teacher with a negative attitude towards his/her work to perform as effectively as one with positive attitude.

Concerning the needs, it is important to look at Maslow's hierarchy of needs and find out where the individual stands on this hierarchy in such a way to bring him/her up and up, by offering him/her the higher-level needs. If the teacher's lower needs are satisfied, and this teacher demonstrates a high need for achievement, it becomes the role of the administrators to create a positive milieu that provides increased recognition, self-esteem and opportunity for self-actualization for teachers, whom Herzberg labeled "motivation seekers". Thus, in addition to what is mentioned above, the leadership style of the Principal plays an important role in teacher's motivation.

The administrators have to determine the level of teachers' motivation as they control the feedback and incentives that many teachers perceive as rewards needed for their long-term satisfaction and motivation.

In his two-factor theory, Herzberg suggests that improvements are required to the intrinsic satisfiers in order to attract and retain teachers. However, the goals set out in the 1998 Green Paper "Teachers Meeting the Challenge of Change" (GB. DFEE, 1998) to recruit, retain and motivate teachers, work on improving extrinsic dissatisfiers such as status, better pay and career structures, better support and training; as well as intrinsic satisfiers such as the introduction of a greater focus on teaching and the implementation of higher standards (cited in Spears et al., 2000). In addition to the intrinsic satisfiers of the teaching process and autonomy, the negative satisfiers of school organization and management seem to affect job satisfaction. Based on these factors, Mercer and Evans (1991) advice the implementation of the industrial job enrichment model that grants additional authority, increases accountability, creates natural work units, provides direct feedback and introduces new tasks.

Teaching incentive systems have typically centered around two alternatives; intrinsic and extrinsic ones. Dinham and Scott (2000) identified a third alternative, named school-based factors, consisting of school leadership, school climate and school infrastructure (cited in Mertler, 2002). Thus, the researcher realized the importance of studying all the factors affecting teachers' motivation in order to end up with a full and comprehensive view of what motivate the Lebanese teachers.

Since schools operate in the service sector, they are labor intensive; thus, the human force of leadership is essential in order to keep teachers motivated who in turn work for the best of their schools. This is why Sergiovanni (1995) considered Principals as "human engineers", ensuring the smoothness of the human relations, providing support, encouragement and growth opportunities for their staffs.

The importance of school leadership in motivating teachers is also raised by Fidler and Atton (1999) who argue that "[e]very member of staff needs to know that somebody else cares about them and their work performance" (p.191-192). In assessing the suitability of one leadership style, Graeff (1997), Day et al. (2001) and Hallinger (2003) recommended the application of a contingency leadership model that conceptualizes leadership as a developmental process, and that moves beyond the polarized concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. As Hallinger and Heck (1996) argue that Principal leadership cannot be studied meaningfully without reference to the school context. Consequently, one type of leadership can be effective at a point in time and under specific conditions and circumstances. At a later stage, the schools may be in need of another type of leadership. For instance, schools at risk may initially require a more forceful top-down approach implemented by an instructional leader who sets clear, specific and academically stressed goals in order to let the school move in the required direction. The Principal under this approach is the one who is directing and orchestrating improvements in the school. He/she seeks to influence conditions that directly impact the quality of curriculum and instruction delivered to students in the classrooms; i.e. 'first-order' changes in the school. Thus, when schools are failing to provide quality education, there will be the need for a strong instructional leader to achieve quick results.

However, Jackson (2000) and Fullan (2002) argue that school improvement is a journey and that different types of leadership are suitable at different stages of this journey. While moving on, to the desired direction, teachers' commitment needs to be supported by a strong transformational leader who emphasizes an empowerment strategy and focuses on stimulating change through bottom-up participation (Day et al., 2001; Jackson, 2000). Moreover, this leader seeks to generate 'second-order effects' by enhancing the capacity of others (e.g. teachers) in the school to produce first-order effects on learning (Lambert, 1998; Leithwood and Louis, 1999; cited in Hallinger, 2003). Hopkins and Jackson (2002), and Mitchell and Sackney (2000) stress the importance of 'capacity building' in sustaining school improvement, and Hopkin and Jackson (2002, p.95) argue that "distributed leadership along with social cohesion and trust" is the essence of the capacity-building model (quoted in Harris, 2004; p.12).

Thus, the review of theories discussing the different leadership styles and the up to date research conducted on the application of these styles in the schools; had clarified the idea in the researcher's mind, guiding her in setting the research questions for this research. For instance, the researcher's will to find out the extent to which the instructional leadership style is adopted by the Principals in few Lebanese public schools, came in response to current research arguing that an instructional leader is required at the early stages of school restructuring; given that the Lebanese schools were at these stages.

This conceptual framework is used to guide the quantitative and qualitative research of what makes the differences in teacher motivation in the different public schools chosen for this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

1. Introduction:

This study aims to examine if an influence exists between Principal leadership style and teacher motivation; and to find out those motivational strategies that, if used by the Principal, will lead to higher teachers' motivation. Moreover, it aims to identify the teachers' views on what constitutes professional practices, through giving them the chance to reveal their unsatisfied needs. Furthermore, the objective of this study is to reveal the differences as well as the similarities between the two sets of schools selected, in a way to identify the characteristics of the high-achieving schools as well as the low-achieving ones in terms of the leadership functions performed by their Principals and how their teachers are motivated. In addition to the interesting objective that excited the researcher to find out the causes of the high or low school performance. Consequently, the research questions were formulated in the following way:

1- What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?
2- What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?
3- What Principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by school Principals to improve teacher motivation?
4- What are the factors affecting the school performance level?

This chapter takes the view of Hitchcock and Hughes (1995, p.21) who suggest "that ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn, give

rise to methodological considerations; and these, in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection" (cited in Cohen et al, 2000, p.3).

2. Choice of ontology:

The research might be examined through one of the following three major lenses: one is the scientific and positivistic methodologies. The second is the naturalistic and interpretive methodologies. The third is the methodologies from critical theories (Cohen et al., 2000).

The first, based on the positivistic paradigm, works by the creation of theoretical framework that can be tested by experimentation, replication and refinement. It hungers for objectivity, measurability, patterning and the construction of laws and rules of behaviour. The second, based on the interpretive paradigm, hungers to understand and interpret the world in terms of its actors. The third, based on the paradigm of critical educational research, considers the political and ideological context of educational research.

Positivism claims that the clearest possible ideal of knowledge is provided by science. However, positivism becomes less effective in studying the human behaviour. Becker (1970) points out that "people actively construct their social world- they are not the 'cultural dopes' or passive dolls of positivism" (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.21-2).

The interpretive approach secures fidelity to the phenomena being investigated since it believes that events and individuals are unique and largely non-generalizable as they are highly affected by the context in which they operate. Moreover, since reality is considered to be complex, "thick descriptions" are essential rather than reductionism (Geertz, 1973; quoted in Cohen et al., 2000, p.22). Under the interpretive paradigm, theory emerges and is grounded from particular situations; thus, it follows research and not precedes it.

The paradigm of critical educational research, an emerging approach to educational research, argues that, while the positivist paradigm focuses on observed phenomena and the interpretive one focuses on meanings and interpretations; both neglect the political and ideological contexts of much educational research. "... [Both] paradigms

are essentially technicist, seeking to understand and render more efficient an existing situation, rather than to question or transform it" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.28-9). The critical theory seeks to realize a society based on equality and democracy for all its members by emancipating the disempowered, removing the causes of inequality and implementing individual freedoms within a democratic society. In education, the critical research questions the relationships between school and society. It investigates the way power is produced and reproduced through education, by looking at the ideological interests served by the curricula adopted and their impact on causing or reducing inequality (Cohen et al., 2000).

The researcher here aimed to examine situations through the eyes of teachers in order to find out how they are motivated and whether their Principals' leadership styles have any impact on their motivation. Furthermore, she had selected a few typical schools to conduct her study there (the selection mode is explored deeply later in this chapter, under sampling). She has had to respect the special context of the participants because behaviour and, therefore, data are socially situated and context dependent. Consequently, the researcher has assumed the interpretive paradigm.

3. Epistemology:

In this section, the researcher discussed how she had constructed a trustworthy study by reflecting on issues of reliability and validity, triangulation, translation of the research instruments and by discussing the sampling technique based on which the sample had been constructed.

3.1. Trustworthiness:

By definition, trustworthiness means that a study should be both reliable and valid (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; cited in Seale, 1999). The literature of research underlines certain criteria which judge the quality of research. Yin and the US General Accounting Office have used concepts that have been employed in certain tests. These are: trustworthiness, credibility, conformability, and data dependability (Yin,

1994). The COSMOS corporation outlined the nature of each test related to trustworthiness (table 4.1).

Table 4.1: trustworthiness. (COSMOS Corporation quoted in Yin, 1994).

Test	Case Study Tactic	Phase of Research
Construct Validity	- Use Multiple Sources of Evidence - Have key informants review draft case study report	- Data Collection - Data Collection
Internal Validity	- Do pattern matching - Explanation building - Time series analysis	- Data Analysis - Data Analysis - Data Analysis
External Validity	- Use replication logic in Multiple Case Studies	- Research Design
Reliability	- Use Case Study Protocol - Develop Case Study Data-Base	- Data Collection - Data Collection

In order to fit the criteria developed by the COSMOS Corporation into the current study, a triangulation of research techniques was employed as sources of evidence which were put together in an interconnected process where a complementary chain of connected evidence is joined together. In addition, the pilot study gave support to the validity of the study, (both discussed in separate sections in this chapter).

The multiple-use of instruments is a basic characteristic of triangulated research designs. The rationale behind using multiple methods is to "increase the generalisability, and reassure oneself that the events and processes in one well-described setting were not wholly idiosyncratic" (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.151).

Another method which aimed at securing the internal validity of the research is pattern matching which is a technique used alongside with explanation building of

the data compiled. In addition, replication was employed. Replication means that each school under study is carefully selected in a way that produces two main outcomes. The cases would either (a) predict similar results (literal replication) or (b) produce contrasting results but predictable reasons (theoretical replication) (Yin, 1994). Since the sample selected for this study dealt with ten schools, five high-achieving and five low-achieving; the researcher was able to study the first five schools predicting similar results and contrasting them with the results obtained from studying the other five schools, given that the contrasting results were predictable.

Qualitative researchers have proposed modifications to the positivist criteria of validity and reliability. Lincoln and Guba (1985) claim that four questions, emanating from the conventional paradigm, have been asked of research reports. They are truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality.

The first attribute concerns the truth value of study. This represents the degree of confidence that one can hold in the truth of the findings of specific research on particular subjects and in particular context. This is nothing other than the internal validity originally found in the quantitative paradigm and that reflects preoccupations with establishing the adequacy of causal statements. However, the naturalistic paradigm assumes that cause and effect can not be distinguished. For instance, the positivist paradigm considers, as its truth value, that a single tangible reality is to be revealed; whereas, the naturalistic research makes "the assumption of multiple constructed realities" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.295; Quoted in Seale 1999, p.447). As a result Lincoln and Guba propose that truth value is to be replaced by "credibility". Credibility is safeguarded through prolonged engagement in the field, persistent observation, triangulation, exposure of the research report to criticism by a disinterested peer reviewer as well as a search for negative cases that challenge emerging hypotheses and require their reformulation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, cited in Seale 1999). Moreover respondent validation through "member checks" remains the most important technique for building up credibility. Here, research reports are to be given to the people on whom the research has been conducted in order to give them the chance to add further information, to correct factual errors and to check the adequacy of the analysis.

The second attribute is that of applicability, representing the degree to which the results of a particular research can be applicable in other contexts or with other respondents (i.e. generalisability). Thus, it measures the ability to generalize from a sample to a population with the untested assumption that the receiving population is similar to that of the sending sample (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; cited in Seale 1999). This is for the positivists who assume that variables have to be isolated and controlled and samples randomized. However, for ethnographers human behaviour is "infinitely complex, irreducible, socially situated and unique" (Cohen et. al. 2000, p.109). As a result Schofield (1993, p.200) suggests that in qualitative research, it is crucial to supply a detailed, rich description of the setting studied so that others can judge the extent to which findings from one piece of research are generalizable to another situation (cited in Cohen et al., 2000). Consequently, Lincoln and Guba (1985) replace the term "applicability" or external validity as conventionally conceived by the term "transferability".

The third attribute is the consistency or as conventionally known by reliability, is proposed by Lincoln and Guba to be replaced by "dependability"; referring to "whether the process of the study is consistent, reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.278). Brock-Utne (1996) argues that qualitative research, being holistic, strives to record the multiple interpretations of intention in and meanings given to situations and events. Dependability is achieved by auditors conducting an audit trail for adequacy, "this consists of the researchers' documentation of data, methods and decisions made during a project, as well as its end product" (Seale, 1999, p.45).

Auditing is also useful in establishing "conformability", Lincoln and Guba's fourth criterion, designed to replace the conventional criterion of neutrality or objectivity (Seale, 1999). It is sometimes termed "external reliability" with the emphasis on the replicability of a study by others (LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; cited in Miles & Huberman 1994). Guba and Lincoln (1981) argue that confirmability is to ensure that "conclusions depend on the subjects and conditions of the inquiry, rather on the inquirer" (cited in Miles & Huberman 1994, p.278). Table 4.2 summarizes Lincoln and Guba's translation of terms.

Many qualitative researchers started with neglecting the positivist criteria and substituting it with interpretivist alternatives. However, it seems that Lincoln & Guba's (1985) "criteria depend on a contradictory philosophical position, since their belief in "multiple constructed realities" rather than a "single tangible reality" (p.294-5), which lies at the heart of the constructivist paradigm, is not consistent with the idea that criteria for judging the trustworthiness of an account are possible" (Seale, 1999, p.46).

Table 4.2: The positivist terms and their translation under the naturalistic paradigm

Conventional inquiry	Naturalistic inquiry
Truth value (Internal validity)	Credibility
Applicability (External validity)	Transferability
Consistency (Reliability)	Dependability
Neutrality (Objectivity)	Conformability

Source: Seale, 1999, p. 45.

Dissatisfied with this problem, Guba & Lincoln (1989, 1994) have considered a fifth criterion entitled "authenticity" confirmed by the relativist view where "research accounts do no more than represent a sophisticated but temporary consensus of views about what is to be considered true (cited in Seale, 1999).

The issues outlined in the foregoing discussion have at their core a concern with the relationship between claims and evidence. If a research makes claims about the nature of the social realm that it tries to explain, then readers should expect to find good evidence in support of these claims. Searching for evidence within a fallibilistic framework that considers claims as always subject to possible revision by new evidence, is the qualitative researchers' target who can employ triangulation in order to achieve this. Consequently the quality of the research can be improved, because triangulation has "a desire to converge on a single version of reality by gathering

more than one perspective on this" (Seale, 1999, p.53). Cohen et al. (2000, p.114) argue that "triangulation bridges issues of reliability and validity".

3.2. Triangulation:

In social sciences, the researcher uses both quantitative and qualitative data in order to fully explain the richness and complexity of human behaviour. In such circumstances, triangular techniques attempt to map out all this complexity. Triangulation refers to the use of more than one method of data collection from several different groups of people within a single study. It encourages this flexibility and can, in the analysis of the output of the different methods, add some depth to the analysis and potentially increase the validity of the data and consequently the analysis made of them (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989). By employing several methods at once, the biases of any one method might be cancelled out by those of others (Seale, 1999).

Triangular techniques are suitable when a more holistic view of educational outcomes is sought (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Reviewing the objectives sought in this research, a holistic examination of managerial policies and practices in the Lebanese educational system led the researcher to the employment of triangular techniques in an attempt to safeguard the trustworthiness of the study, produce a more comprehensive view about it and develop a connected chain of theoretical evidence.

Triangulation of methods in social science research is recommended because of the limitations of quantitative data (Denzin, 1970; cited in Seale, 1999). First, are the techniques such as structured questionnaires, which are designed for the collection of quantitative data. Second, are the problems involved in relying solely upon objective, quantifiable measures of social phenomena without considering the interpretations and meanings individuals assign to events and situations in a qualitative way (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989).

Sieber (1973) lists reasons of combining the qualitative and quantitative data at each phase of the research process (cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.41). They are summarized in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: reasons of combining qualitative and quantitative data at each phase of the research process.

Phase	**Quantitative Data**	**Qualitative Data**
Design	Finds a representative sample and locates deviant cases.	Aids with conceptual development and instrumentation.
Data collection	Supplies background data, gets overlooked information and helps to avoid "elite bias".	Makes access and data collection easier.
Data analysis	Shows the generality of specific observations, corrects the "holistic fallacy" and casts new light on qualitative findings.	Validates, interprets, clarifies and illustrates quantitative findings. It strengthens and revises theory.

Moreover, Firestone (1987) argues that while quantitative studies lead to more precise and generalizable results through de-emphasizing individual judgment and stressing the use of established procedures; qualitative studies overcome the "abstraction inherent in quantitative studies" through rich depiction and strategic comparison across cases (cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.41).

Thus, in order not to miss the advantages inherent in the quantitative as well as the qualitative studies, the researcher has triangulated the data obtained from questionnaires with the data gathered from interviews and documents. In such a way, she secured a rich analysis of the schools under investigation.

3.3. Translation:

Researchers trying to end up with valid and reliable results are always worried about the translation of psychometric tests when these tests are to be tested in different cultures. However, in this research, the task is somehow easier because the instruments are developed with the intention of testing them only in the Lebanese culture; consequently the construct bias is less likely to occur (Van de Vijver and Hambleton, 1996).

Spoken language is, almost without exception, learned in a social setting. This setting includes material and behavioural referents for speech, rewards for speaking in a certain way about specific topics, and feelings towards those who hear and towards those who provide models of speech. Speakers in different language communities will have different things to say, and we may expect that learning a language carries with it learning of content (Ervin, 1964).

For the purpose of this study, the researcher has prepared the research instruments (i.e. questionnaire and interview) in English, although she knew that she has to translate them to Arabic because most of the Lebanese public schools' teachers are French educated and they barely understand English.

Nasser and Diefenbach (1996) state that to translate attitudinal scales tests, one of the following three methods is appropriate: the cross-translation or committee translation method, the back-translation and the decentring method. The committee translation has a panel of experts who translate from a source to a target language. Under the back-translation method, experts translate from a source language to the target language and then back to the source. The source language must closely resemble the back-translation in order to get valid results. As for the decentring method, translators translate the target language and modify the source to fit the equivalent translation in the target language.

The committee method was used to translate the instruments from source to target language. Three translators translated the instruments. They examined each statement carefully and tailored the translation to the target population. Then, a comparison was made among the three translators on syntactical, vocabulary and structure equivalence. A blind expert rater was asked to rate the translations based

on a degree of convergence of the translated items by the three main translators. Given the combined linguistic and psychological expertise of the three translators and the expert rater, the quality of the translation is secured. The peer review was significantly important in enhancing the reliability of the research instruments. The translators' professional backgrounds are shown in table 4.4: degrees and experience in the profession.

Table 4.4: Professional Translators' background

Translator	Degree	Years of experience
A	The researcher herself	8 years
B	PhD	5 years
C	PhD	7 years
Expert translator	B.A. in translation	9 years

3.4. Sampling:

The main methods of sampling are probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Schofield, 1996; cited in Cohen et al. 2000), as well as other forms of sampling mainly used in ethnographic research. In a probability sample, every member in the population has an equal chance of being selected, whereas in a non-probability sample, some members will be definitely included and others will be definitely excluded, (i.e. there is an unequal chance of certain people being chosen).

There are many types of probability samples: First, the simple random sampling where each member in the wider population has an equal chance of being selected and this selection is entirely independent of the next. Second, the systematic

sampling where the selection of subjects from a population list is done in a systematic rather than a random fashion; for example the researcher may end up picking out every third name on the population list. In order to safeguard the characteristics of a probability sample, the initial list of the population as well as the starting point for the systematic selection, are to be selected randomly (Cohen et al., 2000). Third, the stratified sampling where the population is divided into homogenous group of similar characteristics from which subjects are selected randomly. Fourth, the cluster sampling which is widely used in small scale research involves the selection of a cluster, a geographically close cluster for instance, and then test all the subjects in this cluster. Fifth, the stage sampling which is an extension of cluster sampling, involves the selection of sample in stages, that is, taking samples from samples (Cohen et al., 2000). Sixth, the multi-phase sampling that differs from the stage sampling in one thing: the criterion based on which the selection of the sample is made at each stage, changes from phase to phase.

There are many types of non-probability samples (Cohen et al., 2000). First, the convenience sampling (known also as accidental or opportunity sampling) where the researcher simply selects subjects from those to whom he or she has easy access. Second, the quota sampling which is equivalent to the stratified sampling (Bailey, 1978; cited in Cohen et al., 2000). However it differs from this probability sampling in that the selection of the subjects in the sample respects the proportions in which they are found in the wider population. Third, the dimensional sampling is a refinement of the quota sampling. It works by finding out different factors of interest in a population and then selecting at least one respondent of every combination of those factors (Cohen et al., 2000). Fourth, the purposive sampling where the selection of subjects is based on their judgment and their typicality. This kind of sampling is "unashamedly selective and biased", therefore it does not pretend to represent the wider population as probability samples do, because they are selected for a particular purpose to represent particular perspectives within the wider population (Cohen et al., 2000, p.104). Fifth, the snowball sampling where the researcher starts with a small number of individuals possessing the characteristics he or she is looking for, who in turn, put the researcher in contact with new individuals suitable for the research.

Because probability samples seek representativeness of the wider population, they will be useful when the researcher wishes to be able to make generalizations. Whereas a non probability sample simply represents itself, thus, it will be suitable when the researcher does not intend to generalize the findings beyond the tested sample (Cohen et al., 2000). Moreover, it is far less complicated to set up and is considerably less expensive.

Kuzel (1992) argues that qualitative samples tend to be purposive rather than random (cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1994, p.27) argue that "you cannot study everyone everywhere doing everything". The selection of a sampling strategy is dependent on the purpose of the research, the time scales and constraints on the research methodology (Cohen et al., 2000). For instance "qualitative researchers usually work with small samples of people, nested in their context and studied in-depth – unlike quantitative researchers, who aim for larger numbers of context-stripped cases and seek statistical significance" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.27). The reason might be addressed to the social processes having "a logic and a coherence that random sampling can reduce to uninterpretable sawdust" (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.27). Since quantitative researchers wish to be able to make generalizations, they work with probability samples seeking representations of the wider population.

The other forms of sampling used in ethnographic research (LeCompte and Preissle, 1993) are: critical-case sampling, typical-case sampling, unique-case sampling and reputational-case sampling. Under the critical-case sampling, the selected people, for instance, are those who possess a set of characteristics that is highly significant for their behaviour. In a typical-case sampling, the characteristics of a typical person or case are to be identified first, then the selection of the sample is to be made from those typical persons or cases. Under a unique-case sampling, the selection of cases occurs from cases identified as rare or unusual on one or more criteria. Reputational-case sampling is somehow equivalent to the unique-case sampling with

one additional characteristic that is, the selection of the sample is based on the recommendation of experts in the field (Cohen et al., 2000).

Cohen et al. (2000) argue that the quality of a research is much dependent on the appropriateness of the methodology and instrumentation as well as on the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been assumed. The researcher had to pay due caution in selecting the sampling method and in deciding about the sample size. In addition to time and cost, the type of research also must be taken into consideration while determining the sample size. For instance, a survey style, where inferential statistics are required, usually needs a large sample. However, qualitative research is more likely to consider small size samples. In quantitative research, given the level of accuracy and the level of probability that the researcher is willing to accept in his or her study, he or she can calculate the precise sample number.

Patton (1980) discusses a few types of sampling that are useful in naturalistic research; of which one type has been highlighted in this research, and it is sampling extreme or deviant cases (cited in Cohen et al., 2000). By sampling extreme cases, the researcher in this study was able to gain information about unusual cases that may be particularly troublesome or enlightening. She was interested in the Lebanese intermediate public schools. She asked from the CERD the names of the top five schools considered as the most achieving schools in Lebanon, as well as the names of five low-achieving ones. The CERD rates those schools as high or low achievers based on different criteria such as: the percentage of the students' success in the official examinations over the last five years, the quality of teachers in terms of attending all training sessions and their ability to implement the new curriculum without major problems, the relationship of the school (Principal and teachers) with the society (especially students' parents), the physical condition of the school's building and the equipment available (computers, laboratories).

So the five high-achieving schools are those with numbers 1,2,3,4 and 5 of the 761 intermediate public schools ranked in terms of their performance (from the high-performing to the low-performing school); however, the five low-achieving schools are not those with numbers 761,760,759,758 and 757. The reason is that schools

with the lowest rank orders are schools with special characteristics. The researcher considered them special as she believed that there is a set of minimum required characteristics making up a school which they did not fulfill. For the purpose of this research, she was not interested, for instance, to include in her sample schools where students from two or three different grades are combined in one classroom and the teacher allocating a part of each hour to each group of pupils (this form of class organization is very unusual in Lebanese schools and only happens when teachers have to use it because of small number of pupils); or schools where there are only one teacher and one Principal (usually in very remote areas); or schools where the number of teachers is higher than the number of students, or schools where there are 4 teachers and 4 students for instance (see table 1.3). Consequently, the five low-achieving schools in this study were selected from a pool of low-performing schools, where schools here refer to a 'school' by all its means: a school with one principals, many teachers, many students making up all the grades operating as normal classes.

After obtaining the names of these ten schools, the researcher was able to test her instruments there. It was interesting to compare the two sets of schools. The researcher knew that the sample size was relatively small; however she wishes to expand her research at a later stage (after completing her PhD research).

Tables 4.5 and 4.6, supplied by the CERD 2001, show the distribution of the different types of the public schools in the different Lebanese geographical areas, and the number of the teachers in the intermediate Lebanese public schools respectively. Out of the 761 intermediary schools, the researcher was interested in only ten ones, five high-performing schools and five low-performing ones.

In discussing the selection mode of the interviewees, it is important to note that the researcher had no other choice than interviewing those teachers who were willing to be interviewed. When the Principal in each school introduced the researcher to the teachers in the faculty lounge during the break time, the researcher was given the chance to explain the aim of her presence and asked for volunteers to conduct the

interview with. The researcher picked up two teachers; those who she felt showed most interest in what was to be discussed; i.e. those who automatically went to the researcher and started chatting with her, in comparison with other teachers who remained at their places as if the topic does not concern them. Then, the researcher set with those teachers individually a convenient time to conduct the interview. The researcher had no problem with this 'non-random' selection, known as opportunistic or convenience sampling (selecting from whoever happens to be available, (Cohen et al., 2000)); as she believed that those excited teachers have something important to share with her. This mode of sampling "saves time and money and spares the researcher the effort of finding less amenable participants" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.144). However, the researcher took this mode of selection into consideration believing that the views of those interviewees might not end up representing the view of all the teachers in that school, and that the qualitative data will end up being skewed.

Table 4.5: The distribution of the different types of the public schools over the different geographical areas.

Mouhafaza	**Pre-schools**	**Primary schools**	**intermediate**	**secondary**	**Total # of public schools**
Beirut	0	17	29	14	60
Beirut suburbs	1	20	63	24	108
Mount Lebanon	2	18	129	31	180
North Lebanon	31	102	236	46	415
Al-Bekaa	0	54	150	35	239
South Lebanon	0	41	80	24	145
Al-Nabatié	0	32	74	18	124
Total	**34**	**284**	**761**	**192**	**1,271**

Given that this PhD study is based on a small-scale survey, the researcher's primary aim was to find out what were people's views in particular settings rather than to generalize from her findings to the whole Lebanese educational setting.

Consequently she was convinced that those interviewees were ready to make her qualitative data richer as they were ready and willing to talk and to share their thoughts with the interviewer who was ready to ask, to listen and to note. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that it is 'unimportant' to make generalizations, but the important objective in a naturalistic research is informational, "to provide such a wealth of detail that the uniqueness and individuality of each case can be represented" (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.144).

Table 4.6: The distribution of the intermediate public schools with the corresponding number of teachers, over the different geographical areas.

Mouhafaza	**the total # of the Lebanese intermediate public schools**	**The # of teachers in these schools**
Beirut	29	1,002
Mount Lebanon (including Beirut suburbs)	192	6,366
North Lebanon	236	7,654
Al-Bekaa	150	3,995
South Lebanon	80	2,598
Al-Nabatie	74	1,940
Total	**761**	**23,555**

4. Access & Ethics:

There is no doubt that the most crucial aspects of the conduct of school-based research is gaining access to the area or field being explored and the responsibilities and conduct of the researcher while doing the research. Access and ethics are therefore important issues that the researcher must pay attention to (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989).

To gain access to the schools in this study, the researcher worked by the advice of Bell (1987) who argues that:

> Permission to carry out an investigation must always be sought at an early stage... it is advisable to make a formal, written approach to the individuals and organisation concerned, outlining your plans. Be honest. If you are carrying out an investigation in connection with a diploma or degree course, say that is what you are doing. If you feel the study will probably yield useful and/or interesting information, make a particular point of that fact – but be careful not to claim more than the investigation merits (Quoted in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.35).

The researcher got permission to access some of the public schools in Lebanon from the Ministry of Education. Since the ten schools selected belong to different geographical areas, called Mouhafaza, the researcher had also to make sure that each educational director in each educational area knows about this research and informs the schools to be accessed by the researcher. The Ministry of Education was not easy in giving the permission, it asked for a legal document describing the objectives of the study and approved by the University of Leicester.

However, what it is crucial in interpretative research is not only gaining physical access to the research setting, but also building trust and developing relationships at the sites with the participants. The problem that might face the researcher is gaining acceptance and cooperation from the parties concerned. Gaining entry to a setting, will not assure access to all the data available within it. Because not everyone may be willing to talk, and even the most willing participant will not be prepared, or perhaps even able, to divulge all the information available to him/her (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). The issue of access and acceptance has been highlighted because it offers the best opportunity for the researcher to present her credential as a serious investigator and establish her own ethical position with respect to her proposed topic (Cohen & Manion, 1994).

The researcher conducting research in schools, like all other social researchers, was faced with ethical and moral dilemmas. Cavan (1977) defines ethics as:

> a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others. Being ethical limits the choices we can make in the pursuit of truth. Ethics say that while truth is

> good, respect for human dignity is better, even if, in the extreme case, the respect of human nature leaves one ignorant of human nature (Quoted in Cohen and Manion 1994, p.359).

The reasons for this dilemma might arise from the nature of the investigated topic, as well as from the methods used to obtain valid and reliable data. To face this ethical problem, the researcher must establish trust, and guarantee confidentiality and anonymity. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) stated that, "the obligation to protect the anonymity of research participants and to keep research data confidential is all-inclusive. It should be fulfilled at all costs unless arrangements to the contrary are made with the participants in advance" (quoted in Cohen and Manion, 1994).

To secure anonymity, information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity. Names and other personal identifying means were not mentioned in the questionnaires. As for the interviews, the researcher promised confidentiality. It is obvious that the more sensitive, intimate or discrediting the information, the greater is the obligation on the researcher's part to make sure that confidentiality is guaranteed all the way out in spirit and letter (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

Actually, in this research, like in all social psychological research, the researcher is interested in "human" behaviour rather than in the behaviour of specific individuals, as Aronson and Carlsmith (1969) note (cited in Cohen and Manion, 1994). Thus, the researcher has no interest at all in linking the person as a unique, named individual to actual behaviour, and the research data were transferred to coded, unnamed data sheets.

To maintain professional integrity, the researcher explained the aims and the objectives of the research to all the parties involved. Moreover, she ensured the viability of this research by demonstrating the adequacy of its design and the appropriateness of the data-collection techniques chosen (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989).

A short covering letter was designed and accompanied the questionnaire, where the researcher has introduced herself with the contact telephone and e-mail address and

inviting the participants to feel free to contact her for further clarification. The researcher also has explained the aim of the study and stressed its importance and benefits on a further explanation of the Lebanese teachers' motivation. Moreover, the researcher has provided assurances of confidentiality, anonymity and non-traceability; and has concluded by thanking respondents in advance for their cooperation.

Being aware of the sensitive ethical aspects of this study, the researcher ensured that all participants know that their involvement in the project is strictly voluntary, that they know they would remain anonymous and of course all their responses will be treated confidentially. For the questionnaires and interviews, teachers did not mention their names. However, the researcher was interested in identifying each school separately; thus, she gave each of the ten schools a new name to refer to while analyzing the data and presenting it. It is a fruit name for the high-achieving schools and a vegetable name for the low-achieving ones. The data for the study remained anonymous and confidential.

5. Data Collection:

The conceptual framework, the research questions and the sampling techniques adopted in this study have given the researcher some direction by highlighting what she wanted to find out, from whom and why, which in turn , led to the question of how getting that information. Instrumentation includes specific methods for data collection: They may be looking for qualitative as well as quantitatively organized information, and may be loosely to tightly structured (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Much depends on the level of analysis the researcher wishes to undertake.

Since the researcher wished to gain deeper analysis of the schools under investigation, she had to avoid a lot of prior instrumentation. As Miles & Huberman (1994, p.35) argue that "qualitative research lives and breathes through seeing the context, it is the particularities that produce the generalities, not the reverse". To achieve this objective, she had used the semi-structured interview. Moreover, the researcher wished to compare those schools in order to explain any literal or

theoretical replication. Consequently she found herself in need of a lot of preinstrumentation, thus a questionnaire. In addition to the sheer manageability of data collection, the questionnaire enabled the researcher to get from teachers a comparably measured response about what motivate them and how their Principal leads the school they teach in.

After all, the quality of the data generated as well as the analyses carried out of them are dependent on the design of the instruments used in the investigation. The semi-structured interview and the questionnaire used in this research are discussed later in this section.

In addition to those two formal research instruments that were adopted in this study, the researcher had a kind of informal discussion with each school Principal. This discussion enabled her to know more about the principal's biography and about each school in terms of the SES of its students, the difficulty that its teachers faced in implementing the new curriculum, the readiness of its teachers to attend the training sessions held by the CERD, the appropriateness of the school's building physical conditions, the availability of laboratories and other physical instruments that deemed necessary in the teaching process, in addition to many other issues that the researcher was curious to know about. The researcher believed that those factors were to be highlighted enabling her to go deeper into the analysis and in answering her research questions. Data related to these issues were summarized in different school description schedules, (see Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5).

5.1. The small-scale survey study:

Cohen et al. (2000) argue that many of the educational research methods are descriptive, in that they are designed to describe and interpret 'what is'. They intend to reveal the conditions or relationships that exist, the practices that are in use as well as the attitudes that are held.

Among the many features of a survey study are its ability to gather data on a one-shot basis, thus saving time and money; to generate accurate instruments through

their piloting and revision; to provide descriptive, inferential and explanatory information; and to ascertain correlations (Morrison, 1993; cited in Cohen et al., 2000).

The development of a theoretical framework for the topic under investigation, and due to the deficiencies of the managerial system of education in Lebanon (explained in previous chapters) the researcher adopted a cross-sectional study design. Cross-sectional study is one type of survey research, taking different samples at one or more points in time, enabling different groups to be compared. Under such a design, the researcher gathered data about the research questions she had set and tested them in two groups, where one group involved five high-performing intermediate public schools, and the second group involved five low-performing ones. The data, qualitative as well as quantitative, from both groups was collected at one point in time: the early spring time of the academic year 2002-2003. The researcher paid great attention while selecting the schools as to let each school "either predicts similar results (a literal replication) or produces contrasting results but for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication)" (Yin 1994, p.46). Moreover, when the different groups are adequately selected in terms of typicality and diversity, and analyzed carefully, the chances for applying the findings to other similar settings increase (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The researcher distributed the questionnaire to all the teachers in the ten schools selected, wishing that the return percentage could be as high as possible. The actual result was that 203 questionnaires were filled in and returned out of 403 ones distributed. Table 4.7 shows the two different sets of schools with the corresponding number of teachers in each school and the number of teachers who filled in the questionnaire. The school level seems to have no impact on the percentage of respondents out of the total number of teachers in each school, as this percentage came to be approximately 50% for both sets of schools.

With respect to interviews, the researcher intended to carry out two interviews in each school thus making a total of twenty interviews for the whole research. In setting up the number of interviews to be carried out, the researcher took into account the time required to transcribe, code and translate the data.

Table 4.7: number of teachers and respondents in each school.

School level	School name	# of teachers	# of respondents	% of respondents
High performing schools	Melon	28	23	82.14
	Cherry	39	10	25.64
	Apple	27	13	48.15
	Pineapple	36	18	50
	Peach	54	29	53.7
Total		184	93	50.54%
Low performing schools	Tomato	26	19	73.08
	Cucumber	79	33	41.77
	Carrot	32	21	65.63
	Lettuce	26	25	96.15
	Cabbage	56	12	21.43
Total		219	110	50.23%
Total # in the whole sample		403	203	50.4%

5.2. Questionnaire:

Since the researcher looked forward to make a cross-case comparison for the schools selected, some standardization of instruments was required in order to let the findings be laid side by side in the course of analysis. From here was the need of a questionnaire entitling the researcher to provide greater explanations about the factors motivating Lebanese teachers and the impact of the Principal leadership style on teachers' motivation. Consequently, she was able to make recommendations or suggestions that the Ministry of Education might benefit from in order to work on satisfying the teachers' needs which are not yet satisfied and to train the Principals to adopt the leadership style that seemed effective in creating a motivating environment in the school.

Miller and Galfo (1970, p.25) argue that "questionnaires are said to be the most used and misused methods in educational research. Objections are both practical and

philosophical". A limitation of questionnaires is due to the tendency of respondents to give inaccurate responses. The philosophical one is attributed to the presumption that the notion of truth is directly proportional to the number of people who accept its accuracy (Miller and Galfo, 1970). The limitations of the use of questionnaires can be minimized if the researcher knows how to deal with them effectively. For instance, if anonymity is stressed again and again by the researcher in a way to encourage honesty in responding, the data then tends to be more reliable.

Moreover, the percentage of return for questionnaires which is anticipated to be low compared to other methods of data collection, can be increased when the researcher emphasizes the importance of the study and the value of the respondents' participation (Cohen et al., 2000).

The researcher in this study expected a good percentage of return because of the topic itself: teachers' motivation. Teachers in Lebanon always call for strikes (Al-Nahar, oct. 13, 2001; The Daily Star, oct. 20, 2003). They feel their demands are not satisfied. Thus they were all motivated to respond to the questionnaires as well as to the interviews in such a way to express their feelings and their needs, and to discuss the problems they are facing. So, they might be thinking that the results of this study will be presented to the specialized ministries and in that way their voices can be heard by the specialized policy makers who might feel sympathy with them.

5.2.1. Questionnaire construction:

For ensuring the clarity of the questions, two pilot studies were conducted on 80 teachers outside the main sample. Then, each question was reviewed by some professionals in such a way to assess teachers' level of understanding of the questions, and to implement modification when necessary. In such a way, a level of accuracy in the questionnaire administered to teachers is attained. The two experts who commented on the questionnaire were particularly qualified to do so, as they are both PhD holders and have conducted research in education. Especially that these researches were undertaken in the Lebanese market making those researchers experienced and aware of how Lebanese participants such as teachers, policy

makers and others might react to questionnaires, their appearance, layout, clarity of instructions as well as to other issues such as the informed consent.

In designing the questions, the researcher tried to be clear, simple and brief, making sure that she is asking one thing at a time in each question, and avoiding leading questions. Moreover, the pilot studies revealed some pitfalls that the researcher did not pay attention to at first. For example, the researcher did not balance first the comprehensiveness and exhaustive coverage of issues with the demotivating factor of having respondents complete several pages of a questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2000).

The questionnaire, in this study, was designed to answer the research questions and to achieve the research objectives. The questionnaire was developed with knowledge gained from the motivation theories, the leadership theories and their literature review in the educational settings (see chapters 2 & 3). The factors identified by researchers and discussed in the literature review were then used to organize the main areas of research from which the questions were developed.

As for the issue of content validity, the questionnaire is designed to cover "fairly and comprehensively" the items that it is supposed to cover (Cohen et al., 2000, p.109). The careful review of literature made by the researcher on theories of motivation and leadership and their applicability in education in particular as well as the research conducted in this domain, has enabled her to select the important questions deemed necessary to answer her research questions in the sample selected.

For the sequence of the questions, the researcher has avoided the creation of a mood-set early in the questionnaire. She started with non-threatening factual questions such as the gender, age, years in post. These questions constitute the biographical section of the questionnaire, where the questions are simple and encourage participation. Oppenheim (1992, p.171) states that one covert purpose of each question is to ensure that the respondent will continue to co-operate. The biographical section constitutes part A of the questionnaire and is divided into two sub-sections: personal biography and professional biography. The personal biography section involves six questions asking teachers about their gender, marital status, age, annual income, father's level of education and mother's level of

education. The professional biography section also involves six questions asking teachers about the degree they hold, their area of specialty, the number of years in teaching, the number of years in teaching under current Principal, if they perform any supplementary work to increase their earnings, and then if yes, the type of this work.

Then, the move is from objective facts to subjective attitudes (Cohen et al., 2000). The next section of the questionnaire includes closed questions, a five point Likert scale, where respondents were asked to give their opinions about the given statements. The first part of this section is part B; it includes 16 statements describing the functions performed by a Principal adopting the instructional leadership style in leading the school. Teachers were asked to rate their Principals based on these functions, enabling the researcher to find out which of these functions are adopted by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools (one research question). The second part of this section is part C; it includes 26 statements designed to extract knowledge about how aspects of their workplaces and job as well as other intrinsic factors affected teachers' motivation. This part is intended, along with the majority of the questions in the interview schedule, to answer the first and the third research questions.

At the top of each part, the researcher has written few sentences introducing the respondents to the purpose of this part of the questionnaire, so that they can become involved in it. Then, clear and short instructions follow, guiding the respondents to the way they have to answer the questions. "Since everything hinges on respondents knowing exactly what is required of them, clear, unambiguous instructions, boldly and attractively displayed are essential" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.258).

Cohen et al. (2000) state that "the questionnaire will always be an intrusion into the life of the respondent, be it in terms of time taken to complete the questionnaire, the level of threat or sensitivity of the questions, or the possible invasion of privacy" (p.245). Moreover, participants cannot be coerced to complete the questionnaire. Thus, their informed consent must be fully guaranteed (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992; quoted in Cohen et al., 2000, p.50). Informed consent has been defined by Diener and Crandall (1978), as "the procedures in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of facts that

would be likely to influence their decisions" (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.51). In this study, the researcher is interested in explaining to the respondents that their participation is voluntary all the times, and in obtaining their informed consent. (A copy of the questionnaire is found in Appendix A).

5.2.2. The pilot study:

For the purpose of attaining a level of accuracy in the questionnaire administered to teachers, theoretical support was sought from the pertinent literature and technical evaluation from the pilot study. The pilot studies were conducted on 80 teachers outside the main sample. The aim was to ensure the clarity of the questions and assess teacher's level of understanding of the general questionnaire content. Cohen et al. (2000) state "that pretesting [the questionnaire] is crucial to its success" (p.260).

After this first pilot study, the researcher was able to detect the following: First, the time taken to complete the questionnaire was relatively long. Thus the researcher omitted redundant questions, those questions which consistently have a total of 'yes' or 'no' answers (Youngman, 1984, cited in Cohen et al. 2000). Of these questions with little discriminability there is for example the question about "financial awards received by the teachers", where all the answers revealed that this kind of award is absent from the teaching profession, at least in Lebanon.

Second, the seven-point rating scale that was first used to assess teachers' opinions about motivation and their Principal's leadership style was found to be not benefiting the researcher of its wider scale compared to the five-point rating scale. In obtaining feedback on the format of the questions, teachers seemed not to have a clear distinction between point 6 (very high) and point 7 (very very high) for example. As a result, the researcher has decided to shift from the seven-point scale to the five-point scale; where 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, 5= strongly agree; with the caution that each scale measures one thing at a time (Cohen et al., 2000).

Rating scales are powerful in research and especially useful in finding out attitudes and opinions of respondents. Their advantage lies in "the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.253). On the other hand, their disadvantage lies in the "fixity of response caused by the need to select from a given choice" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.255). However, the researcher has dealt with this weakness by first looking at the result of the pilot study, looking at what the respondents needed to explore more and putting those new opinions and suggestions in new questions. Second, by conducting the semi-structured interview with its open-ended questions, the researcher was convinced that all the hidden opinions, that lacked the chance to be revealed in the questionnaire, were captured.

Third, some misunderstood and non-completed items were depicted. For example the researcher found out that those teachers with no university degree (known from the biographical data) did not answer the following question: "Do you think that you are performing a job suited, higher, or lower than your educational level?". The issue is that "educational level" has been by error translated to Arabic as "university level", thus those respondents thought that they are not supposed to answer this question. This error has been automatically adjusted. (Issues about translation are discussed in a previous section)

Fourth, some questions were found to have ambiguities and difficulties in wording. Positivist methodology argues that a rigorous piloting of questionnaire items reveals the variability of meanings (Seale, 1999). The concept of face validity relies on the fact that people live in human communities where their common experiences are reflected in a system of linguistic symbols (Seale, 1999). Cannell and Kahn (1954, p.553) explain this by saying: "In the construction of questions... the choice of language should be made from the shared vocabulary of respondent and researcher" (Quoted in Seale, 1999, p.35).

In the first pilot study, it was found for instance that in looking for the Principal leadership style, one question which is, "whether the Principal reintegrates the individual achievements for the purpose of achieving the school's mission", presented some ambiguities for the respondents. It seemed that teachers lack the ability of understanding some technical managerial terms; this is natural but the

researcher did not first assume this. As a result some questions were restructured in a way to have "words that have a common currency" (Seale, 1999, p.35). After the first pilot study, the questionnaire was refined and then given to two university professors and one statistician to review each question and put their comments on it. The comments of the three raters were very fruitful and enabled the researcher to avoid what Circourel (1964) named "measurement by fiat, drawing conclusions about meaning and about concept-indicator links without adequate evidence" (cited in Seale, 1999, p.35).

Construct validity relates to research on various abstract concepts (such as attitudes, motivation, leadership) whose construct have been detailed and how representative the questions in an instrument are of the characteristics making up the construct. The factor-analytic approach is one way of evaluating this validity. It assumes that of the set of questions piloted, those that are the most valid indicators will be those with the greatest commonality and thus will appear in clusters and consequently would be included in the final instrument. The factor analysis is the source of justification for instrument validity (Black, 1999).

The procedures followed by the researcher in analyzing the pilot study involved a method called principal components, by means of which factors or groupings were extracted. These were rotated to produce a more meaningful interpretation of the underlying structure than that provided by the principal components method. Factor analysis is described by Kerlinger (1970) as the best-known grouping techniques, and defined as a method for "determining the number and nature of the underlying variables among a large number of measures" (Quoted in Cohen et al., 2000, p.349).

This technique enabled the researcher to estimate the number of the measured factors and to assess the extent to which her conceptual distinctions among them could be verified empirically. For instance, under the section measuring teachers' motivation, some variables such: salaries, fringe benefits, promotion, working conditions (i.e. extrinsic factors) loaded high on the same factor. By grouping data into more manageable units and clarifying relationships among these variables, made the analysis easier at a later stage.

It is used by researchers who want to impose an "orderly simplification" (Child, 1970) upon a number of interrelated measures (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.354). When the researcher first designed the questionnaire she included too many items under each variable under investigation and ended up with a lengthy questionnaire. The results of the pilot study with their factor analysis were so fruitful in shortening the questionnaire by looking at the factors obtained and the loading of each item under each factor. It assured the construct validity items.

Then, in order to ensure the internal reliability of each of the items loading on a separate factor, reliability procedure to obtain Cronbach's alpha was used (Foster, 2001). Oppenheim (1992) argues that Cronbach's coefficient α is a reasonable indicator of the internal consistency of questionnaires using scales such as rating or Likert; and, Murphy and Davidshofer (1991) consider it as the average of all possible split-half coefficients (cited in Black, 1999). Moreover, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) state that Cronbach's alpha takes into consideration both the number of questions and the average correlation among questions on a test (cited in Black, 1999).

One aspect of reliability is ensuring that all the items measure the same thing. This can be assessed by comparing the scores on any item with the total score on all the items. If one item does not correlate with the total score, it is eliminated so the test has homogeneity of items (Foster, 2001). This 'item-total correlation' indicator reflects how consistently the item is measuring the same thing as the instrument as a whole, and thus it is better for it to be high (Black, 1999).

5.2.3. Administering the questionnaire:

Further amendments and stylistic changes were introduced to the questionnaire and the final version was administered to 403 teachers (203 teachers only filled in and returned the questionnaire). The statements were based on theories of motivation and leadership and were designed to identify Principals' leadership styles, school restructuring, collegiality, recognition, decision-making, personal regard and professional growth. The questionnaire requested respondents to indicate on a five-point Likert scale whether they strongly disagree, feel neutral, agree or strongly agree with the statements made.

5.2.4. Quantitative data analysis:

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 11, helped the researcher to code and analyze the data collected from questionnaires.

Descriptive statistics were first used; frequencies were calculated in order to see the percentages of teachers' allocation over the different independent variables and to find out if the responses tend to cluster around one or two categories of a rating scale, if the responses are skewed towards one extreme of the rating scale such as 'strongly disagree', or centered around the central category (i.e. 'neutral') showing the respondents' tendency to avoid extreme answers; and if the responses pattern themselves consistently across the sample. Cross-tabulations were also used on some variables to examine how scores on these variables are related. Furthermore, step-wise multiple regression has shown how the independent variables predict the dependent ones. Then, the analysis of variance helped the researcher to compare the mean scores of the two different sets of data, in order to find out if the variances in the teachers' attitude towards motivation as well as the functions performed by the Principal in leading the school are significant among the high and low performing schools.

Finally, by cross-tabulating interview data alongside with questionnaire data and documents, the researcher had a means of validating results.

To conclude, due to the complex network of conditions and effects surrounding the human affairs, it will be hard to explain causality and to draw well-founded conclusions from multiple networks. The critical issue here was not to end up with a theory smoothing up the diversity but with a one benefiting from this diversity to develop and test a well-grounded set of explanations.

Miles & Huberman (1994) caution us against taking for granted the preconceptions we have in mind and imposing them forgetting the inductive grounding that is required.

5.3. Interviews:

Cannel and Kahn (1968) define the research interview as "a two person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, predictions, or explanation" (Quoted in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.271).

Silverman (1993) argues that interviews in qualitative research are useful for collecting facts, finding out feelings and motives, advancing some possible courses of action for the situations, and looking for causes and explanations. In order to achieve these objectives, the interview has to be open-ended or semi-structured in such a way to let interviewees declare their own ways of defining the world, and to enable them to raise issues and matters that might not have been thought by the researcher while preparing his/her predevised schedule. The interview enables participants to express their views regarding situations, thus it does not end up simply collecting data about life because "it is part of life itself, its human embeddedness is inescapable" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.267).

Interviews are widely used in social research because as Seale (1999, p.59) argues that "respondents can act the eyes and ears of researchers; interviewees can recall and summarize a wide range of observations in seconds, which would take weeks and months of observational work to achieve. They can also speak about things that cannot be observed". Moreover, Trow (1957) favors the privacy of the interview situation that allows participants to declare issues they would not reveal in the natural settings of everyday interaction, where significant others might hear and disapprove (cited in Seale, 1999).

Depending on the content and techniques involved to collect appropriate information, interviews may be designed in a structured or unstructured way (Singh, 1993). A structured interview takes the form of a questionnaire or checklist that is completed

by the interviewer, rather than by the respondent ((Bell, 1993). This is the respondent interviewing style: a tightly structured one in which the sequence and wording of the questions are predestined and the interviewer is left little freedom to make modification (Powney and Watts, 1987). Miles and Huberman (1994, p.35) argues that "structured instruments blind the researcher to the site. If the most important phenomena or underlying constructs at work in the field are not in the instruments, they will be overlooked or misinterpreted". The semi-structured interview is designed in a way to have a number of questions prepared in advance and designed in a sufficiently open way "that the subsequent questions of the interviewer cannot be planned in advance but must be improvised in a careful and theorized way....[The semi-structured interviews] are high-preparation, high-risk, high-gain, and high-analysis operations" (Wengraf, 2001, p.5). The unstructured interviewing style which is equivalent to the open-ended one is mainly used for in-depth inquiry (Singh, 1993), producing a wealth of valuable data, yet requiring a great deal of expertise to control and a great deal of time to analyze (Bell, 1993). This is the informant interviewing style, under which the inside of the interviewee is penetrated in order to generate in-depth ideas. Thus the respondent under this case may be considered an "informant" rather than a traditional respondent. "Such persons not only provide the case study investigator with insights into a matter but also can suggest sources of corroboratory evidence –and initiate the access to such sources" (Powney and Watts, 1987, p.84). One of its limitations is that bias might creep into them. Interviewers are human beings and not machines and their manner might affect the responses (Bell, 1993). Whatever is the style adopted, the difficulty of interview lies in maintaining complete objectivity.

After balancing the methodological strengths and weaknesses of the different interviewing styles discussed above and due to the broad nature of this research, the researcher employed a semi-structured interviewing style. This style helps to maintain an ambience of rapport between the interviewer and the interviewees; as it also covers broad aspects of the area under study. Thus, by allowing a greater flexibility for both interviewer and interviewee, new perspectives will be brought into both the questions and the answers provided. As a result, the semi-structured

interview was the best style to explore the relationships that may exist among teachers and Principals in the schools in the study. A semi-structured interview, "where topics and open-ended questions are written but the exact sequence and wording does not have to be followed with each respondent", was employed in this study (Cohen et al., 2000; p.278). Thus, prompts and probes have been taken into consideration (Morrison, 1993; cited in Cohen et. al., 2000). Prompts let the interviewer clarify topics and questions, while "probes enable the interviewer to ask respondents to extend, elaborate, add to, provide detail for, clarify or qualify their response, thereby addressing, depth of response, comprehensiveness and honesty that are some of the hallmarks of successful interviewing" (Cohen et al., 2000; p.278).

Given the costs in time and money, the number of people to be interviewed should be as small as is consistent with obtaining valid data. Thus the final list of interviewees should give appropriate representation of the range of views relevant to the purpose of the research. After gaining the willingness of the interviewees to participate, the researcher decided on the method of recording. There is no substitute for a full tape recording of an interview (Powney and Watts, 1987). It is argued that the effect of any obvious recording encourages those being observed to give their 'best' performance. Using a tape recorder allows the interviewer to maintain eye contact during the interviews, and not to miss facial expressions and other non-verbal cues.

In conclusion, the importance of interview as an essential source of data collection is that human affairs should be reported and interpreted through the eyes of specific interviewees (Yin, 1994). So, among the obvious advantages of the interview is that it allows the researcher to gain greater depth than is the case with other methods of data collection. The disadvantages, on the other hand, are that it is prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer, as well as poor recall and poor or inaccurate articulation (Cohen and Manion, 1994). However, the researcher overcame these weaknesses by corroborating interview data with information gathered from other sources (i.e. triangulation). Thus, research interview is a very particular kind of data collection method and deserves due caution and expertise in use.

5.3.1. Development of the research instrument for interviewing:

Running some pilot interviews exposed the researcher to potential data collection problems and gave her the opportunity to modify practices before the investigation proper begins. This trial helped the researcher to identify inappropriate wording and ambiguities in questioning. It eliminated obvious errors in the coding system that was used, and identified irrelevant data being collected (Powney and Watts, 1987).

5.3.2. Construction of the interview schedule:

The seven stages of an interview investigation that are discussed by Kvale (1996) had been followed in this research. These stages are: thematizing, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analyzing, verifying and reporting. The first stage is thematizing, where the purpose of the investigation was formulated by translating the general goals of the research into more specific objectives.

The second stage is designing; where the research objectives were translated into the questions making up the interview (see Appendix B). The formulation of the questions depended on the variables the researcher was trying to measure and study. Thus, the questions making up the interview schedule came to be answering the research questions set in this study. Tuckman (1972) identifies four question formats: direct or indirect and general or specific. He suggests that "specific questions, like direct ones, may cause a respondent to become cautious or guarded and give less -than-honest answers. Non-specific questions may lead circuitously to the desired information but with less alarm by respondents" (quoted in Cohen et al., 2000, p.276). Moreover, the researcher made sure that easier and less threatening, non-controversial questions are addressed earlier in the interview in order to let the interviewees feel at ease. Consequently, the movement was from the general to the more specific questions. For example, questions about the public schools and teachers in Lebanon preceded those questions seeking the interviewee's attitude towards his or her Principal as well as towards the factors motivating him or her to perform 'teaching'. The last question in the interview schedule, "Discuss the three main factors present in your school that have led to the excellent/ bad results that your students are achieving in the official examinations?", helped the researcher to

identify the cure to be implemented in the low-performing schools and the factors to be recognized and stressed in the high-performing ones. In order to enhance interviewee's motivation, demographic questions are kept at minimum; and in order to generate rich description and authentic data, the professional language of the researcher was translated into the everyday, more easy-going language of the interviewee (Patton, 1980, cited in Cohen et al., 2000).

In this research, the timing for the questionnaire design and piloting happened to come earlier than the interview design. This had its benefits on the researcher who felt more confident in deciding on the questions while constructing the interview schedule, and who avoided some of the errors she committed. Those benefits were mainly obvious in the demographic questions as well as in the content of the questions asking about teachers' attitude towards motivation and their Principal leadership style. However the formulation and the style of these questions required refinement after the pilot study. For instance, the researcher put first the questions in the "what are ..." format; then she realized while piloting that it would be better to ask the teachers to: "Discuss the three main..." or "Indicate in order of priority the three main...". Moreover, one question that asked interviewees to "Comment briefly on the following terms...", proved to be vague as the interviewees looked at the researcher asking her what did she mean. As a result she reformulated this question by clarifying its purpose and put it as following: "Comment briefly on the following terms in terms of their applicability in your school and their impact on your job motivation".

The researcher adopted the open-ended questions format enabling the interviewees to be released from the restrictions on the content and on the manner of their replies. This flexibility allowed the interviewer also to probe when she found it necessarily to go into more depth. Moreover, it resulted in unanticipated answers; such as the students' automatic promotion law and the students' SES that ended up affecting teachers' motivation, both of which had not been taken into consideration by the researcher first. In addition to other issues discussed in the following chapters.

5.3.3. Carrying out interviews:

When Kvale (1996) discussed the seven stages of an interview investigation, 'interviewing' came to be at the third stage; and it is when the interview has been conducted. Here it was necessary to think of an interview as a social, interpersonal encounter, not only a data collection device. For this reason, the interviewer had built up the appropriate atmosphere, inviting the interviewee to feel free and secure in talking what he or she is thinking of (Kvale, 1996). Then, the interviewer explained the purpose of the interview, and took the respondent's assent for tape recording the responses (Tuckman, 1972; quoted in Cohen et. al., 2000). Moreover, confidentiality was guaranteed. In this study and in interviewing the teachers, the researcher stressed the issue of confidentiality in explaining that all what she is recording is just for the purpose of the study and that she is interested in the overall Lebanese teachers' attitude as well as in the attitude of those teaching in the same school, not in individual teachers.

Kvale (1996) argues that most of the power is in the hands of the interviewer. Thus, the interviewer (the researcher herself) was responsible for taking due care of the dynamics of the situation by keeping the interview moving forward, motivating the interviewee to declare all his/her thoughts, and providing him/her with an encouraging feedback. She had made use of all her senses in order to interpret the answers in the course of the interview.

5.3.4. Preparing the data for analysis:

The qualitative data that was obtained from interviews was logged as a preparatory stage for their transcriptions, coding and reduction into smaller units for interpretation. The analyst here has to reduce the data to some manageable amount that can be understood and appreciated by the intended audience (Powney and Watts, 1987). "Reductionism is a tendency towards analyzing complex arrangements into simple constituents or, more insidiously, that complex systems can be fully understood in terms of such simple components" (Powney and Watts, 1987, p.161).

Thus, here comes the fourth stage that Kvale (1996) has discussed and which is transcribing. It "represents the translation from one set of rule systems (oral and interpersonal) to another very remote rule system (written language)" (Cohen et al., 2000, p.281). Here, due caution had been exercised because as Kvale (1996, p.166) suggests that transcription is a selective transformation and as Mishler (1991) argues that "data and the relationship between meaning and language are contextually situated; they are unstable, changing and capable of endless reinterpretation" (cited in Cohen et al., 2000, p.282).

Since the interviews had been conducted in Arabic, the researcher had to translate the responses to English. The researcher followed what Sechrest et al., (1972) argue that it is easier to transcribe the responses in the language in which they are given (i.e. Arabic) then to translate the coding system to the target language (i.e. English in this case). Translating the coding system was a simpler task when compared to the translation of responses. Moreover, the researcher stressed the importance of transcribing the interviews as soon as she could after conducting them, making sure that she did not miss any expression revealed by the teachers being interviewed. Small details were taken into consideration.

The data overload stemming from qualitative data has been partially reduced through the process of coding the interview responses. Kerlinger (1970) defined coding as the conversion of these responses and other related information to specific categories for the purpose of analysis (cited in Cohen et al., 2000). Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that the coding symbol or label must resemble to the original data, enabling the researcher to know automatically, by looking at the code, what the original data is all about.

The fifth stage is analyzing the collected data by some form of coding and scoring.

5.3.5. Qualitative data analysis:

The researcher ended up with twenty different datasheets traced to twenty teachers belonging to ten schools, at a rate of two teachers per one school. Each datasheet was named by the name of the school that the responding teacher belonged to, plus

the number '1' or '2' to refer to the first interviewee or the second one respectively. Each datasheet contained all the questions that made up the interview schedule, and under each question the researcher listed the transcribed responses with the appropriate quotations; those quotations that the researcher felt they are important to keep in order to refer to them at a later stage, while she presented the qualitative data.

Then, the analysis of each question was done separately. An overview of the transcribed responses under each question in the twenty datasheets enabled the researcher to summarize the major categories that emerged. Those categories formed the major subheadings under each question. Then under each category, the researcher listed the various incidents in data that have been grouped together by the coding process, in addition to the corresponding important quotations; enabling the researcher to compare and to trace to specific interviewee at a later stage. To make the point clear, the researcher here was not interested in the specific interviewee but rather in the school that he/she belong to; being a good or a low performing one.

Corbin (1986) argues that the analysis of qualitative data requires a direct interaction between the data and the one who is analyzing it. Corbin (1986) discusses two sets of conditions influencing data analysis: the researcher and the research process. The researcher must be tolerant for ambiguity by sharing his/her thoughts with colleagues having similar research interests. The researcher has always shared her thoughts with her supervisor as well as with her colleagues in the university in which she teaches, given that they show high interest for the topic under investigation and they have already worked on related topics. Moreover, the researcher must pay careful attention to details and must have confidence in his/her ability to analyze. Regarding the research process, it must be a process where the analysis is detailed revealing the micro as well as the macro components of the situation under investigation; done through a careful record of interviews, a consistence writing of ideas in the forms of memos, and meticulous analysis of data.

The researcher proceeded by coding the data into categories which were then defined, developed and integrated. Corbin (1986, p.94) defines categories as

"abstractions of phenomena observed in the data", which then formed the major unit of analysis in this study. Then, the categories and their properties were integrated revealing the way these properties interact.

Finally, the researcher reported the analyzed qualitative data (The seventh stage discussed by Kvale). Here the mission was somehow straight forward since the categories and their interactions were the big titles under which the properties constituted the section headings where the coded data served as many examples enabling the reader to assess the generality of the phenomena illustrated.

The sixth stage that Kvale discussed is verifying and it is at the core of each stage. Checks of validity and reliability had been ensured at each stage so that data collection, transcription, analysis and reporting fairly reflected the study.

Review of archives and policy documents were categorized according to their theme and stored in a data base programme, the Microsoft computer package. In such a way the data was organized and protected, and its retrieval was easier.

6. Conclusion:

The cautious selection of the schools investigated offered the researcher the chance to deepen understanding of processes and outcomes of the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Yin (1984) argues that sampling adds confidence to the findings especially if the schools were chosen to be critical or extreme, like the case in this research (cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994). This is what Yin (1991) names as a replication strategy: the finding becomes stronger when it holds true in two or more comparable settings and does not in a contrasting situation (cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994). The selection of schools, five high-achieving ones vs. five low-performing ones, which was done "on conceptual grounds, not on representative grounds"; offered the researcher the chance to strengthen the conceptual validity of the research and to identify the circumstances under which the findings hold (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.29).

Semi-structured interviews as well as self-completion questionnaires and attitude scales were data-gathering techniques used in this small-scale survey. Thus, data analysis was based on a mix of quantitative and qualitative evidence. Here the issue of triangulation was well respected, enabling the researcher to better explain the richness and complexity of the participants. After that, the generalization of the results obtained from the study could be possible. The generalization here is an analytical one where the researcher is to generalize a particular set of results to some broader theory. Given that this generalization is not automatic, the theory is to be tested through replications of the findings of more than one group.

Traditionally, quantitative methods have been used for testing an already existing theory. However, Glaser and Strauss (1967) argue that quantitative data can lead to theory generation as much as qualitative data (cited in Seale, 1999). Seale (1999) adds that the insistence on artificial division "between data expressed in words and data expressed in numbers damages rather than enhances the quality of social research" (p.102).

In conclusion, this chapter described the methodology that the researcher undertook enabling her to collect the required data that was presented in the following chapter and then analyzed in the chapter that follows. Consequently, the researcher was able to get answers to the research questions she had set in chapter one, enabling her to advance the suitable recommendations in some places and to call for further research in other places.

Chapter Five
Presentation of Findings

1. Introduction:

The purpose of this research was to examine the impact of the Principal's leadership style on teachers' motivation, and to find out the motivational strategies that the teachers believe do affect their motivation. To achieve this objective, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used. This research was conducted in ten schools, five high-achieving schools (representing set #1) and five low-achieving ones (representing set #2). Consequently, the researcher was able to find out the differences in the teachers' attitude towards motivation, as well as in the leadership functions performed by the Principals in the two different sets of schools selected. Moreover, the researcher aimed to identify the factors that affect the school performance level. Before presenting the qualitative and the quantitative data, the profile of the ten schools selected for this study, as well as the profile of the students, teachers and Principals are presented. Such discussion was deemed necessary to introduce readers to the context in which this research has been conducted and to allow the researcher to draw better conclusions based on a wider range of data.

2. The profile of the students and schools:

When the Lebanese students reach the ninth grade or what is called 'Brevet', they have to undertake an official examination to be upgraded to the first class in the secondary school where they spend three years at the end of which they undertake another official examination called 'Baccalaureate II', then they will be ready to start their university studies.

The ten schools in which the research was carried out are described in the following paragraphs and then compared in order to give the readers a view of the setting of the research. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the schools' descriptions were the output of the chatting held with each Principal while visiting the schools as well as the direct observation made by the researcher to the playground, faculty lounge, laboratories and other facilities. This chatting covered various issues including the students and their SES, the teachers and their readiness to apply the new

curriculum, the appropriateness of the school's library and laboratories, and the relationship of the school with its surrounding. Thus, the researcher described the schools in terms of what she saw herself (e.g. beautiful main entrance, with flowers on both sides) and in terms of what the Principal said regarding special issues, like those libraries that are in need of more books and those laboratories that are in need of more up-to-date equipments and instruments.

2.1. The high-performing schools:

'Melon', one of the five high-performing schools in this study, has a Principal's office, a teachers' lounge, different kinds of laboratories (scientific, computer and technology), as well as a library and a playground. It has three computers in its computer laboratory. However, a theater is missing in that school. The number of teachers in this school is 28 and they are led by a married male Principal, exercising principalship for more than 21 years. He is more than 50 years old and he has a 'Baccalaureate' only. He reported that teachers there are able and willing to put extra effort to apply the new curriculum. There are 318 students in that school with the majority of their parents (around 70%) visiting regularly the school to ask about their children's academic progress. A measurable outcome of all these characteristics is the percentages of students succeeding in the official examinations which came to be 100%, 100% and 80% for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002 respectively.

'Cherry' is another high-performing school where the percentages of students' success in the 'Brevet' were 100%, 95%, and 100% for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002 respectively. The Principal, a married male with more than 50 years old, revealed that the students' parents in his school are interested in their children's academic success as they are always present in all the meetings that they are called for in order to share any difficulties with the teachers and the Principal and to be updated with their children's performance. This Principal, with a 'Dar al-Moalemeen' degree, has been exercising principalship for a period ranging between 11 and 15 years. The quality of relationship with the surroundings is reflected in the donations (computers, tools, cash) the school receives from the banks, the companies and the municipality. Teachers at this school are ready to attend any seminar or training session when they are called for. There are 39 teachers and 331 students in the

school. The Principal's office, the teachers' lounge, the library and all the laboratories have up to date facilities, instruments and books. For instance, it has 16 computers in its computer laboratory; something really rare in a Lebanese public school, as the data confirms in this study (3 out of 5 schools in this study, even though classified as high-performing ones, have 1 or 3 computers only). Moreover, it has many vast playgrounds and a theater being used regularly. On both sides of the main entrance, multi-colors flowers are planted. To update the school's facilities, the Principal is using the school's cash fund.

'Apple', a high performing school in this research, had 254 students registered for the academic year 2002-2003, with 27 teachers rendering the teaching services. They are led by a male married Principal with more than 50 years old. He has a teaching diploma and he has been exercising principalship for more than 21 years. He is facing some problems related to the students' SES and the physical conditions of his school. The students' parents are poor and illiterate. With respect to the school's physical conditions, the major problems are in the design, originally targeted to meet residential needs, and in the lack of rooms making all kinds of laboratories as well as a teachers' lounge not available. For instance, instruments that make up a scientific laboratory are available but a place enabling students to practice on these instruments and to conduct experiments is not available. One computer is available in the school and it is in the Principal's office; an office originally designed to be a kitchen. The library occupies less than twenty meters square. The Principal revealed that the owner of the school' building is living in the last floor and is not allowing the Principal to cut some trees in the playground in order to make it wider and more organized, even though he promised him to plant more on the boarders. In addition to the noisy surrounding, the Principal complained about the risky heating facilities that are still adopted. With respect to the new curriculum, teachers complained about the newly imposed law of students' automatic promotion. Regardless of all this, the percentages of students' success in the official examinations were 98%, 100% and 100% for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002 respectively.

'Pineapple', another high-performing school has a Principal's office, a teachers' lounge, a scientific laboratory, a library, a theater and a playground. It has one computer and the school's physical conditions do not need repairs. Teachers at this

school, whose number is 36, are ready to attend any upgrading session when they are asked to. Students at this school, whose number is 311, come from families with SES varying between very poor and medium; this is what makes the parents' emphasis on their children academic performance vary between low and medium. The percentages of students' success in the official examinations came to be 85%, 90% and 89% for three consecutive years: 2000, 2001 and 2002. The Principal of this school is a married female with an age ranging between 40 and 49 years old. She has a teaching diploma, she has been exercising principalship for less than five years and she works on keeping in touch with all the organizations and associations in the surrounding. For instance, they exchange greetings in occasions and share special events and social celebrations.

'Peach', a high performing school as well, is led by a Principal with the same biographical and professional profiles of the Pineapple's Principal except for the degree that she holds. The Principal here has a 'Dar al-Moalemeen'. There are 510 students in this school making the 'Peach' school the one with the highest number of students in comparison with the remaining nine schools in this sample. However, the number of teachers is not the highest one: it is 54. Those teachers suffered from the absence of the required tools to illustrate the topics being explained and that the new curriculum emphasized the importance of their use. They have a faculty lounge but it is too small in relative to their number. There are a Principal's office, a playground, a library and a theatre but it is humid. Humidity problems are facing parts of the school's building, thus requiring maintenance and painting in some places. The computer laboratory has 15 computers. As for the scientific laboratory, the instruments are available but the physical place is not. Students at the 'Peach' school are with an acceptable SES, with parents exercising tight control over their children's academic advancement. 96%, 65% and 70% of the 'Brevet' students at this school succeeded in the official examinations held in years 2000, 2001 and 2002 respectively.

2.2. The low-performing schools:

'Tomato' is a low-performing school where no more than 30% of its 'Brevet' students succeeded in the official examinations for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002. In the

academic year 2002-2003, there were 194 students in that school, taught by 26 teachers. There, there are a playground and a library but it is in need of more books; however laboratories of all kind are absent. One computer is available and it is in the Principal's office. There is a teachers' lounge but in need of more furniture. The physical conditions of the 'Tomato' building need attention as it suffers from humidity problems, thus requiring maintenance in most of the places. There is a need for the installation of a heating system in addition to the construction of fences. Teachers there are suffering from the absence of tangible tools required in the teaching process. The Principal revealed the need of his school for qualified teachers for the sciences and the languages courses. The Principal is a married male with a teaching diploma in history. He is above 50 years old but has less than 5 years of experience as a Principal. He is maintaining a social relationship with the surrounding.

'Cucumber' is another low-performing school in this research. Its Principal has the same biographical and professional profiles of the 'Tomato' school's Principal with one exception with respect to the highest degree earned. The Cucumber's Principal has a 'Dar al-Moalemeen'. He reported that the school's relationships with its surrounding are somehow absent. There are 79 teachers in this school and 376 students. It is the school in this study with the highest number of teachers. Students there are with a very low SES. Their achievement in the official examinations was revealed in the following percentages of students' success which came to be 31%, 44% and 23% for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002. The school has a playground, a theater, a Principal's office, a teacher's lounge, a scientific laboratory and a library. But the library is in need of more books and the scientific laboratory is in need of more up to date tools and equipments.

'Carrot' is a low-performing school as well. It has 150 students with 32 teachers. The students' parents are poor and illiterate. The majority of the students live in far away regions and others come from orphanage. The percentage of their success in the official examinations was excellent in year 2000 (100%), however this percentage declined to 60% and 65% in years 2001 and 2002 respectively. Architecturally speaking, the school suffers from the common residential design problem, and it requires the installation of heating facilities. There is a playground in the 'Carrot' school and it has a scientific laboratory only. Regarding the library, it is in need of

more books. There is a teachers' lounge there and the Principal has an office. The Principal is a married male with a 'Baccalaureate' only, and with less than 5 years of experience as a Principal. His age falls within the range of 40 to 49 years old.

'Lettuce' is another low-performing school. The Principal in this school is a married male with more than 50 years old, he has a teaching diploma in history and he has been exercising principalship for a period ranging between 11 and 15 years. He works on establishing a good relationship with the surrounding. There are 181 students in this school; they come from different SES. There are 26 teachers; their major complain with respect to the difficulty in applying the new curriculum is the architectural design of their school hindering the implementation of the students' group work. In this school, there are a scientific laboratory but not really equipped, a library but in need of more books and a playground but not enough for the current students' number. The school's building faces humidity problems and requires the installation of heating facilities. The Principal here has an office and the teachers have a lounge to meet. The percentage of students' success in the Brevet's official examinations for the years 2000, 2001 and 2002 were 92%, 78% and 72% respectively.

'Cabbage' is a low-performing school as well, but with the following percentages of students' success for the same years: 75%, 80% and 78%. The Principal at the 'Cabbage' is a male, exercising principalship for a period ranging between 11 and 15 years. He is more than 50 years old and he has a 'BA'. He is the only Principal in this study who is single. He reported that the school is building up a relationship with its surrounding. He shares his office with the school's supervisor and the teachers have their own faculty lounge. There are a scientific laboratory but in need of more up to date tools and instruments, a library but in need of more books, and a playground but shared by two schools. This is true for the toilets as well that are also shared by students from both schools. The fact is that two different schools (one intermediary and one secondary) are sharing the same building. Maintenance work is required especially for the windows and curtains. A theatre is not available in that school, but they are trying to restore the basement for this purpose. In terms of numbers, there are 56 teachers and 267 students for the academic year 2002-2003. The majority of the parents are poor and unable to pay the registration fees of their children.

2.3. Cross comparison:

Table 5.1 shows the percentage of student's success in the official examinations 'Brevet' for the ten schools selected over the last three years: year 2000, year 2001 and year 2002. It is found that these percentages in the high-achieving schools are in the 90s% and 100%, except for the Peach school that ended with lower results especially in years 2001 and 2002 with 65% and 70% respectively. As for the low-achieving schools, the results were moderate except for the 'Tomato' and 'Cucumber' schools that ended up with bad results: the average percentage was in the 30, (the researcher judged them as moderate or bad, in comparison with the percentages achieved by the high-achieving schools).

Students' or parents' socio-economic status and the quality and ability of the teachers in applying the new curriculum effectively affect the results that the students are achieving in the two sets of schools. For the parents' socio-economic status, it is known and shown in this study that students in the public schools come from the lower middle class and from the poor who are unable to bear the financial burden of the tuition fees in the private schools (table 5.1). It is found also that parents, mainly at the low-achieving schools, are not even able to pay their children's registration fees, as well as to buy for them the required books and pens; which oblige the school sometimes to meet their needs from its petty cash fund. As for the parents' interest in their children academic progress, it is found that parents in the low-achieving schools are illiterate and poor.

Principals in these schools were complaining about students' parents who do not attend the meetings, do not ask about their children progress and even do not bother themselves to meet the administration urgent call if their children are facing problems. The Principal in the 'Carrot' school explained the reason behind this parents' attitude. He said that the majority of their students live in far away regions which prevent the parents from staying in close contact with the school. The other group comes from orphanages, thus they have no parents to care and to ask about them.

Table 5.1: schools' characteristics in terms of their students' success, students' SES, teachers and relationship with the surrounding.

		Percentage of students' success in the official examinations			Student's socio-economic status	Teachers and the new curriculum
		Yr 2000	Yr 2001	Yr 2002		
High-Achieving Schools	**Melon**	100%	100%	80%	Around 70%of the parents care about their children progress	Teachers are able and willing to put extra effort to apply it successfully
	Cherry	100%	95%	100%	Parents interested in their children academic success, shown in these parents attending all the meetings & asking about their children performance	Teachers are able and willing to put extra effort to apply it successfully
	Apple	98%	100%	100%	Poor and illiterate parents	Teachers are suffering from the newly imposed law of the students' automatic promotion
	Pineapple	85%	90%	89%	Parents' SES vary between very poor &medium, the same is for their emphasis on their children academic performance	Teachers are able and willing to put extra effort to apply it successfully
	Peach	96%	65%	70%	Acceptable SES. Parents exercise tight control over their children academic progress	No major difficulties, except for the absence of the required tools to illustrate the topics being explained
Low-Achieving Schools	**Tomato**	35%	30%	30%	Parents with very low home educational culture	Teachers are complaining about the absence of tangible tools required. Unqualified faculty members are present especially for scientific courses and languages
	Cucumber	31%	44%	23%	Parents with very low home educational culture	Some of the teachers are facing problems from: the newly imposed law of the students' automatic promotion and from the absence of the required tools to illustrate the topics being explained
	Carrot	100%	60%	65%	poor & illiterate parents	No complains
	Lettuce	92%	78%	72%	students coming from different SES	The residential architecture of the school building is hindering the application of the group work required in the new curriculum
	Cabbage	75%	80%	78%	the parents are poor and unable to pay the registration fees of their children	No major difficulties, except for the absence of the required tools to illustrate the topics being explained

On the other hand, table 5.1 reported that students' parents in the high-achieving schools are really interested in their children educational progress and achievements. The majority of them exercise tight control over the academic matters related to their children by visiting the schools regularly to meet with the teachers and stay updated with their children advancement. However one school in the high-achieving group, the 'Apple' one suffers from the poverty and illiteracy of their students' parents.

Thus, it seems that there are factors other than parents exercising tight control over their children progress, that lead to excellent results in the examinations. One factor is found to be the quality of the faculty members and their application of the new curriculum in a smooth way. Teachers at the high-performing schools were found to be able and willing to put extra effort to apply it successfully.

Moreover these schools (except for one: 'Peach') are equipped with the physical tools required for the effective implementation of the new curriculum. However, some teachers at these schools complained about the newly imposed law of students' automatic promotion (see Chapter one, p.18). At the low-performing schools some teachers are facing difficulties emanating from them being unqualified, especially the sciences and the languages teachers in the 'Tomato' school.

Furthermore, the architectural design of the 'Lettuce' school is not suitable for the educational activities to be run in, especially for the application of the work group required in the new curriculum, as this school is originally designed to meet the residential needs. This is the case of the majority of the Lebanese public schools (table 3, Appendix C). Two of the high-achieving schools, the 'Apple' and the 'Pineapple' schools are also facing this design problem. For example, the Principal's office in the 'Apple' school is originally designed to be a kitchen and the teacher's lounge is not available due to the lack of rooms. This school is the only school out of the five high-achieving schools that shows problems in its physical condition: it is suffering from the design, the lack of rooms, the small playground, the risky heating facilities used and the 'eternit' ceilings.

However, the other four high-achieving schools cherish the appropriate physical conditions of the buildings they are operating in, in addition to the availability of the other resources required in the educational process such as computers, library, laboratories, theater and playground. It is worth noting here that these resources are most of the time funded by the school itself that uses its cash fund to update some facilities, to buy more books and up to date tools for the laboratories; or in other cases, the school receives donations from the companies, bank and the municipality of the region in which it operates. This is true for the 'Cherry' school that is fostering the relationship with its surroundings; thus benefiting from its own fund as well as from the grants of the outsiders in order to build up and maintain the image of a typical school.

Compared with the low-achieving schools, one can notice the absence of computers and technology laboratories and theaters in these low-performing schools. As for the libraries in these schools, they are in need of more books. Moreover, they are suffering from humidity problems and calling for the installation of feasible heating facilities and curtains as well as requiring some maintenance work such as painting, (Tables 5.2 & 5.3). The relationship of the low-achieving schools with their surroundings is not as good as it is for the high-achieving schools as it is somehow absent for the 'Cucumber' school, no relationship for the 'Carrot' school and trying to make it better for the 'Cabbage' school.

In looking at the number of students and the number of teachers and computing the student/teacher ratio in the ten schools selected, it is found that this ratio is lower in the low-achieving schools compared to the high-achieving ones. In the low-performing schools, this ratio ranges from 4.7 to 7.5 students per teacher; whereas in the high-performing ones, it ranges from 8.5 to 11.4 students per teacher (table 5.4).

Table 5.2: schools' characteristics in terms of availability of different laboratories, library, theatre and playground.

	School name	Scientific lab.	Computer lab.	Technology lab.	Library	Theater	Playground
High Achieving Schools	**Melon**	Available	Available (3computers)	Available	Available	Not available	Available
	Cherry	Available & updated yearly from the school's funds	Available (16computers)	Available	Available, updated yearly from school's funds with fruitful books	Available & used regularly	Available (many & vast)
	Apple	Location no, but instruments yes	Not Available (1 computer)	Not available, due to the lack of rooms	Available (less than 20 square meters)	Not available	Available (but too small, with many trees that the owner does not want to cut)
	Pineapple	Available	Not Available (1 computer)	Not available	Available	Available	Available
	Peach	Physical Location not available, but instruments yes	Available (15computers)	Not available	Available (in need of more books)	Available (but too humid)	Available
Low Achieving Schools	**Tomato**	Not available	Not available (1 computer)	Not available	Available (in need of more books)	Not available	Available
	Cucumber	Available (but needs equipment)	Not available	Not available	Available (in need cf more books)	Available	Available
	Carrot	Available	Not available	Not available	Available (in need of more books)	Not available	Available
	Lettuce	In need of more up to date equipments	Not available	Not available	Available (in need for books)	Not available	Available (but not enough)
	Cabbage	In need of more up to date equipments	Not available	Not available	Available (in need for books)	Not available, trying to restore the basement for this purpose	Available (but no enough, as they are shared by 2 schools)

Table 5.3: schools' characteristics in terms of their physical conditions and the availability of Principal's office and teachers' lounge.

School level	School's name	Principal's office	Teachers' lounge	The school's physical conditions
High Achieving Schools	**Melon**	Available	Available	Trees on the boarders, safe structure, clean toilets, playground with transparent nylon curtains on sides to protect students from wind during winter time
	Cherry	Available (well furnished	Available (large & equipped with excellent facilities)	Characterized with a beautiful main entrance (decorated with flowers & trees on both sides), high fences
	Apple	Available (but originally designed as a kitchen)	Not available	Risky conditions as to the heating facilities adopted & the eternit ceilings. Rooms open by large doors of glass. Noisy surrounding. Owner living in the last floor
	Pineapple	Available	Available	No repair or maintenance needs
	Peach	Available	Available (but too small)	Requires paintings. Humidity problems in some places
Low Achieving Schools	**Tomato**	Available	Available (but requires furniture)	Needs maintenance. Humidity problem in all places. It requires heating facilities & fences
	Cucumber	Available	Available	No repair or maintenance needs (principal reported that school's physical conditions are satisfying: no problems)
	Carrot	Available	Available	Requires heating facilities (design problems)
	Lettuce	Available	Available	Humidity problems. It requires heating facilities. (design problems)
	Cabbage	Available (but the supervisor is sharing it with him)	Available	It needs maintenance such as windows and curtains. But the problem is that the building site is being shared by two schools (playground, toilets, etc.)

Table 5.4: the students/teacher ratios (academic year 2002-2003)

School level	School name	# of teachers	# of students	Students/ teacher ratio
High-achieving schools	Melon	28	318	11.4
	Cherry	39	331	8.5
	Apple	27	254	9.4
	Pineapple	36	311	8.6
	Peach	54	510	9.4
Low-achieving schools	Tomato	26	194	7.5
	Cucumber	79	376	4.8
	Carrot	32	150	4.7
	lettuce	26	181	7
	Cabbage	56	267	4.8

3. The profile of the participants:

3.1. Principals:

In looking at the biographical data of the Principals in the schools investigated in this research, (Table 5.5), it is found that all the Principals in the low-achieving schools are male; whereas in the high-achieving ones, three are male and two are female. Out of the ten Principals, nine are married and one only is single; he is leading the 'Cabbage' school, a low-achieving one. As for the age groups those Principals belong to, the three male Principals leading three high-achieving schools are above 50 years old whereas the other two female Principals are in the age range: "between 40 and 49". On the other hand, out of the five Principals in the low-achieving schools, one only is in the "40–49 years" range and the remaining four are above 50 years old. In connection with the age of the Principals, is the number of years over which those Principals are exercising their principalship. In the high-achieving schools group the three male Principals with an age above 50 years, have been leading their schools for a long time; where two of them have more than 21 years of experience as a Principal, and the third one has between 11 and 15 years. The other two younger female Principals (between 40 and 49 years old), have been recently appointed as Principals. Whereas the Principals in the low-achieving schools are younger in their posts (3 with "1 to 5 years of experience as Principals" and 2 with "between 11 and 15 years of experience as Principals") even though the majority of

them (4 out of 5) are in the "above 50 years old" age group. These numbers show that the Principal's appointment in these low-achieving schools has been made out of the aged faculty members.

Table 5.5: biographical data of the Principals

	School	Gender	Marital status	Age	Annual earnings	Highest degree earned	Field of specialization	Years of experience as a Principal
High Achieving Schools	**Melon**	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 5000&10000$	Baccalaureate	None	More than 21 yrs
	Cherry	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 5000&10000$	Dar-al Moalemeen	Mathematics	Between 11& 15 yrs
	Apple	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 10000&15000$	Teaching diploma	Humanities	More than 21 yrs
	Pineapple	Female	Married	Between 40&49 yrs	Between 5000&10000$	Teaching diploma	Sciences	1 to 5 yrs
	Peach	Female	Married	Between 40&49 yrs	Between 5000&10000$	Dar al-Moalemeen	Humanities	1 to 5 yrs
Low Achieving Schools	**Tomato**	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 10000&15000$	Teaching diploma	History	1 to 5 yrs
	Cucumber	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 10000&15000$	Dar al-Moalemeen	Mathematics	1 to 5 yrs
	Carrot	Male	Married	Between 40&49 yrs	Between 5000&10000$	Baccalaureate	Sciences	1 to 5 yrs
	Lettuce	Male	Married	Above 50 yrs	Between 10000&15000$	Teaching diploma	History	Between 11& 15 yrs
	Cabbage	Male	single	Above 50 yrs	Between 10000&15000$	B.A.	Humanities	Between 11& 15 yrs

Concerning the annual salary earned by those Principals, it seemed that the high-achieving schools' Principals are in a lower earnings range compared to their colleagues in the low-achieving ones. Four Principals out of five in the high-achieving schools earn annually between $5,000 and $10,000, and one between $10,000 and $15,000; these numbers are converted in the second set of schools. Salaries might be dependent on both the age and the highest academic degree earned by the

Principal. However, the researcher noticed that the Principal of the 'Cherry' school (a high-achieving school) and the Principal of the 'Cucumber' one (a low-achieving school) both hold a "Dar al-Moalemeen" degree and both are in the age group "above 50 years", however the second earns a higher annual salary compared to the first. This might find an answer in the age of each Principal, as the "above 50 years" is not highly precise, as it can go from 51 to 64 (the Lebanese retirement age). In looking at the Principal's field of specialization as well as to their highest academic degree earned, the researcher noticed no difference in the distribution of the Principals across the different fields and degrees under the two sets of schools.

3.2. Teachers:

The sample of teachers in this research consisted of 203 teachers where 93 teachers belong to the high-performing schools and the remaining 110 teachers belong to the low-performing ones. It is shown in part 2, Appendix C, that 81.2% of the teachers in this sample are female and 18.8% are male. The statistical table for "marital status" shows that the highest percentage is for married teachers and it is 77.6%. As for teachers' age, the highest percentage is for teachers being in the "50 years and over" range and it is 43.3%, this percentage is followed by the 40.3% of teachers being in the "40-49 years" range. The teachers' distribution over the different ranges of income shows that 52.5% of the teachers earn an annual income between "$5,000 and $10,000" and, 32.7% earn a higher income and 12.9% earn a lower income. Concerning the experience that teachers have in this profession, 75.4% of the teachers have more than 21 years in teaching. As for the degrees they hold, the highest percentage (43.3%) is for the teachers graduated from "Dar al-Moalemeen", followed by the 24.1% for teachers with only a "Baccalaureate", followed by the 17.2% for teachers with a "Teaching Diploma". The unacceptable reality is revealed in the 5.4% of the teachers with a "Brevet".

When asked about their father's and mother's levels of education, it was found that more than 50% of the teacher's parents joined primary schools only.

The researcher employed the analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to know whether there is a difference between the two groups of teachers belonging to the two different groups of schools (high-performing and low-performing) in terms of the biographical variable of the teachers. Table 5.6 shows, among others, F computed and its significance for each variable. Of the different factors on which the two groups of teachers were compared only one, that of their academic qualifications ('degree') showed a significant difference between the two groups with a coefficient of 0.036, significant at $p<0.05$.

Table 5.6: the impact of the schools classification on the independent variables.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	.124	1	.124	.807	.370
	Within Groups	30.727	200	.154		
	Total	30.851	201			
marital status	Between Groups	.164	1	.164	.485	.487
	Within Groups	67.398	199	.339		
	Total	67.562	200			
age	Between Groups	.491	1	.491	.623	.431
	Within Groups	156.941	199	.789		
	Total	157.433	200			
income	Between Groups	1.618E-02	1	1.618E-02	.033	.855
	Within Groups	96.578	200	.483		
	Total	96.594	201			
father's level of education	Between Groups	.603	1	.603	.463	.497
	Within Groups	261.663	201	1.302		
	Total	262.266	202			
mother's level of education	Between Groups	.200	1	.200	.251	.617
	Within Groups	160.479	201	.798		
	Total	160.680	202			
degree	Between Groups	6.761	1	6.761	4.437	**.036**
	Within Groups	306.234	201	1.524		
	Total	312.995	202			
area of specialty	Between Groups	9.069	1	9.069	1.674	.197
	Within Groups	1051.033	194	5.418		
	Total	1060.102	195			
number of years in teaching	Between Groups	2.438E-02	1	2.438E-02	.017	.898
	Within Groups	294.655	201	1.466		
	Total	294.680	202			

Table 5.7 shows the cross tabulation made for "degree" and "schools level". It was found that 70% of the "MA" holders, 66.7% of the "BA/BSc" holders and 51.4% of the "Teaching Diploma" holders belong to high-achieving schools. Whereas, 61.2% of the "Baccalaureate" holders and 63.6% of the "Brevet" holders belong to the low-achieving schools. As for the "Dar al-Moalemeen" graduates, 56.8% of them are found in the low-achieving schools. Actually, discrepancy in the allocation of educated teachers was found. These percentages show that teachers with university degrees are found more in high-achieving schools and teachers with school level of education are more found in low-achieving schools.

Table 5.7: the distribution of the teachers' degrees over the two sets of schools.

			High-achieving schools	**Low-achieving schools**	**Total**
			1	**2**	
degree	**MA**	Count	7	3	10
		% within degree % within school classification	70.0% 7.5%	30.0% 2.7%	100.0% 4.9%
	BA / BSc	Count	6	3	9
		% within degree % within school classification	66.7% 6.5%	33.3% 2.7%	100.0% 4.4%
	Teaching Diploma	Count	18	17	35
		% within degree % within school classification	51.4% 19.4%	48.6% 15.5%	100.0% 17.2%
	Dar al-Moalemeen	Count	38	50	88
		% within degree % within school classification	43.2% 40.9%	56.8% 45.5%	100.0% 43.3%
	Baccalaureate	Count	19	30	49
		% within degree % within school classification	38.8% 20.4%	61.2% 27.3%	100.0% 24.1%
	Technical	Count	1		1
		% within degree % within school classification	100.0% 1.1%		100.0% .5%
	Brevet	Count	4	7	11
		% within degree % within school classification	36.4% 4.3%	63.6% 6.4%	100.0% 5.4%
Total		Count	93	110	203

4. Qualitative Data Analysis:

The research instruments, the semi-structured interview and the questionnaire, as well as the school description schedules, had been prepared with the intention of finding answers to the research questions that the researcher had set. The majority of the questions in the interview schedule helped the researcher to find out the main concerns reported by teachers regarding leadership and motivation in order to find out the Principal/teacher-focused strategies that could be used by the Principals to improve teacher motivation. Moreover, the last question in the interview that asked respondents to discuss the main factors that are present in their school and have led to the excellent/bad results that their students are achieving in the official examinations; along with the school description, were useful in getting the answer to the fourth research question: 'what are the factors affecting the school performance level?'

The following section of the interview analysis has dealt, by order, with the questions of the interview schedule. Those questions are grouped in a way to form three different subsections where each one dealt with one research question (the first, the third and the fourth research question, see page 125). The second research question, regarding the 'instructional leadership style' was not directly addressed in the interview schedule; however the questionnaire has highlighted this issue. Thus, the answers to this research question came mainly from the quantitative data analysis, a later section in this chapter.

Since open ended questions were used in the interview schedule, some of this qualitative data was presented as quotations from various interviews to show 'the flavour' of answers on a particular topic. For the purpose of referencing and for ethical reasons to protect participants' identities, codes had been invented to identify each teacher. High-performing schools had been named fruit names, and low-performing schools vegetable names. Interviewees had been named the name of the school they teach in, with a number either 1 or 2; as two teachers had been interviewed in each school. Thus by 'Melon2' for instance, the researcher refers to the second teacher interviewed in the 'Melon' school.

4.1. The first research question: What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?

In order to find out the main concerns reported by teachers regarding their own motivation, the researcher asked different questions with different wording while interviewing them; without even mentioning the term 'motivation' in all the questions. She started by asking about the major problems facing the Lebanese public schools, the work setting where teachers can be motivated or not. Then she asked about the problems facing the Lebanese public schoolteachers and about the advantages of being a teacher in a Lebanese public school. These questions prepared the interviewees to the more direct questions in which the researcher asked them to indicate the present factors leading to job motivation as well as the missing factors that, if they were present, would have led to higher level of motivation. All these questions, in addition to the interviewees' comments on recognition, collegiality, professional growth, participation in the decision-making and the availability of physical facilities inside the school, granted the researcher a better understanding of the factors behind teachers' motivation in the Lebanese public schools.

4.1.1. Problems facing the Lebanese public schools:

While asking the teachers about the major problems facing the Lebanese public schools, their answers came very close to each other. These problems or answers fell under different major categories.

First, even though there is an excess in the number of teachers in the intermediary schools, the problem they think lies in the quality and not the quantity. Teachers for Mathematics, Sciences, and Computers are required. Most of the teachers are not specialized in the courses they are teaching. These schools are suffering sometimes from the pressure placed by politicians to appoint certain teachers, qualified or not, in certain schools. In such cases, Principals in these schools end up, as 'Cucumber1' reported: "being forced to respect those politicians' will".

Second is the quality of the students who join the public schools. Some teachers believe that unqualified students who cannot survive in the private schools are sent to the public ones. And other students' parents are illiterate and not really interested in their children educational advancement. What the teachers are encountering is a mixture of many levels of students as well as ages in one classroom. Teachers argue that this problem became more and more severe by the newly imposed law of students' automatic promotion. Moreover, 'Cucumber1', for instance, revealed the weakness of the students in foreign languages and in Sciences, as well as their inability to undertake what is required from them through the new curriculum.

Third, public schools are suffering from the physical conditions of the buildings in which they operate. Most of these buildings are being rented from individuals who originally constructed them to serve as housing units. Thus architecturally speaking, they are not suitable for the schools' operations. They require repairs in some places and regarded as not safe in other places. Moreover, some teachers argue that, in addition to the required heating facilities, schools are to be equipped with up to date tools, including laboratories and computers, enabling them to apply the new curriculum properly. This issue was also raised in describing the schools selected in this study at the beginning of this chapter, as well as in describing the physical conditions of the Lebanese public schools in Chapter one with the statistical evidence supplied by the CERD.

The fourth problem the teachers have mentioned is managerial. It seems that they are worried about their reappointment or their transfer during the academic year to the schools that are in need. This transfers and without the teachers' consent leads to a decrease in job motivation. Moreover, teachers argue that Principals are to be granted more freedom and responsibilities.

4.1.2. Problems facing the Lebanese public teachers:

In addition to the problems mentioned above, teachers have added other issues while the researcher asked them about the major problems facing the teacher in particular, in the Lebanese public schools. The most important of these issues is put

in the words of 'Pineapple1': "salaries are very low..., the pay system is unfair, and you are entitled to receive the same salary regardless of the number of teaching hours and regardless of your efficiency in teaching". 'Peach1' revealed the same issue but in different words. Most of the teachers are calling for the establishment of a fair pay and promotion system through which the efforts of qualified teachers can be recognized. Moreover, they are calling for a system that punishes those who are not ready to bother themselves for a better performance.

Furthermore, teachers discussed the issue of the upgrading sessions, which were quick and not really effective in making the teachers really ready to apply the new curriculum. They commented on the difficulty faced by the large percentage of teachers who are not still young to cope with the quick technological advancement imposed by this century and that shaped the teaching methods the same teachers used to adopt previously.

Two teachers, belonging to two different schools classified as low-performing, have mentioned the issue of respect while being interviewed saying that teachers are not being really respected, especially from students.

4.1.3. The advantages of being a teacher in the Lebanese public schools:

The third question in the interview schedule, asking interviewers to list in order of importance the advantages that the teacher in the public school benefits from, has highlighted the great importance teachers are placing on "Job Security". It seems that they are enjoying the financial as well as the morale awards granted by this job characteristic. Fifteen out of twenty teachers interviewed had reported that 'job security' is the most important advantage that public school teachers are cherishing. They are appreciating more its importance because their colleagues in the private sector are facing the risk of being laid off at the end of each academic year. This is the case now in Lebanon: huge lay-off in the private schools or changing contracts; from full-time to part-time.

The other advantages discussed by the teachers are: a work load (i.e. teaching hours) that is not too hectic, schools that are not far from the teachers' homes, long holidays, some kind of independence in performing the job revealed in the friendly coordination between teachers and Principals, in addition to other fringe benefits such as insurance, retirement benefits, and others (even though considered by teachers as very low). Teacher 1 in the 'Carrot' school has revealed once again the issue of the 'absence of punishment' as an advantage for the public school teachers. 'Tomato1' put it another way and said: "teachers in the public schools, mainly the older group, are at a better comparative advantage when compared with those in the private schools".

It seems that interviewees are always comparing their case with their colleagues' case in the private schools when asked about the benefits they cherish. 'Pineapple1' insisted on: "being a teacher in a public school goes without any benefit".

4.1.4. The factors affecting teachers' motivation:

4.1.4.1. Present factors:

When teachers are asked about the factors affecting most their motivation to perform their daily duties, the most frequent answer came to be "conscience". One teacher in the 'Pineapple' school had put it "conscience, conscience and conscience". Another one said: "conscience and nothing else". 'Lettuce2' said: "what could be more than conscience!"

Another important factor is "teaching itself", it seems that many teachers really like the profession they have chosen and the job they are performing. 'Lettuce2' reported: "teaching is a mission more than a profession". Moreover, teachers said they come to school daily because they like their students, considering them as their own kids. This issue was reported by many teachers such as 'Cabbage1', 'Melon1', 'Melon2', and 'Cherry1'. 'Pineapple1' put it:

"Work is a pleasure that makes life more beautiful especially teaching that is characterized by the delivery of information from the teacher to the student in a fatherhood manner full of love and affection. Moreover, it could be enough for you to remember that those kids are the future foundations of your country to feel more and more motivated to do your best and educate them in the best way".

A second factor reported by most teachers is their commitment to teaching. For instance 'Cucumber1' put it: "I am motivated by the personal commitment to teaching enabling me to use my abilities and giving me the chance to help in the development of a well educated generation". 'Cabbage1' put it: "I am proud to possess this innate virtue, I love teaching". 'Apple1' said: "teaching is my dignity".

Another factor mentioned by teachers, mainly in low-performing schools, is the "salary". Those teachers were: 'Cabbage1', 'Cucumber2', 'Lettuce2' as well as Lettuce1'. Teacher 1 at the 'Apple' school reported: "I am motivated by the necessity to work in order to earn a salary at the end of each month, enabling me to survive with my family in these too bad economic conditions".

4.1.4.2. Missing factors:

In looking out at the missing factors that, once there, lead to higher teachers motivation, 'recognition' seems to take the first rank. Teachers are really in need of somebody or of a system that recognizes and appreciates their efforts. Sixteen out of twenty interviewees had revealed their need for recognition. Thus recognition, whether financial or morale, is what teachers are missing in their current job.

In addition to better recognition, equipped laboratories and rich libraries are missing factors stressed mainly by teachers belonging to the low-achieving schools. 'Tomato2' argued: "before implementing the new curriculum, the government had had to take into consideration the physical conditions of its schools. There is no proper match between the reality of the working conditions and the demands of the new curriculum".

For instance 'Cabbage1' reported: "we have a vast and beautiful laboratory, but it is empty!" This same teacher had mentioned something original:

> "What we need is that our government increases our fringe benefits like it does for military men such as free membership in resorts, special discount in hotels, and access to special cooperatives where they can buy things at discounted prices. All what we still have now is the medical card allowing us to benefit from some kind of medical insurance. Actually we would like to cherish pleasant things, not only medicine and hospitals!"

Teachers in the low-performing schools also emphasized the importance of finding out ways to enhance the quality of the students, mainly by being tough in accepting new low quality students and by motivating parents to be more involved in their children academic development. This issue had been raised before when teachers were asked about the problems facing the Lebanese public schools. 'Lettuce1' revealed the need for helpful parents. 'Cucumber1' stressed the importance of "putting the right student in the right place, and not mixing up students with different levels in one classroom cause this will have a negative impact on teachers' motivation and on their performance".

Whereas teachers in high-performing schools mentioned the importance of developing the teachers' educational skills, by upgrading their abilities to use the computer and other technologies for example.

They also argued about the necessity of giving to teaching the good social status that this profession deserves, taking into consideration the importance of the teacher's role in the society. 'Pineapple1' said: "there must be a huge campaign rebuilding up the image of the teacher in this society".

What was surprising is that one teacher only, 'Apple2', argued that: "there are no missing factors prohibiting me from being motivated in my current job". On the other extreme, 'Melon1' revealed his need for all kinds of motivators.

4.2. The third research question: What Principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by school Principals to improve teacher motivation?

In asking teachers to indicate the qualities they like most and the factors they dislike most in their Principal's leadership style, the researcher was able to highlight what teachers are cherishing and what they are suffering from in the way their Principal is leading the school. Consequently the researcher was able to find out the Principal/teacher-focused strategies that could be used by school Principals to enhance teachers' motivation.

4.2.1. Factors they like:

In asking teachers to list in order the qualities they like most in their Principal's leadership style, one common answer appears to be dominant in both sets of schools (set 1 and set 2); and this answer is: 'equity in dealing with teachers'. In addition to some other comments such as 'respect and sympathy with others'. Teachers seemed to appreciate the recognition they receive from their Principals, even though it is intangible; 'Cherry2' put it: "our Principal knows how to say: thank you." However, what is noticed by the researcher is the rich description of the teachers to their Principals in the high-performing schools and which is less important in the low-performing ones. Here are some characteristics of the Principals in the high-achieving schools:

- He/she shows understandings to educational problems.
- He/she is a good listener.
- He/she communicates with students, parents and teachers to solve difficult problems.
- He/she motivates teachers to undertake further educational advancement.
- He/she recognizes the effort done by teachers, by saying 'thank you'.
- He/she creates new ways to energize teachers as well as students.
- He/she abides by the rules and regulations.
- He/she provides positive support.

One teacher, 'Apple1', belonging to the same set of schools said a proverb (in Arabic) while describing the virtue of his Principal, he said (translated by the researcher): "don't be soft, you will be squeezed; and don't be hard, you will be broken. And rules and regulations are to judge and govern in all the situations".

4.2.2. Factors they dislike:

Moving to the next question in the interview schedule when teachers were asked to indicate in order of priority the qualities they dislike most in their Principal leadership style, the issue of 'equity' was mentioned once again, but this time under the disadvantages. 'Lettuce2' argued that "equality is great in distributing tasks, assignments, and work load but it is not fair to deal equally with all the teachers in an absolute manner... hard workers are to be distinguished and equity is to prevail!"

Another teacher from the 'Cucumber' school (a low-performing one) mentioned the issue of 'inequity', especially in the social participation.

Another issue that some of the teachers are suffering from is their Principal being the sole decision maker. In addition to what some teachers at the 'Cabbage' school were anxious to inform the researcher about; they said: "our Principal is so good, that once a teacher refused to teach, so the Principal taught the lesson in her place". They added: "he disregards some teachers' negative behaviours".

On the other side, four teachers belonging to three different high-performing schools did not mention any negative characteristic in their Principals' leadership styles. Those teachers are: 'Peach1', 'Apple1', 'Apple2' and 'Pineapple1'.

4.3. The fourth research question: What are the factors affecting the school performance level?

In the last question of the interview schedule, the researcher asked interviewees to discuss the main factors that contributed to the excellent or bad results that students

had achieved in the 'Brevet' examinations. Through this question, the researcher gave interviewees the chance to reveal what they think affect their school performance level. Their discussion came interesting in answering the fourth research question set in this study. However, a deeper understanding of this issue came when the researcher integrated these discussions with the differences she found in teachers' motivation and in the Principal's leadership style in the two different sets of schools selected; high-performing vs. low-performing, and their physical characteristics.

4.3.1. Good performance:

In finding out the reasons behind the good performance in the high-achieving schools, teachers reported that 'highly qualified teachers' comes at the first place. 'Apple2' stated: "more than half of the teachers in this school are highly qualified, and this fact is absent in other public schools". Not only teachers in these schools are of high quality but also, they are motivated to let the students succeed. They motivate students, stay in close contact with their educational advancement and insist on putting extra, unpaid, effort for reviewing the materials for them. They have 'conscience'.

At the second place comes the 'Principal's concern' and his/her excellent relationship with the teachers while at the same time exercising tight control over the teaching process and the smooth application of the new curriculum.

At the third place comes the students' good quality. For instance, 'Apple2' said: "our students are not only of a good quality, but are very respectful as well".

'Apple1' and 'Pineapple1' reported that the Principal's concern and the administration's control over all the activities in the school had led to the excellent results their students are achieving. 'Pineapple2' argued that the new curriculum is being applied in her school in a very good way. 'Melon1' said that: "the work in our school is very serious".

4.3.2. Low performance:

In asking the same question to teachers belonging to the low-performing schools, but in the other way round: looking for reasons behind this low performance, the answers came as opposites to the answers mentioned by the teachers in the high-performing schools. However, the ranking order differed. At the first place here, teachers mentioned the bad quality of students, their low socio-economic situation and the low quality of their home educational culture. Concerning the quality of students, 'Cucumber1' argued: "students who fail in the private schools join the public ones. Then, the teacher's role becomes: dealing with sick students and trying hard to make them somehow healthier". In addition to the imposed law of 'automatic student's promotion' that makes in one classroom different levels of students, which in turn makes the teacher's mission harder and harder.

Moreover, the teachers attribute their school low performance to the miserable economic conditions of the students whose parents are not able and ready to buy books and pens to their children. In most of the cases, the school's administration feels obliged to buy them on the parents' behalf from the school petty cash fund.

At the second place, teachers mentioned the shortage of highly qualified teachers, especially for Math and Sciences.

At the third stage came the lack of equipment, as 'Cabbage2' put it: "we have a large and vast laboratory, but it is empty!" Moreover, 'Cucumber2' said: "even though our teachers are very conscious and are willing to put extra efforts for the students' sake, our laboratories are empty; so how shall we perform all what is required from us especially with this new curriculum!"

5. Quantitative Data Analysis:

5.1. Reliability Analysis:

Cronbach's alpha, one of the standard ways of expressing a test's reliability, is used in this research to assess the internal consistency of the questionnaire administered to the teachers; especially that this questionnaire used the Likert scale. Because Cronbach's coefficient alpha is a reasonable indicator of the internal consistency of instruments or of a homogeneous section of an instrument that do not have right-wrong marking schemes (Oppenheim, 1992). It takes into consideration both the number of questions and the average correlation among questions on a test (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; cited in Black, 1999). Given that the questionnaire in this study is divided into two sections (those statements using the Likert scale): one section describing the Principal's leadership style, and the second describing teachers' motivation; a separate Cronbach's alpha was computed for each homogeneous section. Table 5.8 reveals alpha for the leadership style section and table 5.9 for the teachers' motivation section. They are 0.9344 and 0.8267 respectively (given that alpha can range from 0 to 1). They are high, thus reflecting a high level of internal consistency of the questionnaire used in this study.

Table 5.8: Reliability Analysis- Scale (Alpha): For the Principal leadership style statements.

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	No of Variables
Scale	66.3731	90.9551	9.5370	16
N of Cases = 201.0				
Reliability Coefficients		16 items		
Alpha = .9344		Standardized item alpha =		.9394

Table 5.9: Reliability Analysis- Scale (Alpha): For the teachers' motivation statements.

Statistics for	Mean	Variance	Std Dev	No of Variables
SCALE	97.0550	228.4944	15.1160	26
Reliability Coefficients				
N of Cases = 200.0			N of Items = 26	
Alpha = .8267				

5.2. Descriptive Statistics:

Before conducting deep analysis of the data for the two different groups of schools, it was deemed necessary to compute frequencies and percentages for the different statements in order to find out how many teachers did strongly disagree (denoted by SD), disagree (D), were neutral (N), agree (A) or strongly agree (SA) with the different functions describing their Principal's leadership style as well as with the different tools affecting their job motivation. Thus, two subsections follow. The first one deals with the second research question set in this study and the second subsection deals with the first research question. (As a reminder, school set # 1 & 2 in the tables represent the group of the five high-achieving schools and the group of the five low-performing ones, respectively. As for the integers inside the tables, they represent the number of teachers who gave this answer; whether it is SD, D, N, A or SA).

5.2.1. The second research question: What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?

The researcher started with the second research question because the statements dealing with the Principal's leadership are listed first in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). They are presented in 16 tables (from table 5.10 till table 5.25).

For "the Principal provides a positive support", table 5.10 shows that 48.8% of the total sample strongly agreed with this statement. However, 66.7% of the teachers in the high-performing schools, compared with 33.6% of the teachers in the low-performing ones only strongly agreed with the above statement. This discrepancy showed that Principals in the high-achieving schools are more providing positive support to their teachers compared to their colleagues in the low-achieving ones.

Table 5.11 shows that 49.3% of the total sample, 65.6% of the respondents in the high-achieving schools and 35.5% of the respondents in the low-achieving schools did strongly agree with the fact that their Principal creates a motivating environment in the school. The higher percentage for the high-achieving group shows one more time the superiority of the Principals in these schools over their colleagues in other schools in creating this motivating environment.

Table 5.10

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal provides a positive support	SD	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	D	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	N	Count	2	11	13
		%	2.2%	10.0%	6.4%
	A	Count	29	57	86
		%	31.2%	51.8%	42.4%
	SA	Count	62	37	99
		%	66.7%	33.6%	48.8%
Total		Count	93	110	203

As for "protecting instructional time", the difference between the two groups of schools is not as much big: 57.6% of the whole sample strongly agreed with it. This percentage is found to be at the midpoint between the 61.3% of the high-achieving group and the 54.5% of the low-achieving one, (table 5.12).

Table 5.13 shows that 45.5% of the teachers surveyed strongly agreed with the statement: "the Principal stresses academic standards"; 43.6% agree, 9.4% were neutral and 1.5 % disagreed with it. Those who disagreed came solely from the low-performing schools. And above half of the teachers of the high-performing schools strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 5.11

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal creates a motivating environment	SD	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	D	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	N	Count	2	7	9
		%	2.2%	6.4%	4.4%
	A	Count	30	60	90
		%	32.3%	54.5%	44.3%
	SA	Count	61	39	100
		%	65.6%	35.5%	49.3%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.12

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal protects instructional time	SD	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	D	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	N	Count	1	2	3
		%	1.1%	1.8%	1.5%
	A	Count	35	44	79
		%	37.6%	40.0%	38.9%
	SA	Count	57	60	117
		%	61.3%	54.5%	57.6%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.13

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal stresses academic standards	D	Count		3	3
		%		2.8%	1.5%
	N	Count	4	15	19
		%	4.3%	13.8%	9.4%
	A	Count	40	48	88
		%	43.0%	44.0%	43.6%
	SA	Count	49	43	92
		%	52.7%	39.4%	45.5%
Total		Count	93	109	202

In looking out at the Principal's maintaining a high visibility in the school, table 5.14 shows that 99% of the teachers in the high-achieving schools agreed and strongly agreed with that their Principals maintain a high level of visibility in the school. However this percentage was only 87% for the second group of schools. In looking at the same percentages for "the Principal maintains a spirit of collegiality", they are 99% and 83% for the high-achieving schools and low-achieving ones respectively, (table 5.15).

Table 5.16 reveals that 37.4% of the total respondents strongly agreed that their Principal is offering them the opportunity for professional development. This percentage came approximately in the mid point between two extreme percentages: one is 48.4% for the teachers belonging to the high-achieving schools and one is 28.2% for those belonging to the low-achieving ones. The percentages for the 'agree' did not differ among the two groups: it is 43%.

Table 5.14

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal maintains high visibility	SD	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	D	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	N	Count	1	9	10
		%	1.1%	8.2%	4.9%
	A	Count	35	49	84
		%	37.6%	44.5%	41.4%
	SA	Count	57	47	104
		%	61.3%	42.7%	51.2%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.15

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal maintains a spirit of collegiality	SD	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	D	Count		1	1
		%		.9%	.5%
	N	Count	1	16	17
		%	1.1%	14.5%	8.4%
	A	Count	28	39	67
		%	30.1%	35.5%	33.0%
	SA	Count	64	52	116
		%	68.8%	47.3%	57.1%
Total		Count	93	110	203

In asking teachers' attitude towards the issue that their Principals maintain firm discipline, the percentages came very close to each other under the two different groups of schools. They were 55.2% for the 'strongly agree' answer, 39.9% for the 'agree' and 2.5% for the 'neutral'. As for the 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree', they summed up to 2.5%; given that their origin is the teachers of the low-performing schools, (table 5.17).

Table 5.16

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
offers staff the opportunity for professional development	SD	Count		5	5
		%		4.5%	2.5%
	D	Count		5	5
		%		4.5%	2.5%
	N	Count	8	21	29
		%	8.6%	19.1%	14.3%
	A	Count	40	48	88
		%	43.0%	43.6%	43.3%
	SA	Count	45	31	76
		%	48.4%	28.2%	37.4%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.17

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal maintains firm discipline	SD	Count		2	2
		%		1.8%	1.0%
	D	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	N	Count	2	3	5
		%	2.2%	2.7%	2.5%
	A	Count	40	41	81
		%	43.0%	37.3%	39.9%
	SA	Count	51	61	112
		%	54.8%	55.5%	55.2%
Total		Count	93	110	203

To note here that, up to this statement, all the teachers of the high-performing schools were not strongly disagreeing or even disagreeing with any of the statements listing the functions performed by their Principals in leading the school. However, in table 5.18, some disagreements came to appear: 2.2% of the teachers in the high-achieving schools disagreed with the fact that their Principals distribute the tasks efficiently between them. In general, 42.6% of the teachers strongly agree and 44.6% of them agreed with this statement.

Table 5.18

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal distributes tasks among teachers efficiently	SD	Count		5	5
		%		4.5%	2.5%
	D	Count	2	6	8
		%	2.2%	5.5%	4.0%
	N	Count	4	9	13
		%	4.3%	8.2%	6.4%
	A	Count	40	50	90
		%	43.5%	45.5%	44.6%
	SA	Count	46	40	86
		%	50.0%	36.4%	42.6%
Total		Count	92	110	202

What is noticeable in table 5.19 is the decline in the percentages for the 'agree' and 'strongly agree' answers, which are 30% and 16.3% respectively. It seems that Principals rarely share with and help teachers in the preparation of lessons; although the percentages are better in the high-performing schools. As for those who disagreed and strongly disagreed, they account for 20.2% of the total sample; and those who were neutral account for 33.5%. This 33.5% was the highest percentage a 'neutral' attitude has received among all other statements describing the Principal leadership style.

Table 5.19

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the Principal shares &helps teachers in preparation	SD	Count	5	9	14
		%	5.4%	8.2%	6.9%
	D	Count	8	19	27
		%	8.6%	17.3%	13.3%
	N	Count	25	43	68
		%	26.9%	39.1%	33.5%
	A	Count	36	25	61
		%	38.7%	22.7%	30.0%
	SA	Count	19	14	33
		%	20.4%	12.7%	16.3%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.20 looks if the Principal makes frequent class observations. The highest percentage (52.2%) is for the 'agree' category. Next, it is for the 'strongly agree' and it is 28.6%. The same pattern was followed in table 5.21 where these percentages

are 50.2% and 21.7% for the Principal providing feedback about teachers' performance in classrooms.

Table 5.20

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal makes frequent classroom observation	SD	Count %		3 2.7%	3 1.5%
	D	Count %	2 2.2%	4 3.6%	6 3.0%
	N	Count %	7 7.5%	23 20.9%	30 14.8%
	A	Count %	53 57.0%	53 48.2%	106 52.2%
	SA	Count %	31 33.3%	27 24.5%	58 28.6%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.21

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal provides feedback	SD	Count %	6 6.5%	6 5.5%	12 5.9%
	D	Count %	3 3.2%	8 7.3%	11 5.4%
	N	Count %	17 18.3%	17 15.5%	34 16.7%
	A	Count %	48 51.6%	54 49.1%	102 50.2%
	SA	Count %	19 20.4%	25 22.7%	44 21.7%
Total		Count	93	110	203

In finding out the degree to which the Principal promotes new instructional practices in the school, table 5.22 shows that the greatest percentage of the teachers belonging to high-achieving schools agreed with this (44.1%), and the greatest percentage of the teachers belonging to low-achieving schools were neutral with this statement (40%). It seems that Principals in the high-performing schools were better than their colleagues in the second set of schools in promoting new instructional practices.

Table 5.22

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal promotes new instructional practices	SD	Count	1	4	5
		%	1.1%	3.6%	2.5%
	D	Count	2	8	10
		%	2.2%	7.3%	4.9%
	N	Count	22	44	66
		%	23.7%	40.0%	32.5%
	A	Count	41	31	72
		%	44.1%	28.2%	35.5%
	SA	Count	27	23	50
		%	29.0%	20.9%	24.6%
Total		Count	93	110	203

Table 5.23 shows that above the half of the respondents (53.2%) agreed that their Principals evaluate teachers' achievement. This percentage is somehow the same for both groups of teachers; however it differed when it came to 'strongly agree': it is 36.6% for the teachers of the high-achieving schools and 28.2% for those of the low-achieving ones. With always some teachers of the low-performing schools disagreeing or strongly disagreeing with what is being said in describing the functions performed by their Principals; the percentage for this function is 3%.

Table 5.23

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal evaluates teachers achievement	SD	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	D	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	N	Count	9	15	24
		%	9.7%	13.6%	11.8%
	A	Count	50	58	108
		%	53.8%	52.7%	53.2%
	SA	Count	34	31	65
		%	36.6%	28.2%	32.0%
Total		Count	93	110	203

In looking out at the degree to which Principals in the ten schools selected are concerned with and keep tight control over the students' progress; few percentages were obtained in table 5.24. In the whole sample, 4% of the teachers disagreed and strongly disagreed (this percentage came solely from the 7.2% of the teachers of the

low-achieving schools), 11.3% were neutral, 48.8% agreed and 36% strongly agreed with what teachers had been asked about. The last 36% was higher for the teachers of the high-achieving schools (45.2%), and was lower for the second group of teachers (28.2%).

Table 5.24

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal controls students progress	SD	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	D	Count		5	5
		%		4.5%	2.5%
	N	Count	8	15	23
		%	8.6%	13.6%	11.3%
	A	Count	43	56	99
		%	46.2%	50.9%	48.8%
	SA	Count	42	31	73
		%	45.2%	28.2%	36.0%
Total		Count	93	110	203

The last table for the Principal leadership style is table 5.25. It discusses the teachers' attitude towards their Principal serving as an instructional resource in the school. It seems that teachers at the high-achieving schools are more convinced in their Principal as being an instructional resource in the school as the percentage for 'agree' and 'strongly agree' combined is 93.5%; whereas this same percentage is 62.7% for the teachers of the low-achieving schools. Teachers of the latter group tended to stay 'neutral' in responding to this question as the percentage is 33.6%.

Table 5.25

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The Principal serves as an instructional resource in the school	SD	Count		3	3
		%		2.7%	1.5%
	D	Count		1	1
		%		.9%	.5%
	N	Count	6	37	43
		%	6.5%	33.6%	21.2%
	A	Count	48	45	93
		%	51.6%	40.9%	45.8%
	SA	Count	39	24	63
		%	41.9%	21.8%	31.0%
Total		Count	93	110	203

5.2.2. The first research question: What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?

In looking out at the attitude of the teachers towards the different aspects of work motivation, many issues came to light. These factors are presented in 26 tables (from table 5.26 till table 5.51).

The first table (table 5.26) dealt with the impact of salary on teachers' current level of motivation. Here the data for the whole sample did not skew towards one extreme, however in looking at each group of schools separately, it is found that the highest percentage for the teachers in the high-achieving schools came to be 30.1%, and it is for 'strongly disagree'; and the highest percentage for the teachers in the low-achieving schools came to be 33.9%, and it is for 'agree'. Table 5.27 shows the same for 'promotion' with the percentages being 34.4% and 29.4% respectively. This reflects the different teachers' attitudes towards salary as well as promotion.

Table 5.26

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the salary	SD	Count	28	17	45
		%	30.1%	15.6%	22.3%
	D	Count	11	22	33
		%	11.8%	20.2%	16.3%
	N	Count	17	11	28
		%	18.3%	10.1%	13.9%
	A	Count	16	37	53
		%	17.2%	33.9%	26.2%
	SA	Count	21	22	43
		%	22.6%	20.2%	21.3%
Total		Count	93	109	202

Table 5.28 shows that teachers value fringe benefits slightly more than they value salary and promotion. The percentage for 'agree' and 'strongly agree' combined is 54.5%. Concerning job security, teachers' attitude towards this job characteristic, at least in the public sector, seemed to be excellent as 85.1% of the teachers surveyed

are motivated by it, (table 5.29). The importance of job security was also emphasized in the qualitative data.

Table 5.27

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the promotion	SD	Count	32	19	51
		%	34.4%	17.4%	25.2%
	D	Count	15	14	29
		%	16.1%	12.8%	14.4%
	N	Count	11	24	35
		%	11.8%	22.0%	17.3%
	A	Count	20	32	52
		%	21.5%	29.4%	25.7%
	SA	Count	15	20	35
		%	16.1%	18.3%	17.3%
Total		Count	93	109	202

Table 5.28

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the fringe benefits	SD	Count	19	11	30
		%	20.4%	10.1%	14.9%
	D	Count	12	16	28
		%	12.9%	14.7%	13.9%
	N	Count	16	18	34
		%	17.2%	16.5%	16.8%
	A	Count	23	37	60
		%	24.7%	33.9%	29.7%
	SA	Count	23	27	50
		%	24.7%	24.8%	24.8%
Total		Count	93	109	202

Table 5.29

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the job security	SD	Count	6	1	7
		%	6.5%	.9%	3.5%
	D	Count	3	5	8
		%	3.2%	4.6%	4.0%
	N	Count	6	9	15
		%	6.5%	8.3%	7.5%
	A	Count	32	50	82
		%	34.4%	46.3%	40.8%
	SA	Count	46	43	89
		%	49.5%	39.8%	44.3%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.30 shows the impact of training on teachers' motivation. Even though 31.8% of the teachers agreed that they consider training as a source of motivation in their current job, 26.9% were neutral and 26.3% disagreed and strongly disagreed. As for the remaining percentage, it is for 'strongly agree' and equals to 14.4%. Moreover, the impact of facilities on teachers' motivation is shown in table 5.31. It is revealed that the positive attitude (agree & strongly agree) of the teachers in the high-performing schools is slightly higher than of those in the low-performing schools: it is 51.6% compared to 39.8%. This can be attributable to the more equipped high-achieving schools. The neutral attitude had also its share in the whole sample: 26.9%.

Table 5.30

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
training	SD	Count	15	10	25
		%	16.1%	9.3%	12.4%
	D	Count	13	15	28
		%	14.0%	13.9%	13.9%
	N	Count	24	30	54
		%	25.8%	27.8%	26.9%
	A	Count	27	37	64
		%	29.0%	34.3%	31.8%
	SA	Count	13	16	29
		%	14.0%	14.8%	14.4%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.31

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
Facilities (computer, library, lab.)	SD	Count	17	17	34
		%	18.3%	15.7%	16.9%
	D	Count	4	18	22
		%	4.3%	16.7%	10.9%
	N	Count	24	30	54
		%	25.8%	27.8%	26.9%
	A	Count	28	25	53
		%	30.1%	23.1%	26.4%
	SA	Count	20	18	38
		%	21.5%	16.7%	18.9%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.32 shows that the percentage of teachers in the high-performing schools who are motivated by the long holiday, teaching offers to them is greater than the percentage of their colleagues in the low-performing schools; 50.5% compared to

30.5%. The greatest percentage for the teachers in the low-achieving schools is 32.4% and it is for the neutral attitude. This is also true for the motivation that teachers get from the support they receive from their Principal, where the same percentage is found for the same group of teachers, (table 5.33). 39.8% of the same group had shown positive attitude towards this kind of support; whereas 65.6% of the teachers in the high-performing schools had shown positive attitude towards the support they receive from their Principal. It seems that Principals in the high-achieving schools are more supportive, or teachers at these schools really appreciate this kind of motivation.

Table 5.32

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
long holidays	SD	Count	15	18	33
		%	16.1%	16.7%	16.4%
	D	Count	18	22	40
		%	19.4%	20.4%	19.9%
	N	Count	13	35	48
		%	14.0%	32.4%	23.9%
	A	Count	27	24	51
		%	29.0%	22.2%	25.4%
	SA	Count	20	9	29
		%	21.5%	8.3%	14.4%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.33

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
support from Principal	SD	Count	4	11	15
		%	4.3%	10.2%	7.5%
	D	Count	5	19	24
		%	5.4%	17.6%	11.9%
	N	Count	23	35	58
		%	24.7%	32.4%	28.9%
	A	Count	35	26	61
		%	37.6%	24.1%	30.3%
	SA	Count	26	17	43
		%	28.0%	15.7%	21.4%
Total		Count	93	108	201

In asking teachers if they are motivated by the sense of equity they perceive among themselves, 63.3% of the teachers in the low-achieving schools agreed and strongly

agreed. This percentage was greater in the high-achieving schools: 83.9% (table 5.34). The same relationship between the percentages of both groups of teachers patterned for the 'good administration' as a motivator, but the discrepancy is not as much high: the percentages of positive attitude were 84.2% for the teachers in the low-performing schools, and 92.5% for their colleagues in the high-performing ones (table 5.35).

Table 5.34

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
sense of equity i perceive among teachers	SD	Count	3	5	8
		%	3.2%	4.6%	4.0%
	D	Count		10	10
		%		9.2%	5.0%
	N	Count	12	25	37
		%	12.9%	22.9%	18.3%
	A	Count	38	41	79
		%	40.9%	37.6%	39.1%
	SA	Count	40	28	68
		%	43.0%	25.7%	33.7%
Total		Count	93	109	202

Table 5.35

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
good administration	SD	Count	2	3	5
		%	2.2%	2.8%	2.5%
	D	Count		1	1
		%		.9%	.5%
	N	Count	5	13	18
		%	5.4%	12.0%	9.0%
	A	Count	38	55	93
		%	40.9%	50.9%	46.3%
	SA	Count	48	36	84
		%	51.6%	33.3%	41.8%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.36 shows that the friendly atmosphere present at the school is being appreciated by the teachers who find it motivating. The percentage is 85.6% of the whole sample. The same is true also for the sense of belonging and teamwork, with a percentage of 91.6% (table 5.37). Noting here that none of the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with that.

Table 5.36

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
friendly atmosphere	SD	Count	1		1
		%	1.1%		.5%
	D	Count		3	3
		%		2.8%	1.5%
	N	Count	6	19	25
		%	6.5%	17.6%	12.4%
	A	Count	38	45	83
		%	40.9%	41.7%	41.3%
	SA	Count	48	41	89
		%	51.6%	38.0%	44.3%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.37

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
sense of belonging & teamwork	N	Count	4	13	17
		%	4.3%	12.0%	8.5%
	A	Count	38	51	89
		%	40.9%	47.2%	44.3%
	SA	Count	51	44	95
		%	54.8%	40.7%	47.3%
Total		Count	93	108	201

In looking out at the degree to which the good social standing offered by teaching is being appreciated by teachers, table 5.38 shows that teachers of both groups of schools value this characteristic somehow equally. Consequently, 12.5% of the teachers showed a negative attitude, 25.5% were neutral and 62% showed a positive attitude towards what the teaching profession offers to them in terms of a social standing.

Table 5.39 shows that 81.7% of the teachers in the high-performing schools and 58.3% of the teachers in the low-performing ones were motivated by the recognition they receive from their Principal. It shows that the percentages differed among the two groups of schools. Whereas, for the appreciation teachers receive from students and their parents, the percentages of the two different groups of schools came to be close to each others, making an overall percentage of 65% for those agreeing and strongly agreeing with that kind of appreciation, considering it as source of motivation to them, (table 5.40).

Table 5.38

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
good social standing offered by teaching	SD	Count	11	6	17
		%	11.8%	5.6%	8.5%
	D	Count	2	6	8
		%	2.2%	5.6%	4.0%
	N	Count	22	29	51
		%	23.7%	27.1%	25.5%
	A	Count	35	37	72
		%	37.6%	34.6%	36.0%
	SA	Count	23	29	52
		%	24.7%	27.1%	26.0%
Total		Count	93	107	200

Table 5.39

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
recognition from Principal	SD	Count	2	5	7
		%	2.2%	4.6%	3.5%
	D	Count	1	6	7
		%	1.1%	5.6%	3.5%
	N	Count	14	34	48
		%	15.1%	31.5%	23.9%
	A	Count	47	44	91
		%	50.5%	40.7%	45.3%
	SA	Count	29	19	48
		%	31.2%	17.6%	23.9%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.40

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the appreciation from students & parents	SD	Count	7	5	12
		%	7.5%	4.7%	6.0%
	D	Count		9	9
		%		8.4%	4.5%
	N	Count	22	27	49
		%	23.7%	25.2%	24.5%
	A	Count	37	38	75
		%	39.8%	35.5%	37.5%
	SA	Count	27	28	55
		%	29.0%	26.2%	27.5%
Total		Count	93	107	200

Table 5.41 reveals that around one third of the respondents were neutral about being motivated by the appreciation they receive from their colleagues, 39.5% agreed,

17% strongly agreed and the remaining 10.5% disagreed and strongly disagreed, (table 5.41). Noting that teachers in the high-achieving schools valued this source of motivation more than their colleagues at the low-achieving schools.

Table 5.41

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the appreciation from colleagues	SD	Count	2	5	7
		%	2.2%	4.7%	3.5%
	D	Count	4	10	14
		%	4.3%	9.3%	7.0%
	N	Count	28	38	66
		%	30.1%	35.5%	33.0%
	A	Count	40	39	79
		%	43.0%	36.4%	39.5%
	SA	Count	19	15	34
		%	20.4%	14.0%	17.0%
Total		Count	93	107	200

It seems that teachers are motivated by the fact that they are practicing a profession allowing them to use their abilities, the percentage is 89.5%. Only 1% of the teachers are not motivated by this, given that this 1% came from the teachers of the high-performing schools only, (table 5.42).

Table 5.42

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the chance of using my abilities	D	Count	2		2
		%	2.2%		1.0%
	N	Count	8	11	19
		%	8.6%	10.2%	9.5%
	A	Count	44	58	102
		%	47.3%	53.7%	50.7%
	SA	Count	39	39	78
		%	41.9%	36.1%	38.8%
Total		Count	93	108	201

In asking teachers if they are currently motivated by the participation they make in the decision making process, table 5.43 shows that more than half of the teachers felt neutral about this issue, and 38.3% of them only showed a positive attitude towards participation in the decisions inside the school. The qualitative data helped the researcher to clarify this point in order to find out if the teachers do not really care

about the participation or their Principals are not offering them the chance to participate.

Table 5.43

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the participation in the decision-making process	SD	Count	4	6	10
		%	4.3%	5.6%	5.0%
	D	Count	3	8	11
		%	3.2%	7.4%	5.5%
	N	Count	51	52	103
		%	54.8%	48.1%	51.2%
	A	Count	25	25	50
		%	26.9%	23.1%	24.9%
	SA	Count	10	17	27
		%	10.8%	15.7%	13.4%
Total		Count	93	108	201

In assessing the level of motivation that teachers get from the control they can exercise over their own activities, table 5.44 shows that 50.5% of the teachers showed a positive attitude, 26.5% were neutral and 23% showed a negative attitude.

Table 5.45 shows that 32.8% of the teachers were not motivated by what is being offered to them in terms of professional growth opportunities, 28.9% were neutral and 38.3% were motivated.

Table 5.44

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the control over my own's activities	SD	Count	19	11	30
		%	20.4%	10.3%	15.0%
	D	Count	2	14	16
		%	2.2%	13.1%	8.0%
	N	Count	27	26	53
		%	29.0%	24.3%	26.5%
	A	Count	28	42	70
		%	30.1%	39.3%	35.0%
	SA	Count	17	14	31
		%	18.3%	13.1%	15.5%
Total		Count	93	107	200

Table 5.45

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the professional growth opportunities available to me	SD	Count	20	17	37
		%	21.5%	15.7%	18.4%
	D	Count	15	14	29
		%	16.1%	13.0%	14.4%
	N	Count	22	36	58
		%	23.7%	33.3%	28.9%
	A	Count	23	24	47
		%	24.7%	22.2%	23.4%
	SA	Count	13	17	30
		%	14.0%	15.7%	14.9%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.46 shows that 79.1% of the teachers showed a positive attitude towards the feeling of accomplishment they get from their job. Moreover, the researcher noticed the absence of respondents under the 'strongly disagree' answer. The same was found for the way the teacher makes change among students and its impact on teachers' motivation: no 'strongly disagree' answers. Table 5.47 shows that 91.1% of the teachers were motivated by this feeling.

Table 5.46

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
The feeling of accomplishment I get from job	D	Count	2	6	8
		%	2.2%	5.6%	4.0%
	N	Count	19	15	34
		%	20.4%	13.9%	16.9%
	A	Count	43	50	93
		%	46.2%	46.3%	46.3%
	SA	Count	29	37	66
		%	31.2%	34.3%	32.8%
Total		Count	93	108	201

As to the personal commitment to teaching, 95% of the teachers were motivated by this commitment. The qualitative data also stressed this point. No one teacher did disagree or strongly disagree with the fact of being motivated by the personal commitment to teaching, (table 5.48). Moreover, table 5.49 shows that 86.6% of the teachers were motivated by the flexibility that teaching is offering them in trying out methods of their own while teaching. Only 2.5% of them showed a negative attitude towards this job characteristic.

Table 5.47

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the way I make change among students	D	Count %		3 2.8%	3 1.5%
	N	Count %	7 7.5%	8 7.4%	15 7.5%
	A	Count %	47 50.5%	48 44.4%	95 47.3%
	SA	Count %	39 41.9%	49 45.4%	88 43.8%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.48

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
the personal commitment to teaching	N	Count %	7 7.5%	3 2.8%	10 5.0%
	A	Count %	40 43.0%	45 41.7%	85 42.3%
	SA	Count %	46 49.5%	60 55.6%	106 52.7%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.49

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
ability of trying out methods of my own	SD	Count %		1 .9%	1 .5%
	D	Count %	1 1.1%	3 2.8%	4 2.0%
	N	Count %	10 10.8%	12 11.1%	22 10.9%
	A	Count %	48 51.6%	48 44.4%	96 47.8%
	SA	Count %	34 36.6%	44 40.7%	78 38.8%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Regarding the progress of curriculum reform and the process of school restructuring, tables 5.50 and 5.51 show that around one third of the teachers felt neutral, and around 9% showed negative attitude towards them. These percentages were more explained in discussing the training sessions held for the teachers as well as the equipped schools enabling teachers to assume the new curriculum.

Table 5.50

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
progress of curriculum reform	SD	Count	1	4	5
		%	1.1%	3.7%	2.5%
	D	Count	3	10	13
		%	3.2%	9.3%	6.5%
	N	Count	27	34	61
		%	29.0%	31.5%	30.3%
	A	Count	41	41	82
		%	44.1%	38.0%	40.8%
	SA	Count	21	19	40
		%	22.6%	17.6%	19.9%
Total		Count	93	108	201

Table 5.51

			School Set #		Total
			1	2	
process of school restructuring	SD	Count	2	3	5
		%	2.2%	2.8%	2.5%
	D	Count	2	12	14
		%	2.2%	11.1%	7.0%
	N	Count	36	31	67
		%	38.7%	28.7%	33.3%
	A	Count	35	41	76
		%	37.6%	38.0%	37.8%
	SA	Count	18	21	39
		%	19.4%	19.4%	19.4%
Total		Count	93	108	201

5.3. Analysis of leadership and motivation:

The concept of scales of measurement is central to statistical analysis and helps to identify the types of procedure that may be carried out on particular variables. There are four different scales of measurement: nominal, ordinal or rank, interval and ratio (Foster, 2001). The nominal scales are where the numbers are used merely as a label: the 0 and 1 usually used to code the respondent's sex as male or female. The ordinal or rank scales have some correspondence between the size of the numbers and the magnitude of the quality represented by the numbers; i.e. the different categories can be arranged into some kind of meaningful order. A common example is position in a race. However, the degree of difference between categories (person with position 1 and person with position 2) can not be determined. Interval scales are where the numbers represent the magnitude of the differences and measure the precise distance between each of the categories. However they do not have an

absolute zero point, thus making inappropriate to compute ratios between two values measured on such scales. Ratio scales are where there is a true zero point and the ratio of the numbers reflects the ratios of the attribute measured; for instance $10 is twice as much as $5.

The researcher in this study assumed that the attitude scales are treated as interval scales where the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 referring to 'strongly disagree', 'disagree', 'neutral', 'agree' and 'strongly agree' respectively; represent the magnitude of the differences (Figure 5.1 shows this magnitude), (Nishisato (2004) did something similar in discussing the Dual Scaling, but assigned -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 to the five ordered categories and then computed the mean). Consequently she was able to use powerful statistics in data processing such as factor analysis, means, standard deviations and analysis of variance (Cohen et al., 2000). Powerful here refers to the ability of those parametric tests to find out an effect that genuinely exists and not to miss a significant effect in the data (Field, 2000).

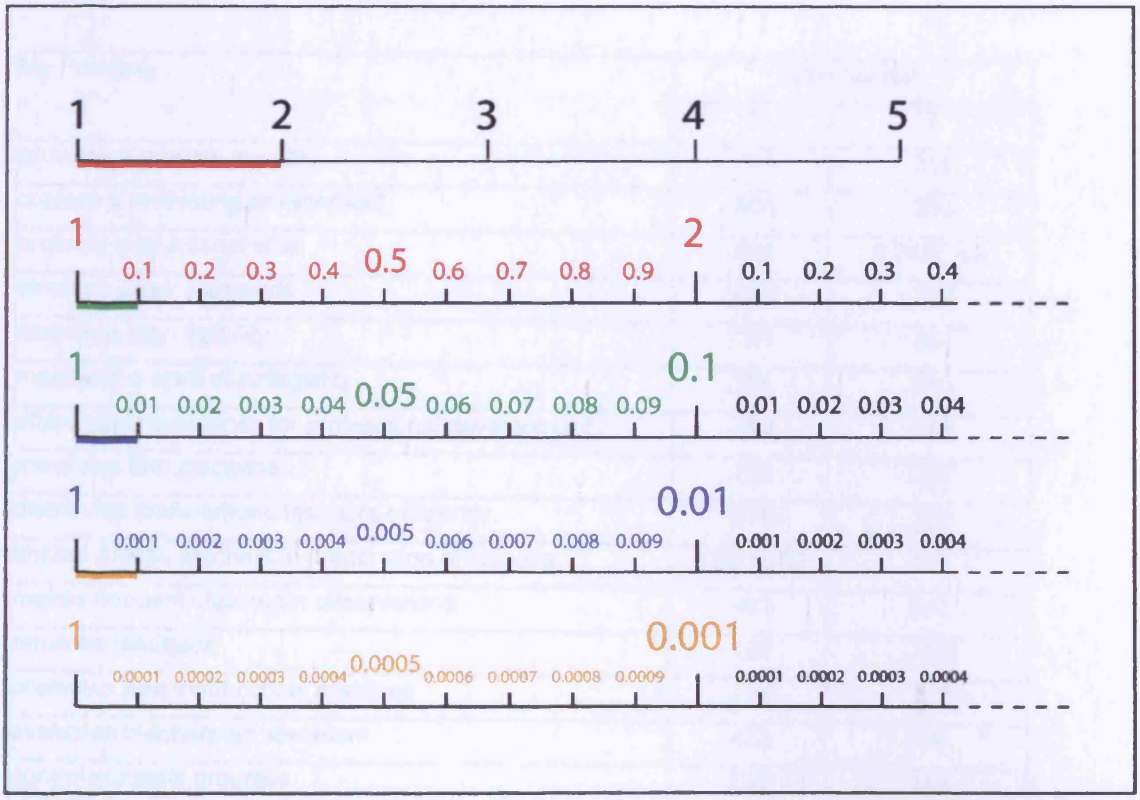
Factor analysis is a family of techniques used by researchers to simplify the complex sets of data by analyzing the correlations between them and revealing the small number of factors which can explain the correlations. Kline (1994) recommends running the analysis with rotation of factors using the Varimax method. Factor analysis was used on two different sets of data. The first set includes all the statements describing the leadership style adopted in the schools, and the second includes all the statements revealing teachers' attitude towards the different factors of motivation.

5.3.1. The second research question: What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?

Table 5.52 shows the different statements describing the Principal's style in leading the school and their loadings on the two factors extracted. The following statement: "the Principal provides a positive support, creates a motivating environment; protects instructional time, stresses academic standards, maintains high visibility, maintains a

spirit of collegiality, maintains firm discipline, and distributes tasks among teachers efficiently" loaded high on factor one. Thus factor one describes the "climate-related" functions performed by the Principal. Whereas, the remaining statements "the Principal shares and helps teachers in the preparation of lessons and materials, makes frequent class observations, provides feedback about teachers' performance, promotes new instructional practices, evaluates teachers achievement, controls students progress, serves as an instructional resource in the school, and offers staff opportunity to participate in professional development" loaded high on factor two.

Figure 5.1: the magnitude of differences assumed for the attitude scale used in this research.



This factor describes the "technological" functions performed by the Principal. This classification of the different statements describing the different activities undertaken by the school's Principal came to describe the two different functions of instructional leadership discussed by Hallinger and Murphy (1983) (see chapter 2, p.70), who labeled them: 'climate-related' functions and 'technological' functions.

There are as many components as there are variables but most are unimportant. The importance of a particular vector is determined by the magnitude of the associated eigenvalue. By default SPSS uses Kraiser's criterion of retaining factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (Field, 2000). Thus, two factors were retained under the Principal's leadership style, explaining a total of 62.305% of the variance (table 5.53). By rotation, the factor structure was optimized and the relative importance of the factors extracted is equalized (Field, 2000).

Table 5.52: Rotated Component Matrix: the leadership statements and their loading on the two factors extracted

My Principal ...	Component	
	1	2
provides a positive support	.751	.319
creates a motivating environment	.804	.260
protects instructional time	.814	6.245E-02
stresses acad. standards	.681	.393
maintains high visibility	.731	.364
maintains a spirit of collegiality	.765	.219
offers staff opportunity for professional development	.493	.551
maintains firm discipline	.753	.222
distributes tasks among teachers efficiently	.538	.377
shares &helps teachers in preparation of lessons	5.060E-02	.786
makes frequent classroom observations	.462	.647
provides feedback	.168	.703
promotes new instructional practices	.220	.788
evaluates teachers achievement	.458	.664
control students progress	.540	.594
serves an instructional resource	.515	.637

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Table 5.53: Total Variance Explained for the factors extracted under Principals' leadership

component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	8.467	52.920	52.920	5.617	35.107	35.107
2	1.502	9.385	62.305	4.352	27.198	62.305

Table 5.54: means, standard deviation and ANOVA sig. for the different statements describing the Principal's leadership style for the two different sets of schools.

Factors #	Statements: My Principal....	high-achieving schools: set # 1 (n=93)		low-achieving schools: set # 2 (n=110)		Total (n=203)		Sig.
		mean	Standard Dev.	mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Stand. Dev.	
Factor one: **the climate-related functions**	Provides positive support	4.4520	0.52430	4.1273	0.83621	4.3645	0.75461	**.000**
	Creates a motivating environment	4.6344	0.52719	4.2000	0.78752	4.3990	0.71296	**.000**
	Protects instructional time	4.6022	0.51372	4.4364	0.78433	4.5123	0.67750	.082
	Stresses academic standards	4.4839	0.58259	4.2018	0.77912	4.3317	0.70808	**.005**
	Maintains high visibility	4.6022	0.51372	4.2273	0.88472	4.3990	0.76001	**.000**
	Maintains a spirit of collegiality	4.6774	0.49258	4.2545	0.87195	4.4483	0.75192	**.000**
	Maintains firm discipline	4.5269	0.54357	4.4182	0.82819	4.4680	0.71248	.280
	Distributes tasks among teachers efficiently	4.4130	0.68182	4.0364	1.03982	4.2079	0.91224	**.003**
		4.5735		4.2385		4.3920		**.000**
Factor two: **the technolog-ical functions**	Offers staff opportunity for prof. Development	4.3978	0.64504	3.8636	1.02695	4.1084	0.91092	**.000**
	Shares & helps teachers in preparation of lesson	3.6022	1.07481	3.1455	1.10741	3.3547	1.11352	**.003**
	Makes frequent classroom observations	4.2151	0.67324	3.8818	0.91603	4.0345	0.82881	**.004**
	Provides feedback regarding class performance	3.7634	1.02573	3.7636	1.05732	3.7635	1.04040	.999
	Promotes new instructional practices	3.9785	0.84671	3.5545	1.01896	3.7488	0.96520	**.002**
	Evaluates teachers' achievement	4.2688	0.62797	4.0091	0.88302	4.1281	0.78561	**.019**
	Control students' progress	4.3656	0.63904	3.9727	0.92329	4.1527	0.82734	**.001**
	Serves as an instructional resource in the school	4.3548	0.60154	3.7818	0.89219	4.0443	0.82234	**.000**
		4.1183		3.7466		3.9169		**.000**

5.3.1.1. High-achieving vs. low-achieving schools:

Means have been calculated for the different statements making up each factor of the two factors found under the Principal's leadership style. Then, means of the means have been found for the two different sets of schools classified as high or low achievers. And, in order to check if the schools classification in that way has any significant impact on the way the Principal leads the school; an ANOVA test has been used. Table 5.54 shows that the two factors extracted, factor one (climate-related functions) and factor two (technological functions), show a significant variance under the two sets of schools, with a coefficient of 0, (significant at $p<0.05$) for both factors. However, by looking at the ANOVA done for each statement, the researcher noticed that the variance is not significant for two statements under factor one and for one statement under factor two. The two statements under the first factor are: "the Principal (1) protects instructional time, and (2) maintains firm discipline", with coefficients of 0.082 and 0.28 respectively, significant at $p<0.05$. And, the single statement under the second factor is "the Principal provides feedback to teachers regarding class performance", with a coefficient of 0.999 (significant at $p<0.05$).

What is interesting to notice is that all the teachers in the high-performing schools rated their Principals higher than their colleagues in the low-performing schools, on all the statements describing the functions the Principals perform in leading their schools.

For factor one or the climate-related functions performed by the Principal, the mean of the means is 4.5735 for high-performing schools and 4.2385 for low-performing ones. For factor two or the technological functions assumed by the Principal, the mean of the means is 4.1183 for high-achieving schools and 3.7466 for low-achieving ones.

Table 5.54 reveals also that the respective standard deviation of the means for all the statements describing the Principal leadership style are lower in the high-achieving schools in comparison with the low-achieving schools; showing that the means in the high-performing schools were better in representing the data.

5.3.1.2. Male vs. female Principals:

Out of the ten Principals in the ten schools surveyed, only two are female, and they are found in the high-achieving schools, (table 5.5). The researcher was interested in finding out if the Principal's gender has any impact on the leadership functions performed by the Principal. Table 5.55 shows the means for the different statements describing the leadership style for the male Principals and the female ones in the high-achieving schools. Given that the two female Principals belong to the high-achieving schools, the three male Principals taken into consideration here belong also to the high-achieving schools; no low-achieving schools' Principals are assumed in this comparison in order to minimize the number of variables affecting the situation. It is shown that female Principals are slightly better than their male colleagues in: providing a positive support to the teachers, offering staff the opportunity for professional development, promoting new instructional practices, evaluating teachers' achievements and serving as an instructional resource in the school. Whereas male Principals are found to be slightly better in: maintaining high visibility, distributing task among teachers efficiently, making frequent class observations, and providing feedback. The greatest mean difference between male and female was found for 'Principals sharing and helping teachers in lesson preparations'. The means were 3.2609 for males and 3.9362 for females; making female Principals superior to their male colleagues in performing this function. This difference here was significant, with a coefficient of 0.002; it is significant at $p<0.05$ and is highlighted in the table.

Table 5.55: means for male vs. means for female with F-values and ANOVA sig. for the different statements describing leadership in the high-achieving schools.

	Principals in the high-achieving schools		**F- values**	**ANOVA Sig.**
	Means for Male	**Means for Female**		
provides a positive support	4.5652	4.7234	2.142	0.147
creates a motivating environment	4.6522	4.6170	0.102	0.750
protects instructional time	4.6087	4.5957	0.015	0.904
stresses acad. standards	4.4783	4.4894	0.008	0.927
maintains high visibility	4.6522	4.5532	0.862	0.356
maintains a spirit of collegiality	4.6739	4.6809	0.005	0.946
offers staff opportunity for professional development	4.3696	4.4255	0.173	0.678
maintains firm discipline	4.5435	4.5106	0.084	0.773
distributes tasks among teachers efficiently	4.4348	4.3913	0.093	0.762
shares &helps teachers in preparation of lessons	3.2609	3.9362	10.083	**0.002**
makes frequent classroom observations	4.3043	4.1277	1.612	0.207
provides feedback	3.8478	3.6809	0.613	0.436
promotes new instructional practices	3.8913	4.0638	0.965	0.329
evaluates teachers achievement	4.2174	4.3191	0.608	0.438
control students progress	4.3913	4.3404	0.146	0.703
serves an instructional resource	4.2391	4.4681	3.458	0.066

5.3.2. The first research question: What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?

Moreover, factor analysis was conducted on the different factors affecting teachers' motivation. Table 5.56 reveals the six factors that were retained (with eigenvalues greater than 1), explaining a total of 61.102% of the variance. Table 5.57 shows the different statements revealing teachers' attitude towards the different motivational aspects of their job and their loadings on the six factors extracted. Table 5.58 summarizes the statements that made up each factor. The following statements: 'I am motivated by ... salary, promotion, fringe benefits, job security and long holidays', loaded high on factor one. Whereas, the following statements: 'I am motivated by ... chance to do something that makes use of my abilities, feeling of accomplishment I get from the job, the way I make change among students, personal commitment to teaching, and, ability of trying out methods of my own when teaching and being creative', loaded high on factor two. The statements, 'I am motivated by ... support I receive from my Principal, sense of equity I perceive among all staff members, good administration, friendly atmosphere and social interaction with my colleagues, and, sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school', loaded high on factor three. Furthermore, the following statements loaded high on factor four and they are: I am motivated by ... training, facilities such as computers, library and laboratories, the progress of curriculum reform and the process of school restructuring'. Statements discussing the issue of recognition loaded high on factor five and they are: 'I am motivated by ... recognition from Principal, appreciation from students and their parents, and, appreciation from my colleagues'. The remaining statements, 'I am motivated by ... good social standing offered by teaching, participation in the decision making process in the school, the great deal of control I can exercise over my own work activities, and, professional growth opportunities available to me', loaded high on factor six. The researcher has labeled the six factors extracted according to the different aspects of teachers' motivation they describe. Factor one describes the monetary-based characteristics of teaching. Factor two describes the teacher's self-fulfillment. Factor three describes the friendly work atmosphere in the school. Factor four discusses the advancement of the curriculum and its application. Factor five describes the recognition teachers receive from their Principal,

colleagues, students, and their parents. Factor six and finally describes teacher's growth and autonomy.

Table 5.56: Total Variance Explained for the factors extracted under teachers' motivation

component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.966	26.794	26.794	3.245	12.480	12.480
2	2.961	11.390	38.184	3.234	12.440	24.921
3	1.817	6.989	45.174	2.860	10.999	35.920
4	1.808	6.952	52.126	2.465	9.479	45.399
5	1.260	4.845	56.971	2.219	8.536	53.935
6	1.074	4.131	61.102	1.863	7.167	61.102

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.57: Rotated Component Matrix: the motivation statements and their loading on the six factors extracted.

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
salary	.824	7.380E-02	-4.539E-03	-2.714E-02	.122	-6.484E-03
promotion	.784	3.551E-02	3.984E-02	.186	1.810E-02	.186
fringe benefits	.878	1.976E-02	.129	7.220E-02	.122	7.220E-02
job security	.610	1.847E-02	.365	.128	8.097E-02	.133
training	.119	3.485E-02	.195	.290	-8.623E-02	.307
facilities (computer, library, lab.)	.432	-4.163E-02	.314	.502	2.408E-02	.128
long holidays	.571	-5.894E-02	-5.978E-02	-.160	.475	-9.494E-02
support from Principal	.159	-6.897E-02	.489	.325	.498	-7.914E-02
sense of equity i perceive among teachers	.159	.134	.686	.100	4.273E-02	4.049E-02
good administration	6.186E-02	8.523E-02	.703	.289	.187	1.481E-02
freindly atmosphere	5.899E-02	.269	.773	-1.553E-02	.186	.147
sense of belonging & teamwork	-1.757E-02	.438	.622	-.115	.211	.131
good social standing offered by teaching	3.125E-03	.159	5.682E-02	-.109	2.400E-02	.512
recognition from Principal	.129	3.350E-02	.379	.414	.604	.123
appreciation from students & parents	.175	.263	9.551E-02	5.586E-02	.662	.129
appreciation from colleagues	8.920E-02	.145	.318	5.216E-02	.734	.230
chance of using my abilities	-1.027E-02	.743	6.431E-02	-2.235E-03	.222	.119
participation in the decision- making process	.223	8.947E-02	8.040E-02	.262	.324	.397
control over own's activities	-7.779E-03	6.136E-02	1.736E-02	.137	.207	.749
professional growth opportunities	.286	.157	6.541E-02	.355	5.332E-02	.710
feeling of accomplishment i get from job	.160	.668	.173	8.233E-02	5.789E-02	.104
way i make change among students	6.457E-02	.741	.237	4.275E-02	1.969E-02	.119
personal commitment to teaching	-6.325E-02	.814	3.517E-02	.121	-2.381E-02	3.197E-02
ability of trying out methods of my own	-2.060E-02	.685	7.784E-02	.247	7.173E-02	9.341E-02
progress of curriculum reform	1.987E-02	.193	1.905E-02	.832	.115	7.338E-02
process of school restructuring	3.427E-02	.237	.120	.808	.144	.125

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Table 5.58: The statements making up each factor extracted under motivation with their means and ANOVA sig. for the two different sets of schools.

Factor #	Statements: **I am motivated by...**	Means for schools set #1 (high-achievers)	Means for schools set #2 (low-achievers)	Total	Sign.
Factor one: **Monetary-based factors**	Salary	2.9032	3.2294	3.0792	0.117
	Promotion	2.6882	3.1835	2.9554	**0.015**
	Fringe benefits	3.2043	3.4862	3.3564	0.148
	Job security	4.1720	4.1944	4.1841	0.872
	Long holidays	3.2043	2.8519	3.0149	0.055
		3.2344	3.3798	3.3129	0.320
Factor two: **Self-fulfillment factors**	Chance of using my abilities	4.2903	4.2593	4.2736	0.744
	Feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	4.0645	4.0926	4.0796	0.807
	The way I make change among the students	4.3441	4.3241	4.3333	0.836
	The personal commitment to teaching	4.4194	4.5278	4.4776	0.196
	The ability of trying out methods of my own when teaching & being creative	4.2366	4.2130	4.2239	0.826
		4.271	4.2833	4.2776	0.871
Factor three: **Work atmosphere (school climate)**	The support I receive from my Principal	3.7957	3.1759	3.4627	**0.000**
	The sense of equity I perceive among all staff members	4.2043	3.7982	3.9851	**0.011**
	Good administration	4.3978	4.1111	4.2438	**0.015**
	Friendly atmosphere and social interaction with my colleagues	4.4194	4.1481	4.2736	**0.013**
	Sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school	4.5054	4.2870	4.3881	**0.015**
		4.2645	3.8954	4.0653	**0.000**
Factor four: **Curriculum (school restructuring)**	Training	3.667	3.3148	3.4776	0.520
	Facilities (computers, lab,...)	3.3226	3.0833	3.1940	0.205
	Progress of curriculum reform	3.8387	3.5648	3.6915	**0.040**
	Progress of school restructuring	3.6989	3.6019	3.6468	0.473
		3.6317	3.3876	3.5	0.188
Factor five: **Recognition**	Recognition I receive from my Principal	4.0753	3.6111	3.8259	**0.000**
	Appreciation from my students and their parents	3.8280	3.7009	3.76	0.412
	Appreciation from my colleagues	3.7527	3.4579	3.595	**0.031**
		3.8853	3.5988	3.7313	**0.015**
Factor six: **Growth**	Good social standing offered by teaching	3.6129	4	3.82	0.251
	Participation I make in the decision-making process in the school	3.3656	3.3611	3.3632	0.974
	The great deal of control I can exercise over my own work activities	3.2366	3.3178	3.28	0.650
	Professional growth opportunities available to me	2.9355	3.0926	3.0199	0.398
		3.2876	3.4468	3.3731	0.264

Table 5.58 summarizes the six motivational factors extracted and the statements found under each factor with the corresponding mean for both sets of school: set 1 representing the high-achieving schools and set 2 representing the low-achieving schools. In analyzing the variables under factor one, it is shown that teachers belonging to set 1, are not motivated by "salary" and "promotion" whereas teachers belonging to set 2 are not motivated by "long holidays". Teachers in the whole sample (set 1 and set 2) are motivated by "job security", and show a very small positive attitude towards "fringe benefits". Teachers of the low-achieving schools show a slighter higher positive attitude towards factor one in comparison with their colleagues in the high-achieving ones, (3.3798 compared to the 3.2344). Given that teachers of both groups are least motivated by factor one. However, they are both most motivated by factor two (self-fulfillment), with a mean of 4.271 for teachers of set 2. As for factor three (work atmosphere), it constitutes a real motivator to all teachers even though its impact seems stronger on teachers belonging to high-achieving schools (mean (set 1) = 4.2645 compared to mean (set 2) = 3.8954). It is revealed that teachers under set 2 feel neutral about the support they receive from their Principal. Even though, the ANOVA test did not show any significant variance between the two groups of teachers in their moderate positive attitude towards factor four involving the progress of the curriculum and the means of its implementation, teachers' moderate positive attitude under set 1 (means= 3.6317) is slightly higher than their colleagues' attitude under set 2 (with a mean of 3.3876). The means obtained for factor five (recognition) reveal that teachers in the high-performing schools are more motivated by the recognition they receive from their Principal, colleagues, students and parents (means= 3.8853) than their colleagues in the low-performing schools (means= 3.5988). The difference between the two means is found significant.

Finally, factor six is discussing the growth opportunities available to the teachers and their impact on teachers' motivation. It is found that teachers from low-performing schools are motivated by the "good social standing offered by teaching", but feel neutral about the "professional growth opportunities available to them". However, teachers of the high-performing schools show negative attitude towards this last variable (mean= 2.9355). As for the remaining variable under factor six and which is: "participation in decision making" and "control over own's work activities", all

teachers show a somehow more than a neutral attitude towards them (a mean around the 3.3).

5.3.2.1. High-achieving vs. low-achieving schools:

Means have been calculated for the different statements making up each factor of the six factors mentioned above under teachers' motivation. Then, means of the means have been found for the two different sets of schools classified as high or low performing. And, in order to check if the schools classification in that way has any significant impact on teachers' attitudes towards the different factors of motivation, an ANOVA test has been used. The findings are presented in both tables, 5.58 and 5.59: Factor 1 (monetary-based), Factor 2 (self-fulfillment), Factor 4 (curriculum), and Factor 6 (growth) do not vary significantly among the two different sets of schools; with coefficients of 0.32, 0.871, 0.188 and 0.264 respectively, (significance is at $p<0.05$).

However "promotion", a statement under factor one seems to differ significantly between the two sets of schools with a coefficient 0.015 (significant at $p<0.05$) where teachers in low-achieving schools are more motivated by promotion (mean= 3.1835) than their colleagues in the high-achieving ones (with a mean of 2.6882) who are not motivated at all by the promotion the schooling system provides in the public sector.

Moreover, "progress of curriculum reform", a statement under factor four seems to differ significantly between the two sets of schools with a coefficient of 0.04 (significant at $p<0.05$), where teachers belonging to high-performing schools are more motivated by this progress (mean= 3.8387) than their colleagues in the low-performing schools (mean= 3.5648).

Concerning the two factors, factor 3 (work atmosphere or school climate) and factor 5 (recognition), they do differ significantly between the two sets of schools with coefficients of 0.015 and 0 respectively (significant at $p<0.05$). For all the statements under both factors, teachers of the high-achieving schools show higher motivation than their colleagues in the low-achieving schools. The mean of the means for "the work atmosphere" is 4.2645 for the high-achieving schools and 3.8954 for the low-

achieving ones; and for "recognition", it is 3.8853 compared to the 3.5988. It is found that the only statement under factor five (recognition) which does not differ significantly between the two groups of teachers belonging to the two different sets of schools, is "appreciation from students and their parents", with a coefficient of 0.412 (significant at $p<0.05$).

Table 5.59: the different factors extracted under motivation and leadership with their means and ANOVA sig. in the two different sets of schools.

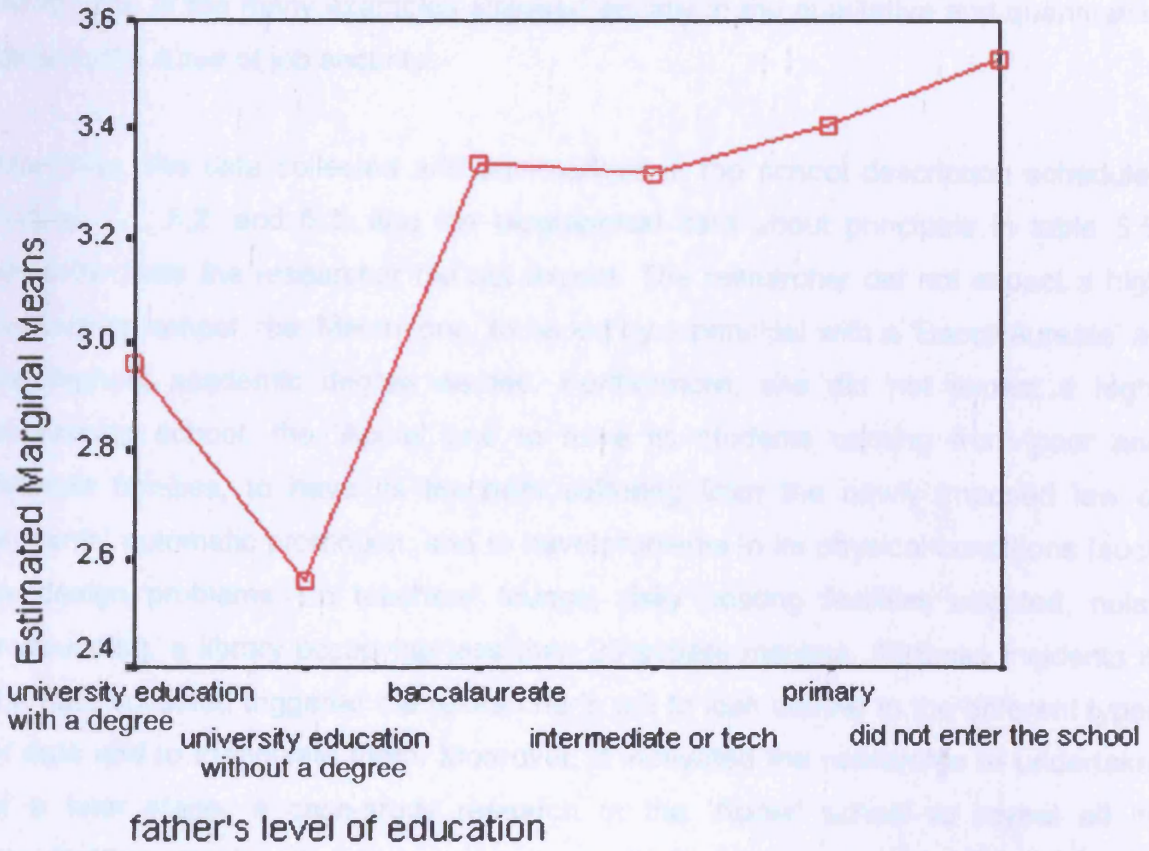
School level	Extracted factors motivating teachers						Leadership functions	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 1	Factor 2
	Monetary -based	Self-fulfillment	School-climate (atmosphere)	School-restructuring (curriculum)	recognition	Growth	Climate-related	Technol-ogical
Set 1: High-achieving schools	3.2344	4.271	4.2645	3.6317	3.8853	3.2876	4.5735	4.1183
Set 2: Low-achieving Schools	3.3798	4.2833	3.8954	3.3876	3.5988	3.4468	4.2385	3.7466
Total	3.3129	4.2776	4.0653	3.5	3.7313	3.3731	4.392	3.9169
Sig.	0.32	0.871	**0**	0.188	**0.015**	0.264	**0**	**0**

5.3.2.2. The impact of the independent variables on teachers' motivation:

In running the step-wise regression analysis on the 6 factors obtained under the subheading "teachers' motivation" (see Appendix C, part 3), it is shown that father's level of education for the teachers correlates with teachers being motivated by the monetary-based factors (i.e. factor one). It is found that the lower the level of father's education, the more the teacher is motivated by monetary-based factors (figure 5.2). 55% of the teachers whose fathers joined a university are not motivated by the monetary-based factors (45% are motivated), and 38.3% of the teachers whose fathers have an intermediate or high school level are not motivated by factor one (61.7% are motivated), whereas 36.8% of the teachers whose fathers did not enter

the school or joined a primary school only, are not motivated by the monetary-based factor (63.2% are motivated). Moreover, it is found that teacher's "Gender" as well as his/her "Marital Status" has an impact on teachers being motivated by factor six, representing the teachers' growth needs. It is shown that 60% of the male teachers disagreed and were neutral about being motivated by factor six. However, this percentage is much lower for the female teachers and it is 36%. As for the marital status, the difference is not as big; 37% of the single disagreed and were neutral about being motivated by the growth factor and this percentage is 41.5% for the married teachers.

Figure 5.2: estimated marginal means of 'mean-monetary'



6. Conclusion:

The data collected from the interview and the questionnaire, as well as the additional data making up the different school description schedules, were so fruitful in

answering the research questions set in this study. The different data flowing from the different sources came complementary to each other. In some places, they supported each other, in other places they deepened the understandings of what is being explored; and in other places they revealed what the qualitative data or the quantitative data alone did not reveal. For instance, the students' SES and its impact on teachers' motivation was not mentioned in the questionnaire, but it was highlighted in the interview and the school description schedules. The same was for the newly imposed law of students' automatic promotion, and the need raised by good performing teachers that calls for creating a system to recognize the efforts of the hard workers and to punish those low-performing teachers. The way this issue was raised during the interview revealed the importance of 'equity' in the working life. As for one of the many examples stressed equally in the qualitative and quantitative data, is the issue of job security.

Moreover, the data collected and summarized in the school description schedules (tables 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3) and the biographical data about principals in table 5.5, revealed facts the researcher did not expect. The researcher did not expect a high performing school, the 'Melon' one, to be led by a principal with a 'Baccalaureate' as the highest academic degree earned. Furthermore, she did not expect a high-performing school, the 'Apple' one to have its students coming from poor and illiterate families, to have its teachers suffering from the newly imposed law of students' automatic promotion, and to have problems in its physical conditions (such as design problems, no teachers' lounge, risky heating facilities adopted, noisy surrounding, a library occupying less than 20 square meters). All these incidents in the data collected triggered the researcher's will to look deeper in the different types of data and to triangulate them. Moreover, it motivated the researcher to undertake, at a later stage, a case-study research in the 'Apple' school to reveal all its peculiarities, making it a high-performing school. Some clues are already in the researcher's mind but further research is required. Those clues are for instance: respectful students (see p.192), teaching being teacher's dignity (p.188), motivated teachers (p.189), teachers satisfied with their Principal's leadership style (p.191).

In conclusion, by triangulating the qualitative data with the quantitative one, the researcher secured a rich analysis of the sample in this study and cherished the

advantages inherent in both types of data. The main findings from the qualitative and quantitative data were interrelated, helping the researcher to understand the interrelationships between leaders' actions and teachers' motivation in higher and lower achieving schools. Teachers at the high-performing schools were found to be significantly more motivated than their colleagues at the low-performing ones by: the support and the recognition they receive from their Principals, the sense of equity they perceive among all staff members, and by the good administration of their schools. However, the quantitative data revealed that there was no significant variance in teachers' motivation by the participation they make in the decision-making process inside their school. This level of motivation was not really encouraging because its means was 3.36 only. The qualitative data explained this mediocre level of motivation when some of the interviewees reported that; the Principal being the sole decision maker, is one of the factors they dislike in their Principals' leadership styles.

All the just mentioned factors are dependent on the leaders' actions. Thus, the Principal's leadership style exercises an impact on teachers' motivation. Moreover, the construction of the sample in this study enabled the researcher to look at the different factors affecting the school performance level. Among these factors are the Principal's leadership style, the teachers' motivation, in addition to other issues such as students' SES, teachers' quality and the school's physical conditions.

This developed model was compared with the literature in the following chapter, enabling the researcher to advance recommendations at a later stage.

Chapter Six
Analysis of Findings

1. Introduction:

The purpose of this research was to find out which motivational strategies are most desirable from the teachers' point of view and to examine the impact of the Principal's leadership style on teacher motivation. Moreover it aimed to identify the extent to which instructional leadership style had been used by the Principals of the schools selected. This study aimed also to identify the different factors affecting the school performance level. To achieve this target, the study was conducted in two groups of five schools each; where group one represented the five high-performing schools and group two represented the other five low-performing ones. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in this research. By triangulating both types of data, deeper analysis was secured and trustworthiness was enhanced.

This chapter analyzed the findings that were presented in the previous chapter. The analysis was concentrated around four major parts, where each part tried to answer one research question set in this study. Part one analyzed the major concerns reported by teachers regarding motivation and addressed the differences that existed among the teachers belonging to the two different groups of schools. Part two analyzed the major attributes of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, as well as the differences that existed in these attributes, among the two groups of Principals leading the two sets of schools. The analysis made in part three helped the researcher to identify the Principal/teacher-focused strategies that can be used by Principals to improve teachers' motivation (the third research question).The fourth part tried to answer the fourth research question: what are the factors affecting the school performance level?

2. Major concerns of teachers' motivation: The first research question: What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?

The qualitative and quantitative data, collected and presented in the previous chapter regarding teachers' motivation and the extent to which this motivation differs among the teachers belonging to the two sets of schools selected, is analyzed in this section. The analysis is concentrated around seven major issues: recognition, organizational climate, teamwork and collegiality, school restructuring, teachers' involvement, professional growth and teachers' conscience and their mother-figure role.

2.1. Recognition:

Recognition is highly important to teachers and opportunity to earn it motivates them (Johnson, 1990). This was found in the qualitative data of this research when teachers in the high-performing schools were appreciating the recognition they receive from their Principals. It seems that Principals in these schools know how to support, honor and motivate high-performers. As Cherry2 put it: "our Principal knows how to say: Thank you" (p.190).

Teachers as members in a society and practitioners in an occupation would like to be recognized (Ozcan, 1996). However, the sources of this recognition are not only the Principal, but also colleagues as well as students and their parents (Johnson, 1990). Considering the three sources of recognition (Principal, colleagues, students and parents), this study revealed that teachers in the high-performing schools were being motivated more than their colleagues in the low-performing ones by the three forms of recognition; and the variances were significant except for the recognition received from students and their parents (table 5.58, p.226). This shows one more time that students in the Lebanese public schools and their parents from particular socio-economic backgrounds do not appreciate to a great extent the educational advancement of their children, at least not all, in order to recognize the efforts put by the teachers who are the source of this advancement.

In both sets of schools, "recognition from colleagues", came to take a third rank in motivating teachers (as the first two ranks are occupied by the recognition from Principals and from students and their parents), given it was better in the high-performing schools (table 5.58, p.226). Thus, Principals need to build up and foster a professional environment where teachers are encouraged to recognize and praise each other's efforts and achievements and to feel a genuine sense of enthusiasm about their colleagues' contributions to the school's performance.

A fourth source of recognition was not mentioned in the questionnaire, but was revealed in teachers' arguments while being interviewed; this source is the specialized educational authorities in the Lebanese government. Teachers are in need of a pay, promotion or any other system, to be set by the Lebanese Ministry of Education, that recognizes the efforts and the hard work of the high-performing and serious teachers (p.186). This reality was shown in the questionnaire where teachers were found to be not motivated by the salary and the promotion that their current job offers. Thus, recognition whether tangible or intangible was what the teachers in the Lebanese public schools required.

Teachers are satisfied when they feel justly compensated for their accomplishments Evans (1998b). Mainly in the low-achieving schools, teachers were always comparing the input they invested to the output they got as well as comparing this ratio to their colleagues' ratios and revealing a kind of inequity in the same school. A number of teachers interviewed spoke about the lack of recognition for their extra work effort and how this affected their motivation. High-performing teachers in these schools were not only suffering from a lack of recognition for their efforts but also from a lack of punishment for those low-performing teachers who want to get their salaries at the end of each month without bothering themselves. The way in which this issue was raised to the researcher revealed the negative impact that this situation was leaving on the high-performing teachers' motivation. Pineapple1 put it: "...the pay system is unfair, and you are entitled to receive the same salary regardless of the number of teaching hours and regardless of your efficiency in teaching". Pineapple2 said: "The current case is: same salary to all teachers: those who work and who do not". Peach1 said: "Same salary to all teachers even to those who don't teach or who are not qualified". These quotations were taken from the

responses of those teachers when asked about the problems facing teachers in the Lebanese public schools.

Since the government's intervention takes time and requires many formalities (e.g. decrees), the quick remedy is in the Principal's hands. Principals are to bear in their minds that in order to keep teachers motivated, they should be rewarded according to the quality of their work (Mortimore, 1995). Teachers in this study reported that a simple but genuine "thank you" would suffice. Given that the Principal can be very creative in the way of recognizing teachers' efforts (e.g. thank you letter, appreciation in front of other teachers), recognition is proved to be most effective when it is face-to-face and directed towards a specific achievement (Fox, 1986). All roles in a school offer opportunities worthy of recognition, even the more simple virtues of reliability, dedication and consistency should be recognized. As Reynolds (1997) argues that effective schools are not achieved by outstanding accomplishments only, but by the attention to the quality of the everyday routines. At the same time Principals don't have to disregard the negative behaviours of some 'unmotivated teachers' –mainly in the low-achieving schools– because this affects negatively the motivation of high performers. These behaviours are to be reported to the supervision body in the Ministry of Education which in turn has to take the appropriate action.

Thus, even though Principals in the Lebanese public schools are not the only source of recognition for the teachers, it was found that this source counts a lot in teachers' motivation. This reality was shown by the teachers in the high-performing schools who were motivated by the recognition they receive from their Principal (the mean was 4.0753), and by the teachers in the low-performing schools who were calling for some kind of equity from their Principals (p.191). Equity here means the recognition of outstanding accomplishments and the punishment of negative behaviours.

While Principals can reward their teachers in an intangible manner, the Ministry of Education can offer intangible as well as tangible rewards. However, whatever is the type of this reward, it has to be authentic and targeted to specific achievement in order to boost teachers' motivation; if not, its negative impact ends up being much greater than its intended positive one. Some teachers had criticized the Minister of Education when he recently distributed, on a regional basis, awards to a number of

teachers who were approaching the retirement age. The criticism came to be on the level of authenticity of this recognition, believing that some of the teachers being awarded did not do anything deserving recognition because through the war period they have got benefit from the chaos that was present and did not teach. They continued by adding that recognition is not targeted to the efforts you have made but to the degree of support some regional politicians are granting to you. Here, the issue of 'procedural justice' is raised (Robbins, 1998). Teachers did not perceive the process used to determine the distribution of rewards, as a fair one. Consequently their organizational commitment and their trust in the government will be negatively affected (Korsgoard et al., 1995).

Thus there is an urgent call for the government to put an end to the politicians' intervention and to ask Principals to report as accurately as possible the performance of each teacher to the centralized supervision body. Consequently, when the government decides to recognize teachers' high performance, this recognition will reach the right person. By recognizing the positive behaviour, its repetition is likely to be more frequent. This is what the reinforcement theory is calling for. Silver (1982) argues that the more frequently teachers receive praise, the more likely they will be motivated. Thus, high-quality teachers are to be always motivated because they are the essence of effective schools.

Pay and conditions of service are important means by which teachers are recognized, although both are under the control of the Lebanese government, not the individual Principals of the schools. This study found that teachers were not at all satisfied with their salaries. Thus before discussing the issue of a financial recognition for outstanding performance, the issue of the monthly salary is to be raised. As the teachers, mainly in the high-performing schools, reported that the salaries are very low (p.186), salaries are to be raised first because as the expectancy theory assumes that individuals will improve their performance anytime there is an expected reward they value (Vroom, 1964). Andain (1990) argues that "this government will one day have to pay its teaching force sufficiently highly to achieve the quality of education it has so far merely paid lip service" (quoted in Evans, 1998). After raising all salaries to an acceptable level, the issue of recognizing high-performers financially will be raised. Whether this recognition is

financial or not, this is not the problem; the problem occurs when there is no recognition. To be most effective, this recognition is to be targeted to each teacher individually. In its connection to career ladder, Bacharach et al. (1984) argue that part of the salary is linked to measurements of competence and performance, enabling the school to exercise some kind of control over teachers behaviour and to recognize high performance; as a result, improved professional development will be encouraged (cited in Luce, 1998). As the quantitative and qualitative data in this study showed, teachers were not at all satisfied and motivated by the promotion system available. Table 5.58 shows that the mean for teachers being motivated by 'promotion' is 2.9554 for the whole sample, given that it is significantly higher in the second set of schools; the low-performing ones: it is equal to 3.1835 whereas it is 2.6882 in the high-performing schools. Thus, even though the mean is higher for the low-performing schools, it is still towards the neutral attitude represented by '3' on the scale. The current promotion system provides few pounds differentiation for additional years of experience. Teachers argued that this salary increase is immaterial and independent of performance. This is what was bothering high-performing teachers in both sets of schools. Lortie (1975) states that stages in careers renew ambition and motivate employees to put extra efforts thus strengthening the relationship between effort and reward (cited in Luce,1998). However, when compared to other professions, teaching suffers from the few potential steps upwards. What could be done in this case is to keep high-achievers motivated by recognizing their efforts through increasing their status and giving them the chance to act as mentors for their less experienced colleagues (English, 1992 and Hart, 1992; cited in Luce, 1998).

As the findings in this study revealed, teachers were not really satisfied and motivated by what the government is offering them in exchange for their service. This reality is shown in the regular strikes they hold and the unsatisfied wants they have. As for the issue of recognition from the part of the government, teachers, mainly high-performers, had a very bad attitude towards it (p.186), because as they revealed: it is absent. Good teachers were upset from the fact that all teachers, based on their years of service and their degrees, are to earn the same salary and cherish the same fringe benefits. Those teachers were calling for a recognition system that puts light on their efforts and performance. Because as Fox (1986)

discusses that, being recognized for accomplishments is crucial to teachers' motivation. The same teachers were not calling for a recognition system but also for some kind of a punishment system that punishes those who are not ready to exercise consciously the profession they have chosen. Their message was clear; they were asking for a sort of equity to govern the situations in the Lebanese public schools. This issue has been raised twice in the qualitative data: first when teachers were asked about the problems facing the Lebanese public schoolteachers (p.186) and second when they were asked about the missing factors that, when present, will lead to higher job motivation (p.186).

High level of conscientiousness, genuine and reciprocated affection for young children, characterizing the teachers in this sample (discussed in a separate section, p.254) as well as long hours of work may be necessary, but will no longer be sufficient. Campbell (1999) argues that, "in the performance culture posited for the profession demonstrable increases in pupils' learning are what will be rewarded, measured through a carefully constructed appraisal mechanism"(p.28).

Principals have to be aware of this problem and of its importance to the teachers. As the data revealed, the short-run solution is in the Principal's hands. Teachers, mainly good performers, in the low-achieving schools are the ones who were demotivated by the lack of equity they were feeling from the part of their Principal, believing that he/she was not recognizing their efforts. They felt that their hard work went unnoticed. Not only that, but they were also witnessing the support that their Principal was showing to the low performers, as it was revealed in the qualitative data when the researcher had been told about when the Principal gave the lesson in the place of one teacher who refused to teach. The negative impact of this inequity situation on good performing teachers was double because not only their efforts were not being recognized, but also the negative behaviours of the low-quality teachers were not being punished.

Another kind of recognition could be the respect that teachers feel from all the groups they work with. Firestone and Rosenblum (1988) and Seashore Louis (1998) argue that the sense of being respected by colleagues, Principal, students as well as outsiders, one of the seven criteria determining the quality of work, is the most

critical variable behind teacher's commitment and willingness to work hard and dedicate themselves to their colleagues and their pupils. In this research, the only problem mentioned was the lack of respect by the students. This problem was revealed in the qualitative data by two teachers only, belonging to two different low-achieving schools (p.186). However, the overall level of teachers' commitment in these schools was excellent as just shown in the quantitative data.

Thus, it seemed that teachers in these schools were highly respected by peers and Principal and the positive impact of this respect on teachers' commitment had overcome the negative impact of the lack of respect from students.

To summarize, Principals have to develop a leadership style that shows evidence of confidence in the teachers' ability to perform educationally. They have to recognize the teachers' contributions to the school. Principals are to value teachers' potential worth and to build collegial relationship with them; consequently, teachers' positive perception of their Principals as professional mentors will increase (Roy, 1995).

2.2. Organisational Climate:

Ensuring a positive climate is one of the major jobs of a motivator in an educational setting (Turney et al., 1992a). While 67% of the respondents in the high-achieving schools strongly agreed that their Principals were fostering a positive support, this percentage was just the half in the low-achieving schools. In finding out its impact on teachers motivation, it was shown that 66% of the teachers in the first set of schools (i.e. high-performing ones) were motivated by this support, however, this percentage went down to 40% in the second set of schools. These numbers showed that when teachers are surrounded by positive feelings, they can be creative and innovative, receptive to change and able to benefit from opportunities that will lead to further enhanced motivation.

Treating teachers with equity, an issue raised first under recognition, is one of the characteristics that must be available in a school in order to foster a positive climate. When teachers are being treated with equity, their satisfaction and their commitment

will be enhanced; and their trust in their Principal will be fostered. The questionnaire results showed that 84% of the teachers in the high-performing schools were motivated by the sense of equity they perceive among all members inside the school, whereas this same percentage was only 63% in the low-achieving schools (table 5.34). This lower percentage was stressed further in the data collected from interviews as discussed earlier, and that showed the anger the teachers, mainly good performers, experienced when Principals, among other parties (e.g. educational authorities) do not treat them with equity. Furthermore, interview results showed the importance that teachers in the high-achieving schools were placing on their Principals' virtues of dealing equitably with all of them (p.190). Thus, both kinds of data highlighted the importance of equity among teachers in affecting teacher motivation. Consequently, it can be argued that staff may feel more content in a working climate where everyone is treated with equity, and this may affect their personal regards as well as their motivation.

Teachers were not only emphasizing the equitable treatment in the distribution of the work load and resources or the special attention granted by the Principal for instance, but also in the representation in the social events (p.191).

What is worth noting here regarding the issue of equity, is that Lebanese Principals in the public schools are not always personally liable for some acts they do, leading to situations characterized by some kind of inequity. The fact is that politicians interfere on a non stop basis to force Principals to behave in the favor of teachers who have access to political power (p.184).

Principals have to distribute the workload equally amongst all staff members, because favoritism has an adverse impact on teachers' motivation. Thus, they need to treat their teachers equally with trust and respect, ensuring that undue personal involvement and familiarity do not influence the allocation of work, time, resources and opportunities between staff members.

Sergiovanni (1995) argues that Principals who make themselves available to staff and students have better relations with the school community and are better able to motivate them towards the goals of the school. Principals in the schools selected

were really maintaining high visibility (with a mean of 4.399), even though the quantitative data revealed that Principals of the high-performing schools did it more successfully than their colleagues in the low-performing ones. The means are 4.6022 and 4.2273 respectively, with a coefficient of 0.000, significant at $p<0.05$.

Given that in both sets of schools the climate-related functions were performed by the Principals, Principals in the high-performing schools were adopting these functions more than their colleagues in the low-achieving ones. This difference proved to be significant for all the functions except for two and which are: protecting instructional time, and, maintaining firm discipline. However, Principals in the high-performing schools were better in maintaining high visibility and making their presence count, in providing the positive support that the teachers need through spending their time equally amongst all staff members and maintaining a spirit of collegiality; all of which creating a positive school climate, thus leading to a motivating environment for teaching and learning. Moreover, they were successful in stressing the academic standards that the positive school climate facilitates their application.

Personal regard, as shown in the qualitative data analysis, contributes to teacher motivation. In describing the factors that teachers in the high-performing schools like most in their Principal's leadership style, those teachers stressed on the virtues of their Principal being a 'good listener' and communicating with them to solve any problem that might arise (p.190). By listening to what the teachers want to communicate with their Principal, the Principal is showing his/her concern to what the teachers might face; even if it is a personal matter. Principals have to show genuine care about their teachers and to be available for staff to discuss their ideas and needs. They need to be in touch with the human needs of teacher including aspects of their personal life, if necessary that may be affecting their work. Thus, as Hughes (1994) argues that Principals are leaders who must act as developers of human relationships, devoting much of their energy towards the building of this relationship, by inspiring trust and unleashing the power of human resources within the school.

Teachers had stressed the importance of trust, respect and sympathy that the Principal shows to them, believing that these factors influence their life and improve their level of motivation. Based on the data collected from the interview, the argument was raised that maintaining positive attitudes in staff helps to a great extent the maintenance of confidence and good morale in the educational setting. Thus, it is the Principal's role to keep in demonstrating enthusiasm and a positive attitude.

2.3. Teamwork and collegiality:

The majority of the motivation theories discussed the issue of social interactions with others as a very important factor affecting individual's motivation. Maslow (1954) has termed it "social needs", Alderfer (1969) has termed it "relatedness", and Porter (1962) & McClelland (1965) have called it "affiliation". Individuals may desire the ability to act independently, but there is always the equally strong desire to affiliate with others. This need to be with people and to be accepted by them means that the individual can be willing and even anxious to give up autonomy to achieve that acceptance (Stewart and Manz, 1995). The responses to the questionnaire showed that all the teachers were motivated by the social interaction with their colleagues with a mean of 4.2736, as well as by the sense of belonging and teamwork present at their schools with a mean of 4.3881 (table 5.58). However, the impact of these factors was more significant on the motivation of teachers belonging to the high-performing schools, with a coefficient of 0.013 and 0.015 respectively (significant at $p < 0.05$). As Reich (1987) argues that teamwork has strong influences upon the feelings and behaviours of constituent members.

The data revealed that in order to increase teachers' level of motivation, Principals need to foster a working environment where isolation is to be forbidden, and where teachers feel that they are members of a large purposeful group and at the same time, members of smaller task oriented teams. The Principal has to understand the importance of teamwork for staff (Evans, 1998b), and as a team leader, he/she has to understand the importance of his/her role in stimulating team members (Grier, 1996).

Seashore Louis (1998) argues that by setting schedules that permit more teacher meetings during the school day, collegiality and collaborative work among teachers can be enhanced. The most important output of collegiality is its impact on getting the teachers to stretch their professional repertoire. Thus, a school restructuring that enables teachers to build up a school-based curriculum work seems to be important.

2.4. School Restructuring:

In a competitive market-oriented society and with the pace of technological development, schools are being forced to produce results through system of continuous improvement (Everard and Morris, 1996). For this growth to be achieved, school restructuring is very important (Harris et al., 1998). This school change is not the sole responsibility of the Ministry of Education, the Principal or the teacher; but all of them together. To analyse this issue, the researcher had used the qualitative and the quantitative data collected from teachers as well as the documents and articles supplied by the CERD. Moreover the analysis had taken the different facets of this school restructuring including the progress of the curriculum reform and its impact on teachers' motivation as well as the training sessions that were held to upgrade teachers' skills enabling them to adopt easily this new curriculum; in addition to the availability of the required facilities, tools and laboratories in the school securing its smooth implementation.

Fullan (1993, p.15) believes that "change for the sake of change will not help". Teachers in the ten Lebanese public schools surveyed had a slight positive attitude towards the progress of curriculum reform (mean = 3.6915), and towards the process of school restructuring (mean = 3.6468) (table 5.58), as 65% of the respondents were motivated by the progress of curriculum reform (table 5.50), and 62% of them were motivated by the process of school restructuring (table 5.51). In explaining these percentages, the researcher had looked, among other factors. At the percentage of teachers motivated by the training sessions held by the CERD to introduce the new curriculum to the teachers and to upgrade their skills enabling them to implement it easily and accurately; this percentage was 48% only (table 5.30). The explanation for this mediocre percentage was found in the qualitative data

when teachers revealed their attitude towards training. While the majority of all the interviewees were not really motivated by the training sessions that were held, teachers of the high-performing schools were calling for more effective sessions to make them ready to cope with the tremendous technological advancement of the third millennium; whereas teachers of the low-performing schools were feeling weak in front of more upgrading sessions attributing this feeling to their age and arguing that they are not young enough to succeed in any educational advancement.

The scarcity of young teachers in the public schools that is discussed previously under the context of teaching in the Lebanese public schools, was also shown here in the selected sample where 16.5% of the teachers were less than 40 years old and 43.3% of the teachers were more than 50 years old (p.180). Even though 'teachers' age' could explain the attitude of teachers towards the upgrading sessions, the researcher found that this explanation was not complete as the distribution of the high-performing schools' teachers over the different age groups followed the same pattern, while they showed readiness to further educational advancement. Although it is believed that younger teachers are better in upgrading their skills and more efficient in assuming the new role of the teacher imposed by the new curriculum and requiring him/her to be involved in more activities; the researcher was searching for reasons other than age. One reason could be the teacher's level of education. The quantitative data showed that teachers with a university level of education were found more often in the high-performing schools whereas teachers with a school level of education were found more often in the low-performing schools (table 5.7). Given that this difference in teachers' distribution according to the degree they hold was significant (coefficient of 0.036, significant at $p < 0.05$) (table 5.6), it can be argued that the weak positive attitude that teachers of the low-performing schools were holding towards the training sessions, is attributable to their weak educational preparation to undertake the teaching profession. Some of those teachers were satisfied with the traditional role they used to assume for many years and refused to upgrade their skills because they think that this might threaten their status if they do not succeed in it. The researcher once observed some teachers begging their Principal to exclude their names from the list of those who have to attend computer training sessions.

Another reason could be the mediocre level of motivation teachers at the low-performing schools feel by the recognition they receive from their Principal and from the appreciation they receive from colleagues as well as from students and parents (means of the means= 3.5988). Not being recognized for advancement and achievements or not being motivated by the level of recognition they receive, may hinder their motivation to upgrade their skills.

Concerning the teachers at the high-performing schools who had shown a slightly better attitude towards training (the mean was 3.667 towards a 3.3148 for teachers in the low-performing schools, see table 5.58, p.226), they were also calling for more effective training sessions in the future; because the ones that were held in the past were quick and their timing was not ideal. They were held in the summer when all the teachers usually free their minds from any duty. Campbell (1999) argues that, in comparison with the 1970s, there had been a very significant increase in the time teachers spent in in-service training and professional development, but this time was often considered as wasted or inappropriate.

In addition to the training sessions that were deemed necessary by the Lebanese CERD to introduce the teachers to the new curriculum and the ways of its implementation, schools were to be equipped with all the facilities ensuring the accurate implementation of this curriculum. New clarifying tools and documents are required for explaining lessons; laboratories of all kind (scientific, technology, computer) as well as libraries are also required as the new curriculum emphasizes on letting students practice, and not memorize, what they learn. Data collected from interviews and questionnaires revealed the need that the Lebanese public schools were showing for these facilities and the impact of their absence on teachers' motivation and on the effectiveness of the teaching process; noting that the high-performing schools were better equipped than the low-performing ones (see Table 5.2).

However, this discrimination in the resource allocation among schools is not always the government's fault or discrimination, but what was happening is that some schools (like the 'Cherry' school for instance) receive donations from municipalities, from wealthy persons in the regions in which they operate, or simply, these schools

have excess funds that they can use in order to ameliorate or update their physical working conditions and buy the required facilities. Consequently, teachers at these schools ended up being luckier than their colleagues at other deprived schools, and thus more motivated to implement the new curriculum.

The qualitative data revealed that fairly equipped schools and pleasant physical surroundings are not only required for an effective new curriculum implementation, but also for effective operational running of the daily school activities. Physical security, an orderly environment, clearly articulated behaviour guidelines and consistence application of a fair discipline code all contribute to affirmative teaching conditions. Nice physical surroundings, fresh air, good lighting, furnishings and cleanliness also contribute to teacher motivation. Teachers at the 'Cherry' school, a high-performing one, had shown their positive attitude towards the pleasant environment they work in, characterized by the beautiful, multi-colors flowers planted in the school's yard, arguing that this attractive physical surrounding increases their motivation as they feel proud of belonging to this school.

On the contrary, teachers at some of the other five low-achieving schools (all except the 'Cucumber' school) and at one high-performing school (the 'Apple' one) revealed their worries about the physical conditions of their schools and which are not safe and not hygienic, especially in the winter when the humidity and the rooms lacking heating facilities take their big share in the teachers' demotivation process. Based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, teachers in that case will not be motivated by higher-order needs (e.g. self-actualization needs) if their lower-order needs are not yet satisfied such as those related to the physical working conditions.

Moreover, and in its relationship with the new curriculum implementation, some schools' buildings are not architecturally suitable for running educational activities as they have been rented from individuals who designed them first to serve as housing facilities; such as the 'Apple', 'Carrot' and 'Lettuce' schools. Thus, classrooms ended up being not of ideal sizes and qualifications, and rooms intended to serve as laboratories ended up lacking the required built-in installation. Here, is one more reason behind teachers' lack of a strong motivation by the new curriculum implementation in such schools. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the presence of

a faculty lounge, enabling teachers to foster the social interaction between themselves, is not to be taken for granted, as it was not found in the 'Apple' school, it was too small in relative to the teachers' number in the 'Peach' school and it was not furnished in the 'Tomato' school. A place to exercise collegiality is necessary in a school especially when a change is to be implemented, enabling teachers to enjoy the support of their colleagues and to exchange views and opinions. This issue was also highlighted by the teachers of the 'Cherry' school, a high-performing one, who cherished the presence of a large and fully equipped teachers' lounge.

The presence of a setting enabling teachers to meet physically encourages them to share concerns and missions. Thus, the big challenge is to let teachers share the school vision so that they do not get lost in feelings of isolation and meaninglessness. By maintaining an awareness of the bigger picture, the staff can reflect realistically on the changes taking place and can discern what is best for the school (Simpkins et al., 1987).

Principals within the school setting need to facilitate and enable the change process by encouraging a strong collegial atmosphere of trust and by developing a visionary focus towards personal and organizational goals (Dalin, 1998).

Principal's support for the teachers is highly critical in such a change period. This was shown in the quantitative data where teachers of the high-performing schools were motivated by the support they receive from their Principals (with a mean of 3.7957), more than their colleagues in the low-performing ones (with a mean of 3.1759); given that the difference in the level of motivation was significant with a coefficient of 0.000 (significant at $p<0.05$). This finding might help also the researcher to explain the significant difference in the level of motivation teachers were getting from the progress of curriculum reform in the two different sets of schools surveyed.

Moreover, it is crucial for Principals to create an environment in which change can occur naturally and gradually, not an environment where people are forced into it. As Fullan (1993) argues that timing is a vital aspect of the restructuring process. Considerable time and sensitivity are required for the staff to commit to any change if

it is to become a meaningful process for teachers. Thus, Principals need to set a very clear time frame within which the process of change can occur, so as not to urge things through too quickly. Consequently, the change becomes purposeful and staff will be encouraged to work hard towards it.

Seashore Louis (1998) argues that schools are in need for major and significant changes, and not adaptations of existing programs. Moreover, "general school restructuring will not necessarily improve teachers' lives at work unless it focuses clearly on the need to create environments that are engaging, not only for students but for teachers" (Seashore Louis, 1998, p.18-19).

2.5. Teachers' involvement:

The qualitative data showed that teachers like to share in the decision-making process as some of them were dissatisfied by their Principals viewing him/her as the sole decision-maker in their school (p.191). This qualitative finding was supported by the quantitative data that revealed that 38.3% of the respondents only were motivated by their current level of participation in the decision-making process (table 5.43). Thus, teachers at the schools surveyed showed a need for a higher level of involvement from their part in the decisions taken by the Principal.

Most of the teachers place a great importance on their participation in the decision-making process inside the school, considering this as a source of extrinsic reward for them. When teachers are given the opportunity to be involved in the decision-making process, their sense of ownership over teaching will increase, which in turn increases their overall level of motivation. Principals should motivate their staff to feel responsible and take charge by giving them support, providing space, removing barriers and celebrating the successes. Principals have to be aware of the dominant theme that emerged from the literature showing the importance of the increased ownership in decision-making in keeping teachers motivated; which in turn increases their performance in attaining the school's goals.

Dimmock (1991) argues that by allowing teachers to make a meaningful contribution to the management of the school, teachers as well as the school will be better off. The reason is that the school can benefit from additional resource for information and increased level of professional judgment.

Consequently, the quality of the decisions can be greatly enhanced by giving the teachers the opportunity to participate in the process; because decision-making is at the core of administrative educational activities (Sergiovanni, 1995). It becomes the Principal's role to build up a positive school climate encouraging the teachers to feel confident in declaring their views that might end up being highly important in the process of attaining the school's mission. By adopting a participative leadership style, the Principal can share with his/her teachers the daily problems facing the school, takes their opinions and listens to the professional judgment that might end up being of a high value, because sometimes teachers benefit from some sources of information and their Principal does not. Given that both Principals as well as teachers have access to the same information as well as to different sources of information, judgment will be optimized when Principals invite their teachers to share in the decision-making process, inducing them to reveal what they know. As a result, the decision will be taken without major issues remaining hidden, in other terms its quality will be better.

However, teachers sometimes show a negative attitude towards participation in the decisions, due to the time and energy that they have to put in the decision-making process (Chapman, 1990). One more reason could be their feelings that they have little influence over major decisions (Chapman, 1988). This issue is not raised by the teachers in the schools surveyed. The researcher attributes the reason to the teachers' workload in the public schools that is not too hectic (teachers had mentioned this in the qualitative data, p.187) enabling them to invest their extra time and energy in the decision-making process if they are given the chance to do this. Moreover, given that important decisions in the public schools are to be taken by the specialized authorities in the Lebanese Ministry of Education, teachers are aware of the level of decisions that can be made at the school level and that they can share in with their Principal. Thus, there is no reason of becoming upset from not being able to influence major decisions as they are made outside the school, and in a highly

centralized manner. Given the reasons just listed, teachers at the surveyed schools end up with a positive attitude towards their involvement in the decisions that are to be taken by their Principal and concerning their school. However, one different reason was mentioned by one teacher making him reluctant from sharing in the decision-making; this reason is his unwillingness to bear the responsibility of the consequences that might rise from any decision.

Duttweiler (1986) argues that, for some, participation fulfills the need to belong. Thus, it motivates teachers who really appreciate the feeling of belonging to the school community and that is obvious in both the quantitative and the qualitative data. Therefore, Principals at the ten schools surveyed have to open the channels for teachers to become more involved in decisions, as a collegial atmosphere is highly required for minimizing teachers' feelings of isolation and for motivating them to work effectively. 'Melon2' put it: "My participation in the decision-making process satisfies my belongingness need which in turn, motivates me to assume greater responsibilities and to work harder".

Participation in the decision-making, one of the seven criteria found to enhance the quality of work life, not only satisfies the need to belong, but also enhances the teacher sense of efficacy. Moreover, when teachers, as a group, feel that they are influencing and controlling important decisions in their schools, they believe that they are potent forces in changing the schools, consequently, they feel more respected (Seashore Louis, 1998). In explaining the difference between participation and consent, Owens (1995, p.189) argues that the sense of ownership that results from participation, encourages individuals to assume greater responsibilities for the organization's effectiveness. In such a case, teachers are not merely present but are injecting their own energy, creativity and initiative into the process.

To summarize, the data indicated that teachers value their participation in the decision-making process in their schools and consider it as a motivator. They need to be given the opportunity to speak out. Here comes the Principal's role to provide support and encourage teachers to declare their opinions; consequently their level of commitment will be enhanced.

2.6. Professional growth:

With the rapid change invading the schools, greater emphasis is to be placed on the issue of teachers' professional growth (Spencer, 1988). Being part of the teaching-learning process, professional growth activities are to take into consideration the dimension of change. They must be provided to enable teachers to gain and up date the skills and knowledge required to implement this change as well as to effectively carry out their duties. Many motivation theories discussed the importance of satisfying the professional growth needs in motivating employees. Herzberg (1959), for instance, viewed it as a higher level motivator.

The quantitative data collected from the ten schools surveyed, revealed the negative attitude as well as the neutral one that teachers of the high-performing schools as well as those of the low-performing ones respectively held towards the professional growth opportunities available to them; the means were respectively 2.9355 and 3.0926 (table 5.58). The qualitative data put light on the sources of this attitude; given that one group of teachers were not satisfied with the level of professional growth that the government offers to them, and another group of teachers did not really care about any professional growth activity. The second group accused this neutral attitude to their age, believing that they are not young enough to update their skills easily; thus they were not motivated by any professional growth opportunity. Actually, they were afraid of not being able to cope with whatever is new especially with what they call "computer". For a majority of them, computers come from outer space; they feel disabled in front of such technology and believe that it is for their children and not for them. In such an atmosphere teachers are to be encouraged to go beyond their already acquired skills, as the encouragement for professional growth is a crucial teaching condition. Here the issue of teachers' sense of efficacy came to light. Teachers have to believe that they are able to achieve their goals and/or have a sense of personal mastery. They must be given the opportunity to develop and use their skills, enabling them to regenerate their pool of knowledge in order to feel that they can be more effective in their work environment (Seashore Louis, 1998). Thus, it can be argued that an understanding of the nature and process of professional growth activities is a must for any person in a leadership role in education. Professional growth activities should cater for the needs of teachers as

individuals and adult learners as well as to teaching needs (Hughes, 1991). Those responsible for professional growth activities should recognize that teachers have their expectations and concerns that need to be understood and taken into consideration if participation in any activity is to promote professional growth. This what those responsible for setting the upgrading sessions for teachers in the Lebanese CERD, need to appreciate.

As for the first group of teachers, those who were not satisfied with the quality of professional activities offered to them, the qualitative data (p.186) showed that they were willing and keen to participate in meaningful activities that enhance their professional practice. Those teachers were asking for more than what the current situation is offering. They argued that by attending staff development sessions, students' needs as well as teachers' own needs and interests will be met; which in turn increases not only the quality of the teachers' skills, but also their feeling of motivation. Since the upgrading sessions held by the CERD did not really meet those teachers' expectation; one of the remedies could be in the Principals' hands. Principals in these schools should put in place and encourage mentor relationships. Whether formal or informal, the benefits of mentoring are many; it lengthens the productive life of all faculties by enhancing the mentors' self-esteem and by ensuring the professional development of those being mentored. Consequently, work interests and friendship are revitalized and motivation is enhanced. Therefore, the Principals become the key persons to build up an intellectual milieu in which striving for knowledge and professional development is a high priority for everyone.

Seashore Louis (1998) found that the use and the development of new skills enhance both teacher's efficacy and commitment. However, she argues that for this professional development to be highly effective, it has to be based on teacher organized in-service activities, teacher mentoring programs, or programs that reveal teachers talents within the school and enable them to develop new expertise among the staff. On the other hand, the traditional professional activities, including country-wide in-service training or attending seminars, are less effective due to their limited benefit: their effects are less likely to spread beyond the individual. Here, one more time, comes the Principal's role in securing this intellectual milieu in the school that helps in securing an effective professional development for the teachers who will feel

more committed and this, in turn, will lead to committed students. Bryk and Driscoll (1988) show that teacher's commitment to their work increases student's commitment (cited in Seashore Louis, 1998).

2.7. Teachers' conscience and their mother-figure role:

In presenting the data collected from interviews, teachers revealed that they are most motivated by their 'conscience'. Some reported that conscience and nothing else is what motivated them in exercising their profession (like Pineapple1, Pineapple2 and Lettuce2), in addition to what other teachers (Cabbage1, Melon1, Melon2, Cherry1 and Pineapple1) revealed that their job motivation is mostly affected by the fact of considering students as their own children (p.187).

Campbell (1999) argues that teachers' intrinsic conscientiousness is what motivates teachers to spend long hours on work; as studies show that primary teachers are strongly vocationally motivated. He adds that this moral commitment operates as a strong motivator even if its consequences involve a severe impact on teachers' personal, social and domestic lives. This was also reflected in the quantitative findings of this research where "the personal commitment to teaching" was found to be the most factor motivating the teachers in the sample. Table 5.58 shows that the mean for this factor is 4.4776 for the whole sample and it is the highest among all other factors. This was also true for the separate groups of schools with 4.4194 for teachers in the high-achieving schools and 4.5278 for those in the low-achieving ones. These figures were more explained in the percentages shown in table 5.48, where 95% of the teachers were motivated by this commitment, spread between 42.3% for 'agree' and 52.7% for 'strongly agree'.

The mother-figure role that teachers are enjoying was revealed in the interview as a strong motivator. Steedman (undated) argues that this role is played by primary teachers who are inclined to sacrifice personal interests to those of the child while being satisfied from the process of nourishing and upgrading this child (cited in Campbell, 1999). This was reflected in this research when teachers were asked if they are motivated by the way they make change among the students, the answers

came very interesting: the mean as shown in table 5.47 was 4.333, second highest mean after the one for "the personal commitment to teaching". The percentages came to be 47.3% for 'agree' and 43.8% for 'strongly agree', (table 5.48).

Acker (1990) found that this vocationally-driven motivation is behind teachers choosing this profession. This devotion to students' welfare has been also discussed by Stagg (1999) who found that those who had switched their careers into teaching, wanted to "put something back into society" (cited in Campbell, 1999, p.28). Within the same issue, Campbell and Neill (1994) argue that "this quasi-religious motivation can be traced to the religious origins of schooling, and surfaces in the conscientiousness syndrome" (cited in Campbell, 1999, p.28).

Thus, the result of this research highlighted the Motivation-Hygiene theory; as Bredeson et al. (1983, p.57) argue:

> "The most powerful motivational forces which attract, maintain, and keep successful teachers in the classroom are a complex of intrinsic rewards which come together in the ideal occupational combination of working with students, seeing students learn and succeed, believing one's job in service to others is valuable, and being able to grow personally and professionally" (quoted in Evans, 1998, p. 44).

3. Principal's leadership style: The second research question: What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?

The Principal is the key member of a school's staff and has four main tasks to fulfill in order to increase teachers' motivation: encouraging involvement, improving teaching conditions, supporting teachers and fostering climate and morale (Turney et al., 1992a, p.22).

The quantitative and qualitative data collected in this research helped the researcher to identify the functions performed by the Principals making up their leadership style, and the impact of these functions on teachers' motivation.

The factor analysis divided the functions performed by the Principal into two major factors where factor one described the 'climate-related' functions and factor two described the 'technological' functions (table 5.54). Hallinger and Murphy (1983) have reached the same division; given that all these functions describe the instructional leadership style (cited in Ellis, 1986). Principals of the high-achieving schools had been described by their teachers as stronger in terms of the two sets of functions ('climate-related' and 'technological') in comparison with the Principals in the low-achieving schools. The difference for each set of functions was significant; it was with a coefficient of 0 for factor one ('climate-related') and 0 for factor two ('technological'); significant at $p<0.05$, (table 5.54).

Bush and Jackson (2002) argue that many studies on school effectiveness reveal that excellent leadership is invariably one of the main factors in high-performing schools. Among excellent leadership is 'strong' educational or instructional leadership (Creemers, 1996; cited in Bush & Jackson, 2002).

Given that the Lebanese schools have witnessed a change and are at their early stage of the new curriculum implementation, and given that this research had shown that the Principals in the high-performing schools were adopting a stronger instructional leadership style than those in the low-performing schools; the researcher concluded that a strong instructional leader is effective in leading schools undertaking special measures and changes. This conclusion has been reached by many researchers before (e.g. Gray, 2000; cited in Harris, 2004; Harris, 2004) who argue that directive, instructional Principals are required to lead schools in special measures or failing context in order to let these schools move in the desired direction on the improvement journey.

In analyzing the first set of functions, the climate-related ones, performed by the Principals in this sample; the researcher noticed that the two functions: "the Principal protects instructional time" and "maintains firm discipline" do not differ significantly

between the high-performing schools and the low-performing ones, with coefficients of 0.082 and 0.280 respectively, (significant at $p<0.05$), (table 5.54). Moreover, the high means of 4.5123 and 4.4680 respectively, reflected that Principals in the ten schools selected were protecting the instructional time from any external interruption and were efficient in maintaining a firm discipline in their schools; both of which are required for the teaching-learning operations. All the remaining functions under the first set differed significantly between the two sets of schools. Thus Principals at the high-achieving schools were better in: providing a positive support, creating a motivating environment, maintaining high visibility, maintaining a spirit of collegiality, and distributing tasks among teachers efficiently.

A report on job satisfaction among American teachers found out that a positive school atmosphere and support from the leader are among the working conditions associated with higher teacher satisfaction (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997; quoted in Lumsden, 1998). Teachers at the high-performing schools were found to be significantly more motivated than their colleagues at the low-performing schools, by the factors making up the work atmosphere in the school or the school climate (table 5.58). The researcher argued that it would be easier at these schools (i.e. high-performing) to implement, at a later stage, a less directive form of leadership (e.g. distributed leadership) in order to sustain improvement. Fullan (2002) argues that school improvement is a journey where different types of leadership are required at different stages of this journey. However, distributed leadership is not solely based on collegiality and collaboration, but on teachers' involvement and skillfulness as well (Harris and Lambert, 2003).

Teachers' skillfulness and professional growth were addressed in a separate section in this chapter. As for collegiality, teachers' attitude at the high-performing schools was towards 'strongly agree' in assessing the spirit of collegiality that their Principals maintain in the school; the mean is equal to 4.6774 and it is the highest mean found (see table 5.54).

In looking at the second set of functions, the technological ones, performed by the Principals in this study; the researcher found that one function only did not differ significantly between the two groups of schools. This function is "the Principal

provides feedback" and its mean is equal to 3.7635. Compared with other functions' means, it was one of the very few means that were below 4. Thus the researcher argued that Principals in the selected schools, whether high-performing or not, were not great in providing feedback to their teachers. Related to this function are two other functions: "The Principal shares and helps teachers in lesson preparation" and "he/she promotes new instructional practices". Even though Principals at the high-performing schools were significantly better than those of the low-performing ones in performing these functions, their means were found to be less than 4 as well. These findings were analyzed by looking at the academic qualification of these Principals shown in table 5.5, reflecting that two out of the ten Principals hold a 'Baccalaureate' degree only (a school level degree). This reality raised the question about the adequate qualifications of the Principals in education and gave insights into the moderate means just discussed.

The appointment of unqualified people in leadership positions places a serious problem in the school management. As a result of their unsuitability, such Principals have to rely on other staff to assist them in their role and this leaves them open to manipulation. If the Principal does not know curriculum guidelines, how is it possible for him/her to enhance the staff's knowledge by providing the accurate feedback on the content and methodology the teachers are adopting in educating students? These issues raised an important query about how this affects self-esteem and teacher motivation.

Even though the allocation of the Principals over the different degrees they hold was somehow the same in the two sets of schools selected (one Principal out of five in each set of schools, with a 'Baccalaureate' degree), (see table 5.5), the quantitative data revealed a mean of 4.3548 when teachers at the high-performing schools revealed their attitude towards their Principal as serving an instructional resource in the school. This mean was significantly higher than the one of the low-performing schools which was equal to 3.7818 (table 5.54). Moreover, teachers at the high-performing schools reported, while being interviewed, that "their Principals show understandings to educational problems" as one of the qualities they like most in their Principal leadership style. Teachers at the low-achieving schools did not mention anything of this kind. The researcher concluded that there are factors other

than the Principal academic qualification (i.e. highest academic degree earned) that accounted for in assessing the extent to which Principals performed the technological functions assumed in the instructional leadership style. One of these factors could be the socioeconomic (SES) level of the students.

Despite the intentions of its players, leadership might be partly constructed by the context in which it is being exercised. The nature of the student body might be in part constraining the leadership in this study where the low-performing schools were characterized by students with lower SES in relative to those of the high-performing schools (Table 5.1). Thrupp (1998) argues that the organization and management of schools is strongly influenced by the socioeconomic (SES) level of intake. Thrupp's argument is that, in schools with a low SES intake, the energy required to implement even the most basic administrative and routine tasks is difficult to sustain because all actions must be negotiated with a student body which may be resistant to the middle-class values and practice embedded in processes such as the collection of fees, participation in activities and completion of work. The qualitative data in this research put light on this issue when teachers at the low-performing schools felt upset towards the very low home educational culture of the students. The administration in these schools was obliged to buy the basic stationary for those students and to pay the required registration fees from the school's petty cash fund. Principals in these schools were consuming part of their energy in calling and calling for meeting with parents who do not answer and were not even ready and willing to discuss their children's problems. Thus, instead of focusing on more fruitful leadership roles, Principals in schools with low students' SES were consuming part of their energy, time and efforts in resolving issues taken for granted in other schools. Consequently, and as argued by other researchers (Spillane et al., 2001 cited in Lumby, 2003) and (Gronn, 2000), situational features do not just influence leadership but are part of its very nature.

As discussed earlier, Principals in the ten schools surveyed were not excellent in providing feedback on teachers' performance in the classroom (the mean is equal to 3.7635) (table 5.54). Seashore Louis (1998) states that efforts are to be directed towards an "open classroom door policy" and motivating teachers and administrators to attend classes and discuss teaching. As a result feedback on performance from

colleagues and Principal will be improved, which in turn improves teacher commitment and efficacy. She highlights the importance of feedback, not only from Principals but from colleagues as well.

Principals at the schools surveyed need to have the time and the academic qualifications that enable them to provide the accurate and fruitful feedback on their teachers' classroom performance. The academic qualification is one variable that the Ministry of Education can control while recruiting Principals at its public schools. Being recruited, those Principals should work on promoting a school culture that encourages colleagues to provide feedback on teachers' performance and that encourages those teachers to accept this feedback openly. Mentoring relationships are to be developed inside the school.

The creation of collaborative cultures and the development of common learning are to be encouraged in the schools, which in turn increase the chance of the teacher leadership to be flourished in such a collaborative setting (Caine and Caine, 2000; Little, 2000; cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003). Consequently, schools are transformed into professional learning communities (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001) where teachers are empowered to be involved in the decision-making, thus contributing to the democratization of schools (Gehrke, 1991), (cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003). It aligns with what Sergiovanni (2001, p.439) noted about the 'lifeworld' of the school rather than the 'systemworld', where the focus is towards the development of social, intellectual and other forms of human capital rather than the concentration on the achievement of narrow, instrumental ends.

The researcher argued that the five high-performing schools in this research were at a more advantageous position to build up the professional learning community in their schools, in comparison with the low-performing ones that were still asked to concentrate on more specific and narrow goals. The reason is that the high-achieving schools had overcome the change, (i.e. the implementation of the new curriculum and other newly imposed law such as the students' automatic promotion) and are now at a stage to maintain this improvement. Holden (2002) and Morrisey (2000) find that the school's ability to improve and sustain improvement is largely dependent on its ability to foster and nurture professional learning communities,

where, not only teachers are committed to share learning but, a school-wide culture is built up making teacher leadership an expectation (cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003).

By empowering teachers to assume leadership roles, their self-esteem and work satisfaction increase, which in turn enhance performance caused by a higher level of motivation (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001; cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003). Principals can do much more in motivating teachers (Fox, 1986). The qualitative and the quantitative data revealed the importance of 'recognition' in teachers' motivation. Teachers at the high-performing schools were found significantly more motivated than their colleagues at the low-performing schools, by the 'recognition they receive from their Principal'; the respective means were 4.0753 and 3.6111 with a coefficient of 0.000, significant at $p<0.05$, (table 5.58). In addition to the qualitative data that reflected the appreciation that the teachers of the high-achieving schools held towards their Principals who recognize the teachers' efforts. Cherry2 put it: "our Principal knows how to say: thank you". Moreover, the questionnaire revealed that Principals at the high-performing schools were significantly better than their colleagues at the low-achieving schools in evaluating teachers' achievement.

4. Strategies adopted by Principals to enhance teachers' motivation: The third research question: What Principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by school Principals to improve teacher motivation?

The findings analyzed in the previous two sections were fruitful in identifying the Principal/teacher-focused strategies that could be adopted by school Principals in order to enhance teachers' motivation. The majority of these strategies were spelled out in the first section that dealt with teachers' motivation. The Principal has control over six out of the seven issues raised under that section: the Principal can improve teachers' motivation by recognizing their efforts, building a positive school climate, fostering a working environment characterized by a high level of collegiality and teamwork, supporting teachers in the period of school restructuring and helping them to undertake the change smoothly, inviting teachers to declare their views, and finally, securing an intellectual milieu inside the school that secures an effective

professional growth for the teachers. The seventh issue discussed and which is beyond the Principal's control is the teachers' conscience and their mother-figure role. However the Principal could recognize teachers' high level of commitment being the output of their conscience and their mother-figure role, which in turn foster those innate virtues required for teaching; teaching which is considered as a vocation more than a profession.

Given that the answers to the third research question are spread over parts of the different sections written so far in this chapter, the researcher found it wise to remind readers about the major strategies that could be used by Principals to improve the motivation of those teachers under their supervision. However, the discussion of those strategies here comes to be brief as the researcher did not want to repeat herself.

First, recognition, as shown in the data analysis, is required to be frequently adopted by the Principals through acknowledgment, respect and praise given in return for the efforts made by the teachers and the value of the contributions offered. Recognition is one of the most effective means Principals can use in order to satisfy teachers' self-esteem needs and thus increasing motivation as the data clearly shows. It has to be given genuinely in response to an authentic assessment of the teacher's effort, and does not need to be restricted to major achievements. Principals recognizing the teachers' efforts is excellent, but what seemed important as well is the necessity of the Lebanese government to recognize the efforts of high-performers.

Moreover, the analyzed data revealed that teachers emphasize the importance of trust, respect, sympathy and personal regard that the Principal shows to them. By building up and maintaining a positive school climate characterized by a high level of collegiality, by inducing teamwork and by making sure that all the teachers are being dealt with, with equity; Principals can improve teachers' motivation and enhance their level of commitment. This is the major job of a motivator in an educational setting.

During school restructuring, the key is to learn how to manage the change skillfully and how to have it work for the good of the organization rather than against it (Fullan, 1993). This calls for a good rapport between the Principal and the teachers,

especially at the early stages of the change implementation; when the purpose of this change is to be clarified. Principals at the Lebanese public schools need to obtain the resources needed to support and manage the new structure and reform in order to help their teachers tackle any confusion during the restructuring process. This in turn helps in motivating the teachers to accept and undertake the change successfully.

Furthermore, the analyzed data indicated that teachers value their participation in the decision-making process in their schools and consider it as a motivator. They need to be given the opportunity to speak out and to feel free to give advice. Thus, it is the Principal's role to provide support, remove barriers, invite teachers to declare their opinions and encourage them to develop their ideas as far as they are able. Thus a climate of trust and acceptance is to be built up in the school where the Principal shares power with the teachers and increases their ownership and sense of control over decisions which in turn increases their level of commitment.

In assessing the impact of the Principal on teachers' motivation to undertake further professional activities through giving them the chance to grow professionally, which in turn lead to higher job motivation (considered as an intrinsic motivator); the researcher paid attention to the analyzed data which was rich in explaining this issue. The Principal' role here comes to ensure the intellectual milieu that motivates teachers to develop their skills. However this is not found to be the only variable upon which, teachers seeking professional growth is dependent. As discussed in an earlier separate section, the other variables, for instance, could be the effectiveness of the professional activities offered by the CERD and the ability and readiness of the teachers to undertake such activities.

To conclude, the researcher argues that many strategies can be adopted by Lebanese schools Principals in order to motivate teachers in the public sector; however, the Lebanese Ministry of Education has to work towards more strategies if a greater level of teachers' motivation is sought.

5. Factors affecting school performance: The fourth research question: What are the factors affecting the school performance level?

In looking out at the reasons behind the good or low performance of the Lebanese public schools selected in this study, the researcher recorded the teachers' opinion concerning this issue while interviewing them and was able to track the similarities and differences between the two sets of schools (high-performing vs. low-performing) through using the data collected from the interview, the questionnaire, and the data summarized in the schools description schedules (Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 & 5.4). Thus the answers came to be either direct as a response to one clear, straight forward question (question number 9 in the interview schedule), or indirect as an output to a rich analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data. The factors affecting the school performance level are found to be: students' SES and their quality, the quality of the teachers and the way they are motivated, the Principal leadership style, and the physical working conditions in the schools.

5.1. Students' SES and their quality:

Concerning the students' socio economic status, it is normal to have parents with middle and low SES sending their children to public schools as they are fees free; leaving the private schools to the more educated and wealthier parents. This issue was raised in a previous section while discussing the recognition that teachers receive from students and their parents. However, in this section, students' SES is discussed to assess its impact on students' performance. This study revealed that most of the students in the high-performing schools (except for the 'Apple' school) came from middle and low social classes, with their parents exercising control over their educational advancement. However the parents of the low-achieving schools' students are very poor and illiterate, explaining the reason behind them not putting their children's academic progress among their first priorities (table 5.1). Those parents are unable and even not ready to pay few immaterial pounds for buying the basic books and pens for their children; that oblige the school to purchase these stationary from the school's petty cash fund; reported some teachers in the low-achieving schools. Pupils' perception of their home educational environment influenced non-academic and academic student outcomes. Home educational

environment involves having a space and aids for study as well as having discussions about, and assistance with, school work and conversations about world events (Mulford and Silins, 2003).

In addition to students' SES, their quality is of a high importance in assessing their performance. Teachers complained about two matters regarding this issue: the first is the newly imposed law of automatic students' promotion, and the second is that not succeeding private schools' students are inclined to join the public schools; as one teacher (Cucumber1) described them as 'sick' students (p.193). Both matters have led to low-quality students present at all levels in these public schools, which in turn had affected the percentage of students' success in the official examinations negatively. On the contrary, teachers at the high-performing schools mentioned the good quality of their students as one of the factors (at the third rank) (see p.192) leading to the good performance of their school. Given that the five high-achieving schools and the five low-achieving ones, selected in this research, are all public and subject to the same law of students acceptance and other educational procedures, it is left to the researcher to think that the high-achieving schools selected are luckier than the low-achieving ones in terms of the quality of students they have, or there are other factors present at the high-achieving schools that have led to this high students' quality. This is found at the 'Apple' school whose students used to achieve great results in the official examinations (table 5.1: 100% in years 2002, 2001 and 98% in 2000) even though they came from a low SES with parents being very poor and illiterate. This is true for only one school out the five high-achieving ones. Thus, the researcher argues that student quality and SES do count in assessing school performance, as well as other important factors that need great attention. As Leithwood and Jantzi (1998) argue that the family educational culture does affect the students' engagement with the school (cited in Muijs & Harris, 2003).

5.2. Teachers' quality and the way they are motivated:

Moreover, the qualitative data had shown that the teachers' quality is an important factor affecting the school performance level, teachers at the high-performing schools were found to be proud and appreciating the presence of high-quality

teachers in their school; on the other hand, teachers at the low-performing schools complained about the absence of good quality teachers especially for Sciences and Mathematics (p.193). Justiz (1985, p.7) argued that "... the strength of a nation depends on the high-quality of its educational system, and the strength of a high-quality education system rests with high-quality teachers" (Quoted in Abdo, 2000, p.117).

In assessing the teachers' quality, two variables should be taken into consideration. The first variable is the ability of those teachers when they were students and the degrees they have attained before joining the teaching profession. The second variable is the quality of work life.

5.2.1. Teachers' ability:

Many studies indicate that students with high academic ability are attracted by careers other than teaching, by careers with better status and working conditions, thus the teaching profession is left to individuals with a lower academic ability (Solmon and LaPorte, 1986; cited in Abdo, 2000). Moreover, the presence of teachers in this sample being 'Brevet' holders or 'Baccalaureate' holders, with the percentages of 54% and 24.1% respectively (table 5.7), sets severe consequences on the quality of teachers in these schools. Those degrees are of a school level with the 'Brevet' representing grade 9 and 'Baccalaureate' representing the second or the third year secondary (whether it is a Baccalaureate I or II). Teachers with these degrees are not equipped with the necessary pre-requisites for their teaching duties, responsibilities and experience. This mediocre entry-level requirements to teaching that were prevailing, had contributed to low public school quality in Lebanon; even though the current requirements are a first university degree as well as a teaching diploma. Thus, it will take time for these schools to accommodate only university graduates. In this research, the impact of teachers with their school or university degrees, on school performance had been clearly noticed. It was revealed that teachers with university degrees were found more in the high-achieving schools compared to the low-achieving ones. And, 63.6% of the 'Brevet' holders and 61.2% of the 'Baccalaureate' holders are found in the low-achieving schools (table 5.7). This difference in the teachers allocation based on the degrees they hold, over the

high-performing and the low-performing schools was found to be significant, with a coefficient of 0.036 (significant at $p<0.05$) (table 5.6). Thus, the researcher argued that the academic qualification of the teacher, one of the factors determining his/her quality, was found to correlate with school performance.

5.2.2. Quality of work life:

The second variable in examining teachers' quality is the quality of their work lives. After reviewing the literature, Seashore Louis (1998) identified seven indicators ensuring the quality of work life: respect, participation in decision making, collegiality, procedures leading to a high sense of efficacy, opportunity to develop and use skills, adequate resources to carry out the job, and congruence between personal goals and the school's goals. Each of the seven criteria was analyzed enabling the researcher to judge the quality of work life in both sets of schools.

5.2.2.1. Respect:

With respect to 'respect', two out of the ten teachers interviewed in the low-performing schools, mentioned the lack of respect, especially from students, as one of the major problems facing teachers in the Lebanese public schools (p.186). On the other hand, teachers in the high-performing schools did not complain about any lack of respect; but they argued about the necessity of granting the teaching profession the good social status that it deserves. Since the deterioration of the social status of teaching is a common problem shared by all the teachers, regardless of the school they belong to, the only difference reported by teachers was found to be the lack of respect that teachers in the low-achieving schools had reported. Thus, the researcher argued that teachers in the high-achieving schools were relatively more respected than their colleagues in the low-achieving ones.

Maslow argued that "the most stable and therefore most healthy self-esteem is based on deserved respect from others rather than on external fame or celebrity and understand adulation" (Maslow, 1954, p.91).

5.2.2.2. Collegiality:

Regarding collegiality and the availability of adequate resources to carry out the job; they were discussed in details early this chapter and it was found that high-performing schools were better off than the low-achieving ones in terms of these factors.

5.2.2.3. Opportunity to develop and use skills:

As for the opportunity granted to teachers to develop and use skills; all the public school teachers were given the same opportunity to attend those training sessions deemed necessary to introduce the new curriculum. However, the CERD was selective in the upgrading sessions it organized, with the assistance of the World Bank, to train teachers and enable them to use the computer. Teachers who attended these sessions, in the summer 2003 came mainly from high-achieving schools. Not only the CERD was selective, but also teachers of the high-achieving schools were willing and ready to take advantage of any professional growth opportunity granted to them; in contrast with the teachers in the low-achieving schools who revealed their weakness and inability to cope with the new technology. This was discussed deeply in a previous section in this chapter. Thus, some teachers of the high-performing schools were given the opportunity to develop their skills in using the computer, due to their readiness and the selective mode of the CERD; as well as to use the skills acquired as their schools are equipped with this required technological device. Table 5.2 shows that the five high-performing schools selected in this research have computers with three of them having computer laboratories with 3 computers for the 'Melon' school, 16 computers for the 'Cherry' and 15 computers for the 'Peach' one.

Thus, the researcher argued that, in this study, the opportunity to develop and use skills is found to be based on some factors external to the teachers, such as the selection mode of the CERD and the availability of resources enabling them to use these skills; as well as on some other factors internal to the teachers such as their motivation to update and enhance their skills.

5.2.2.4. Adequate physical resources:

Concerning the adequate resources to carry out the job, table 5.2 shows, and as explained in an earlier section, that high-performing schools are better equipped than the low-achieving ones and the majority of them benefit from the presence of the required materials and tools for the new curriculum implementation, except for the 'Peach' school. Abdo (2000) argues that supplying instructional materials works great in supporting teachers and improving student achievement. The accessibility of the teachers to instructional materials reduces the difficulty of teachers' tasks by helping them in selecting, arranging and sequencing the curriculum. Moreover, it reduces the amount of time required for a methodical presentation of knowledge, which could affect students' achievement positively and consequently teachers' sense of self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Chapman et al., 1993).

The quality and availability of materials and equipments being used are considered as one of the factors affecting the teachers' expectancy perceptions about their level of job performance; given that expectancy is one of the three core concepts making up Vroom's Expectancy Theory of motivation.

5.2.2.5. Participation in the decision-making:

Participation in the decision making, one of the criteria of the quality of work life, was found to be not highly applicable in the schools selected for this study as the mean was found to be only 3.3632 when teachers were asked if they are motivated by the level of participation they make in the decision-making process in the school (table 5.58). The quantitative data showed no difference between the high-performing schools and the low-performing ones regarding this issue. However, the qualitative data revealed the complain of one teacher, in a low-achieving school, about his Principal being the sole decision maker. Since the same type of data did not show any negative attitude towards this point revealed by teachers in the high-achieving schools, the researcher was inclined to assume that those teachers were not suffering as much as their colleagues in the low-achieving schools.

5.2.2.6. Enhanced teachers' sense of efficacy:

One of the factors found to have an impact on the quality of work life is the procedures that enhance the teachers' sense of efficacy. Teachers need to obtain frequent and accurate feedback on their performance and the specific impact of this performance on student achievement (Rosenholz, 1989; cited in Sergiovanni, 1995). The qualitative and the quantitative data put light on the different sources of feedback that teachers were appreciating as well as on other sources that were absent and that teachers were calling for. Students' success in the official exam could be considered as one source of feedback that teachers at the high-performing schools were enjoying; as 'Apple2' put it: "we are really proud of the results we are achieving over the last few years. They are the fruit of our excellent performance and the extra efforts and time we put with our students... we used to receive congratulation letters yearly from the Ministry of Education". The efforts of high-performing teachers might be translated in terms of high percentage of students' success in the examinations, however they can not be considered as the only factor this excellent achievement was dependent on. Thus it was unfair to assume that the lower students' achievement in the low-performing school constitute an absolutely accurate feedback on teachers' performance in these schools.

As discussed earlier, students' SES and quality as well as other factors such as the adequate resources to carry out the job, do affect students' performance. To summarize, the researcher argued that teachers at the high-performing schools considered students' success as an excellent feedback on their performance; but teachers at the low-performing schools gave less importance to this kind of feedback.

One another source of feedback is the Principal who is assumed to be the school leader and the right person to evaluate teachers' achievements and provide them with the accurate feedback. However, the quantitative data in this study did not emphasize this last function of instructional leadership: "providing teachers with feedback". It showed that there is no difference in the leadership style between the two sets of schools (high-performing and low-performing) with respect to this function (the coefficient was 0.999, significant at $p<0.05$). Table 5.54 showed that the mean

for this statement "My Principal provides feedback" was 3.7635. Even though this mean was between the neutral (3) and the agree (4) attitudes, it was from the lowest means revealed. Thus, Principals in both sets of schools were not providing their teachers with the best kind of feedback that the teachers were expecting.

If recognition is assumed to take one form of feedback, the motivation section of the questionnaire revealed that teachers at the high-performing schools were better motivated with this factor than their colleagues at the low-performing ones. The qualitative data also stressed the importance that those teachers were placing on a "thank you" received from their Principal.

In the qualitative data, teachers revealed the absence of assessment practices and procedures that evaluate teachers in the public sector. They showed their need for such appraisal procedures. Teachers, mainly good performers, revealed the importance of teacher evaluation, hoping that this procedure could reward good performers and punish bad performers. Moreover Abdo (2000) argues that such a procedure could be seen as a way of professional development of practitioner and practice, as it boots confidence and self-awareness.

To conclude, the researcher found that the procedures boosting teachers' self efficacy are not really at work in the Lebanese public schools; however, they are better in the high-achieving schools compared to the low-achieving ones.

5.2.2.7. Congruence between teachers' personal goals and the schools' goals:

The seventh indicator of the quality of work life is the congruence between teachers' personal goals and the schools' goals. In fact, the research objectives in this study were not to find out if there is a harmony between the teachers' goals and the schools' goals and therefore, the research instruments were not designed to meet this purpose. Consequently, the researcher could not judge the situation accurately except for few deductions she made from the qualitative data. So, based on the limited data for this issue, the researcher argued that teachers' goals in the low-performing schools are in harmony with their schools' goals to a lesser degree in comparison with those of the teachers in the high-performing schools. Teachers in

the low-achieving schools reported that 'salary' is one factor motivating them to perform their daily school duties. The researcher felt that the answers could had been more purposive like the more frequent answers given by teachers in the high-performing schools such as: conscience, liking the kids, liking teaching and being interested in the students' advancement; even though, the quantitative data revealed that teachers in the low-performing schools were motivated by "the way they make change among students' and by "the personal commitment to teaching" with means of 4.3241 and 4.5278 respectively (table 5.58).

Moreover, teachers at the low-achieving schools were found reluctant to take professional development opportunities; in addition to that teacher in the 'Cabbage' school who refused to teach. The already mentioned issues did not encourage the researcher to assume that the teachers' goals in the low-performing schools are in congruence with their schools' goals.

The seven indicators discussed above had let the researcher to argue that the quality of work life in the high-achieving schools was better than it was in the low-achieving ones. Seashore Louis (1998) states that "a quality of work life... is useful in predicting key behaviors and attitudes that have been associated in other studied with effective work performance and higher levels of student achievement" (p.18).

5.3. The Principal leadership style:

Sergiovanni (1999) argue that while the quality of teaching most strongly influences levels of students' motivation and performance, it has been found that the motivation of teachers and the teaching quality are much dependent on the quality of leadership (cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003). Thus leadership is indirectly related to student outcomes; it influences the way teachers organize and conduct their instruction, their educational interactions with students, and the challenges and expectations teachers place on their pupils (Mulford and Silins, 2003). (The previous section on Principal leadership had explored in details the style adopted by the Principals in the two different groups of schools).

6. Conclusion:

The study conducted at the ten schools revealed that there are some problems with teachers' motivation. If the Principals at these schools are to be successful in achieving excellence and creating effective schools, then the characteristics of motivational strategies in the data must become the criteria for evaluating school policies and administrative practices. Motivation and commitment are enhanced when professionals are in charge of their practice, have ownership of school affairs and find teaching and school activities to be rewarding experiences.

This research asserts that Principals need to have a leadership style that shows evidence of confidence in the teachers' ability to plan and make decisions. Principals need to recognize teachers' potential work and contributions within the school. Recognition is to be frequently adopted by Principals through appreciation and acknowledgement for the achievements made by the teachers. The more Principals demonstrate a collegial relationship with the staff, the more the teachers perceive them as professional mentors. He/she has to foster a positive organizational climate where collegiality is enhanced and teachers are motivated to appreciate teamwork.

In addition to the importance of the Principal's leadership style in enhancing teachers' motivation, this study revealed the importance of other factors as well. These factors were found to be outside the Principals' hands; they were mainly dependent on strategies taken by the Lebanese Ministry of Education and related to a financial as well as non-financial recognition system that establishes some kind of equity between high-quality, good performing teachers and low-quality, low performing ones. In addition to other extrinsic factors such as the physical working conditions that were found to be mediocre and low in some places, preventing teachers to be motivated by higher-order needs.

Finally, this research highlighted the factors that contributed to the classification of five schools as high-performing and the other five schools as low-performing, hoping that a model can be established and submitted to the Ministry of Education, which in turn, can take the appropriate strategies to implement it; making all the Lebanese public schools high-performing ones.

The results of this modest research, that compared two different sets of schools, enabled the researcher to track the particularities of the more successful schools. School improvement, "a process that focuses on enhancing the quality of students' learning" (Harris and Hopkins, 2000, p.10), takes into account the following:

- The internal conditions of the school determine the effectiveness of the innovative work. The school's internal conditions refer to every single detail affecting the teaching-learning process. They include teachers' quality and the way they are motivated and committed; the Principal's leadership style and the extent to which he/she performs the functions or the styles that were found in many studies effective for school improvement and for sustaining this improvement; the quality of the students that is highly dependent on their SES or what is called their home educational culture; and the physical working conditions in the school environment, its suitable architectural design, and the degree to which it is equipped with all the required tools and materials including rich libraries and other laboratories such as scientific and computer ones.

- The school's vision should be one that seeks and encourages commitment and involvement from all members of the school community, especially students and their parents. Parents, especially those poor and illiterate, have to value the importance of their children's education.

- The staff development has to be taken on an individual as well as on a group basis. Teachers have to upgrade their skills individually in order to be able to cope with the change implemented by the school improvement; and they have to share the learning opportunities with their colleagues in order to learn together.

When all these factors are at work, leadership can then be regarded as a function to which many staff can contribute. Thus in order to sustain school improvement, distributive leadership can be adopted.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion and Recommendations

1. Introduction:

The objectives of this study were to examine if an influence exists between Principal leadership style and teacher motivation; and to find out those motivational strategies that, if used by the Principal, will lead to higher teachers' motivation. Moreover, it aimed to identify the teachers' views on what constitutes professional practices, through giving them the chance to reveal their unsatisfied needs. Furthermore, this study aimed to find out the differences as well as the similarities between the two sets of schools selected, in a way to identify the characteristics of the high-performing schools as well as the low-performing ones in terms of the leadership functions performed by their Principals, in terms of the way those teachers are motivated and in terms of other factors found to affect school performance. Consequently, the research questions were:

1- What are the main concerns reported by Lebanese public schoolteachers regarding their own motivation, and the differences in their attitude towards motivation in the two different sets of schools selected?
2- What are the major functions of the instructional leadership style performed by the Principals in the Lebanese public schools, and the differences in the performance of these leadership functions in the two different sets of schools selected?
3- What Principal/teacher-focused strategies could be used by school Principals to improve teacher motivation?
4- What are the factors affecting the school performance level?

The research provided a firm basis for the Principals at the ten schools involved, as well as for the Lebanese Ministry of Education, to identify and utilize effective motivation strategies which, generally, apply to all employees and are likely to have

positive results. Furthermore, it highlighted the different factors that were present at the high-achieving schools and that had led to the excellent results these schools were achieving, as well as the different problems that the low-achieving schools were suffering from.

2. Claim to originality:

The originality of this research came to be in the topic itself and in the place in which it was conducted. Research in educational management issues had been scarce and even absent in Lebanon. The reason could be traced to two main factors: the first is the absence of educational management programmes in the Lebanese universities and thus the absence of students able and willing to conduct research in such a field. The second is the interest of the Lebanese CERD that came to be mainly in issues related to curriculum and thus focusing its efforts on such matters. For instance, The CERD is currently interested in finding out the difficulties that hindered the effective implementation of the new curriculum as well as the problems, and their causes, associated with the students' automatic promotion law. With respect to managerial issues, the researcher found that the CERD was interested in guiding Principals in their daily interactions with students in order to secure a polite conduct in the schools. However, no efforts had been directed towards other leadership functions. The researcher found one research, conducted by Theodory in the early 1980s, about the Principals' leadership style in the Lebanese public schools. Thus the researcher was really proud and happy from her research that brought to light an issue somehow neglected in the Lebanese context, given that it is considered highly important in the developed countries.

She hopes that this research triggers the interest of two parties: the first is the Lebanese Ministry of Education and the second is all researchers interested in educational management. The Lebanese Ministry of Education has to take seriously the recommendations advanced in this study to secure a better future for education in Lebanon. Moreover, interested researchers have been given the opportunity to look at the findings of a recent research, conducted in Lebanon, upon which they can base their future research and go narrower than what the researcher did here. At least those researchers were luckier than the researcher herself. Researchers

abroad (like in UK, USA, and Australia for instance) do not face the problem of the scarcity of references as many studies are published frequently and regularly.

3. Limitations:

Among the different limitations that the researcher had faced is first the attitude of policy makers and directors in the Ministry of Education towards this research, giving the impression that they know in advance the answers to the research questions the researcher has set, telling her: "we know what motivate teachers...". This pacific attitude towards research is a serious limitation for fieldwork in Lebanon. This issue had bothered the researcher when she went to take permission from those leaders to access the ten schools investigated. When the researcher explained her objective and the purpose of her study, she felt that those leaders did not give much weight to this research because they are convinced that they know the answers to the research questions set in this study. However, the researcher insisted on letting them change their mind when she presents the findings, hoping that the Lebanese culture will start realizing the importance of research in the journey of improvement.

The second one is the Lebanese's reluctance in participating in research. As shown in this study, 203 teachers participated out of a total number of 403 in the intended sample. Since the Lebanese are not used to participate in frequent research, they still hold a passive attitude towards research, believing that such participation might threaten their jobs, lives or others if they have to reveal their opinions concerning special issues. This attitude is not the Lebanese's fault but it had been built up during the war period when people had to keep their mouth close if they wanted to keep their head safe. Even though the case is better now, it needs time for the Lebanese to make up their minds and start looking forward.

The third limitation that faced the researcher is the scarcity of up to date research about teachers' motivation and the theories of motivation that seemed to be relatively old. In reviewing the literature, it was hard to find interesting articles related to this issue. However, the case was not the same for leadership, thanks God.

The fourth limitation is the lack of opinion formation. It deals with the teachers' fear to express their feelings. The Lebanese show favor to the collective system where individuals are afraid to declare their true opinions believing that they have always to say what others expect in order to gain credit. However, the researcher worked on this limitation by convincing the respondents that they will remain anonymous. Also, this is why the researcher has conducted interviews with teachers on an individual basis, rather than group interview; in such a way, they felt more at ease in declaring issues they usually do not raise in public.

The fifth limitation is financial. Since this research is for a PhD one, without any funding, the researcher was to bear all the costs. Consequently she was not able to expand more her study beyond the ten schools selected.

In addition to the five limitations just discussed, the researcher would like to discuss additional limitations related to the research process. In designing a research study, one of the targets a researcher keeps in mind is adopting a research methodology that ensures the trustworthiness of the study. This section gives consideration to some aspects of the research process that might have implications for the findings and cause weaknesses in them. There are six problems in this research design: the identification of the two groups of the five schools selected for this research, the reliance on the CERD classification of high and low performing schools, the lack of details about students' SES in the CERD classification of schools, the choice of volunteers for interviews in each school, the low and differential response rate to the questionnaire in the ten different schools investigated, and finally the statistical treatment of differences between the two groups of schools that assumed these were samples and not population. These are each discussed in turn in the next few pages.

The first problem in research design that the researcher faced was the identification of the two groups of the five schools selected for this study. The researcher's intention was to study the best five high-performing schools and the worst five low-performing ones out of the 761 Lebanese intermediate public schools, i.e. those schools ranked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (making up the first group) and those with ranks 761, 760, 759, 758, 757 (making up the second group). However, the researcher found

out that she could not study those with ranks 761, 760, 759, 758 and 757, as they did not meet all the criteria used to define a school. Those criteria are for instance: one Principal, many teachers, all the grades of an intermediate school (from kindergarten to 'Brevet', i.e. grade nine); with one or more sections of each grade. Consequently, the five low-performing schools in this study ended up being five from the lowest-performing schools that met all the criteria that define a school. Thus this study at least compared schools that were organizationally similar.

The second research problem the researcher encountered in constructing her study was the reliance on the CERD classification of high and low performing schools. The categorization of these schools as high or low-performing is the Lebanese CERD's categorization, not the researcher's one. The researcher got the names of the schools investigated from the CERD directly without doing the investigation of this issue herself, as that would have required a separate survey research to have been done on a nation wide scale before this study. The variables used by CERD to classify schools as high or low-achieving are: the percentage of students' success in the official examinations, the quality of the teachers measured in terms of the highest degree earned and their willingness and motivation to attend the training sessions held to upgrade their skills, the physical conditions of the school and the availability of laboratories and other physical resources required in the teaching process, the application of the new curriculum without major difficulties, and the students' SES. The researcher believed that she would have used the same variables if she was to do this classification herself. However, some interesting discontinuities between the data offered by CERD raised some interesting questions about schools' classification. For example, she did not expect high-performing schools and low-performing ones to share some characteristics. For instance, students at the 'Apple' school, (a high-performing one), came from poor and illiterate families, teachers there do not have a lounge to meet in, and are suffering from the students' automatic promotion law (see p.18, for details about this law). Moreover, this school is suffering from the risky physical conditions of its building (Tables 5.1, 5.2, 5.3). Despite all these indicators of social and educational disadvantages, this was a high-performing school which the researcher found strange and raised questions about the reasons behind its success. To conclude, the researcher argues that she had no other alternative possibilities for selecting the ten schools for her study other than using

CERD's classification, despite any weaknesses in the ways that CERD classified schools.

The third research problem the researcher faced in constructing her study was the lack of detail about students' SES in the CERD classification of schools. Consequently for information on students' SES and their family cultures, this study had to rely on information from the Principals and the teachers interviewed in each school. Through the statements and the opinions they declared, the researcher was able to figure out the home educational culture in which the different groups of students were raised. A few examples of the sorts of comments that Principals made were: parents are interested in their children's educational achievement, they attend the meetings they are called for and they come regularly to school to ask about their kids' progress. These comments showed a family culture that emphasizes children's educational advancement. On the other hand, low students' SES was indicated by comments such as: parents do not buy for their children the basic stationary which obliges the school to buy it for them from the school's petty cash fund, parents do not attend the meeting they are called for; and the majority of our students come from orphanages (Table 5.1).

A more reliable approach would have been the availability of formal studies and statistics published by special Lebanese ministries or UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). However no such studies exist. In the absence of such studies, the researcher was left with one option: accepting the data she collected from Principals and teachers (see examples above), and drawing the readers' attention to this issue. In a report published by the UNDP in 1997, it was declared that even though there are only recent attempts to study poverty in Lebanon, those attempts remained below the scope of the internationally adopted methodology and norms. Therefore, reliable data are not available to make accurate estimates.

Recently, the researcher learnt from the president of the Lebanese CERD (through an informal chat) that the CERD is currently studying special schools (schools in poor regions) to assess the level of students' SES. So this study is important for showing how students' standards of living might be assessed in the absence of any more reliable data. Data have started to emerge showing the miserable life students in the poor regions are experiencing. The CERD found, for instance, that girls are

sent in the afternoons to clean houses and bring money to their parents. The researcher hopes that more and more studies cover all the Lebanese public schools, consequently researchers will be equipped with more reliable data to base their research on.

The fourth research problem the researcher encountered in constructing her study was the issue of interviews conducted with volunteers in each school. In the research methodology chapter, the researcher explained the selection mode of the interviewees who ended up as volunteers. It depended on those who showed interest in the topic under investigation and were interested in sharing their views with the researcher. Kvale (1996) argues that interview subjects are not always selected at random but by other criteria, such as typicality or simply by accessibility. While the strong motivation of those volunteers to chat with the researcher may lead to valuable knowledge, the findings of this self-selected sample can not, however, be statistically generalized to the population at large, nor can it be taken as representative of the views of the other teachers in the school. Kvale (1996) discussed the importance of acknowledging bias when it is present. He said: "Unacknowledging bias may entirely invalidate the results of an interview inquiry. A recognized bias ..., may, however, come to highlight specific aspects of the phenomena investigated, bring new dimensions forward, contributing to a multiperspectival construction of knowledge" (Kvale, 1996, p.286). The researcher believes that those teachers who did not take part in the interview process, did so for two reasons: either because they are not interested in what is to be discussed, or due to their fear from declaring their opinions regarding the Principal, the educational problems and others, and believing that it will be safer socially not to participate. This situation, in itself, might trigger the curiosity of researchers to undertake further research in order to shed light on the attitudes of potential participants to participation in educational research studies. The researcher understands this passive attitude as the Lebanese culture is not yet open to research and to the importance of the Lebanese participation in such research for a better understanding of their own world. In conclusion, the researcher wished that more teachers had been willing to participate enabling her to adopt a different sampling strategy: one that aimed for representativeness and not just volunteers. She wished that all the teachers were volunteers and then picking up randomly the required number of

participants, or a range of participants that were representative of the different voices among the staff. Consequently, the researcher would have had a sounder basis on which to build her conclusions.

The fifth problem in research design that the researcher faced was the low and differential response rate to the questionnaire in the ten different schools investigated. Table 4.7 (p.147) shows that the average percentage of respondents, in each group of schools, out of the total number of teachers in that group is approximately 50%: 50.54% for the high-performing schools and 50.23% for the low-performing ones. As these percentages are average ones, the researcher would like to draw the readers' attention to the fact that these percentages are affected by the presence of high and low respondents' percentages for individual schools within the same group, making some schools more represented in the quantitative data. For the first group of schools (the high-performing ones), 'Melon' with a percentage of 82.14% is more represented, through the views of its teachers, than 'Cherry' where the percentage falls down to 25.64%. The same is for 'Lettuce' and 'Cabbage', belonging to the second group (the low-performing schools), with the following percentages: 96.15% and 21.43% respectively. Even though the researcher took the extreme percentages in the examples just revealed, the differential response rates exist for the other schools as well. For 'Apple', 'Pineapple' and 'Peach' (the other three schools in the first group), the percentages are 48.15%, 50% and 53.7% respectively; whereas, they are 73.08%, 41.77% and 65.63% for 'Tomato', 'Cucumber' and 'Carrot' (the other three schools in the second group) (Table 4.7). The researcher here aimed to shed light on the fact that the response rates do vary between one school and another and that they are low in some schools, both of which lead to some schools being more represented in the quantitative data.

The sixth research methodology problem that the researcher encountered was the statistical treatment of differences between the two groups that assumed these were samples and not populations. As the sample in this research consisted of ten Lebanese intermediate public schools out of 761, the researcher could not claim that this could be considered a representative sample of the whole population, especially as these schools had not been selected randomly. However, and in an effort to gain some estimate of the magnitude of the differences between the two groups of

schools, the researcher treated them as if they were random samples. While the use of inferential statistics, in general, is to generalize from a sample to a wider population; their use here was to gain a deeper analysis when comparing the high-performing schools to the low-performing ones (Foster, 2001). The researcher believed that the findings regarding the two groups of schools were interesting and useful in guiding her or other researchers in further research. As with all small scale studies, further research needs to be conducted before making strong claims about the outcomes and being able to generalize.

In conclusion, the researcher would like to note that despite all the limitations that she faced in her way out and regardless of all what had been just discussed regarding some aspects of the research process, this study still makes a useful contribution to knowledge about education in Lebanon on which future and more rigorous studies will be able to build. With the completion of this research, the researcher felt some kind of self-satisfaction. There are two reasons behind this feeling: the first one is the pioneering nature of her study, a study conducted in a country that hungers for research in general and for research in educational management in particular. The second one is her acquisition of new skills and expertise enabling her to undertake further research in the future.

4. Recommendations:

This recommendation deals with the amelioration of the Lebanese public schools' physical conditions while taking into consideration the financial problems and the deficit that the Lebanese government is experiencing. It would have been great if the Government possesses all the financial resources required to repair, restore and update its schools; however the reality is not as much motivating. Thus, the researcher was obliged to search for a solution to this problem taking into account the available constraints. She was focusing on the quality of schooling rather than its quantity. She thinks that few high-performing schools are better than many low-performing ones; few high-quality teachers are better than many low-quality ones, and few schools with excellent physical working conditions are better than many

ones that do not have anything in common with a 'school' except for the students and teachers they accommodate.

The solution advanced by the researcher is to decrease the number of these schools, keeping in mind their fair distribution among the different Lebanese regions. Table 24 (Appendix C, part1) shows that 31.7% of the Lebanese intermediate public schools' buildings are owned by the Government, 2.4% are donations and 1.05% are of both types; thus making a total of 35.15% of the schools only, on which the government does not pay rent. Consequently the government ended up paying rent for individuals, municipalities and others, from whom buildings for around 495 intermediate public schools (out of 761) have been rented. This number seems to be material and requires a material annual cash outflow, taking its share from the annual budget allocated to the Ministry of Education. By decreasing this number through well designed mergers conducted on a regional basis, the government can use these savings to ameliorate the working conditions of the remaining schools. The savings include the rent, and other costs required to run the school's operations. However the salaries and fringe benefits of the shut down schools' teachers will not be saved as the government will not fire them. In such a case, the government has to offer early retirement benefits motivating those low-performing, elderly teachers, mainly those who are not interested in any professional growth, to leave the profession; leaving the floor to younger, more committed teachers with higher academic qualifications. Zachariah (2002) argues that the quality of education is dependent on the quality of teachers. Teacher quality is important in three major ways: it is key to the development of the Principal attitudes towards learning and self-image of the learners; it establishes the base on which subsequent learning will be built; and it is central to the improvement of the schooling quality.

For those low-performing teachers to resign earlier than it was supposed, the researcher argues that early retirement benefits alone will not be as effective unless it is accompanied with the implementation of a serious and severe supervision plan detecting and punishing any negative behaviour. Teachers have to believe that the inspection body is at work, not as it was during the war period; and that Principals will not hide any misconduct anymore. Consequently, those who feel that they will not be able to cope with these serious regulations will prefer to escape taking

benefits of what they are being offered to retire early. Teachers with 'Brevet' or 'Baccalaureate' (i.e. school level degrees) are no longer acceptable in the schools, the government has to induce them to leave early even though the short-run financial burden could be high. Those teachers are not equipped with the required academic qualifications enabling them to cope with the educational demand of the third millennium; in addition to their age that stands as a barrier in front of any professional growth activity. The message is clear: the government has to work towards the injection of a new blood in its educational system enabling it to compete with the private one. New young and well educated teachers may serve this purpose. While discussing this issue with the president of the CERD, she revealed that the Government is ending up incurring a cost per student higher than the tuition fees of a student in one of the most famous private schools in Lebanon. Given that the quality is not in proportion with the cost in the public education system, quick remedies are to be implemented. It is obvious that there is a waste in the way the financial resources are being spent over the different functions in the educational process. This waste can be seen for instance, in the salaries and other benefits paid to those teachers who seem to be no more effective and in the costs incurred to hold the training sessions that ended up being not as effective as it was planned.

The researcher would like to discuss each problem separately and in detail, making use of the qualitative and qualitative data she had analyzed, and trying to advance appropriate recommendations. She decided to start with the schools' physical conditions where the teaching process is taking place. The researcher wondered the effectiveness of teaching in a school where the classroom's roofs are leaking in the winter or where the playground is a nearby cemetery. Those examples had been shown in the news in one Lebanese TV channel, LBCI (Lebanese Broadcasting Corporation International). In addition to what was discussed in chapter one and the statistical tables reflecting these conditions, as well as the lack of the required equipment, books and others that the teachers of the low-performing schools had revealed in this study. Being unable to restore and maintain the total number of public schools currently available, the government has to work towards a policy that decreases this number as much as possible trying to close first those schools that have been rented. Then, with the rent that will be saved, the government can rehabilitate the remaining schools following the acceptable standards. Many other

reasons are behind the researcher's recommendation for merging schools: it is not acceptable anymore to have schools where the number of teachers exceeds the students' number, or, where students with different ages and levels are grouped in one classroom and teachers allocating each part of the session to a different group. This reality reflects that there are schools operating with a very low number of students making the whole teaching process a little bit strange. Students of the shut down schools can then join other schools in the area. Under such a case and in order to ensure that all the children of the deprived area have access to the schools in the neighborhood, the government can hire its own shuttle system to transport students to the schools and back to their homes daily.

The researcher was highly convinced with the recommendation she advanced for merging small schools as the advantages came to be many: less costs, better equipped schools, in addition to the most important one: higher student achievement. Borland and Howsen (2003) found in their research that as school size increases at first, student achievement increases, for increase up to 760 students and decreases there after (p.470). Thus, by keeping this number in mind, the government can spell out a strategy for the merging plan.

Left with a smaller number of schools, the government has to work towards the amelioration of their physical conditions and the updating of their laboratories, libraries and other equipment safeguarding the smoothness of the teaching process and facilitating the implementation of the new curriculum. Whether the Ministry of Education will afford to repair and update these schools is a question of the new number of schools to be restored as well as of the annual budget allocated by the Lebanese government to the Ministry of Education and the priority that this ministry sets in spending this budget. However the researcher is too optimistic about the fact that if the Ministry's spending can not afford to cover all the required expenditures, schools can receive donations from other parties in the region in which they operate. These external parties could be municipalities, commercial banks and companies, wealthy people and others who are planning to become deputies. Those latters can spend a lot on donations, especially around the election period, to convince people about their kindness and thus motivating individuals to vote for them. Why not if these donations can be fruitful and directed toward the public schools! Moreover,

there are some municipalities in Lebanon that are rich due to the income they generate from the abundant factories or resorts operating within their geographical sites. These municipalities can use the excess funds to benefit the public schools operating in the area.

The researcher has a nice and costless plan for acquiring computers: Due to the fast and tremendous advancement in technology, many professionals have to update their computers and make them bigger and faster or replace them just to cope with the new softwares launched. Those old computers are viewed as obsolete by those professionals but might be considered good by the students of the intermediary schools whose dream is just to be introduced to this technology and to run few simple programs. The Government can work on a campaign advertising the benefit of those old computers to the public schools motivating those professionals to give them up.

In addition to the required tools, equipments, laboratories and libraries full of interesting books, schools have to be safe and hygienic. There were some cases that were raised on the TV revealing the miserable conditions in which some schools are operating; which attracted the attention of those associations concerned with the children's rights. They were mainly attracted by the case of the cemetery serving as a playground. Moreover, the researcher had the chance to have a look at different pictures taken by her husband (an architect) showing the real physical conditions of the public schools (his share was the North), through an assessment sponsored by the World Bank. The researcher was attracted by the pictures of the toilets which were at most of the places catastrophic. Her husband revealed that most of the Principals were not optimistic about this assessment as they said that this was not the first time this evaluation has been made; and no solutions have been implemented yet. What was amazing is the issue reported by one Principal in one of the Akkar's school (one casa in the North); he said "the school's playground was in an excellent condition, and once an entrepreneur appointed by the Council for Development and Reconstruction had had an order to restore it. I tried to convince him but, no way so he demolished it and then he repaired what he did. Believe me the new playground's condition is not as good as it was before". This case had triggered the madness of the researcher as; even though few dollars are available,

they are spent in the wrong place. What a waste! The researcher is calling for a greater control over the way the budget is being spent over the different functions in the Ministry of Education as to maximize the benefits earned by each dollar spent. Greater coordination among all the concerned parties is required.

In addition to what had been just recommended to improve the physical working conditions in the public schools, the researcher insisted on the importance of the availability of well furnished and fully equipped teachers' lounge. A place where teachers meet, collaborate and discuss academic matters is viewed as highly important to promote collegiality.

Satisfying teachers' demand by providing them with appropriate instructional support, better school facilities, adequate in-service training, and other forms of extrinsic motivators may help them to perform more effectively, which may in turn increase their level of enthusiasm and satisfaction, i.e. their intrinsic motivation (Abdo, 2000).

A pleasant physical surrounding is sometimes not expensive to handle. The importance that teachers in one high-performing school had placed on the impact of the multi colors flowers planted in the yard and the entrance, revealed that for a few dollars, all public schools can be colorful, pleasant and attractive. The researcher is convinced that there are many teachers in each school who will be motivated to take care of these flowers in their break time; this will relax them as it is a really joyful activity.

For those teachers that the researcher feels that they are not highly efficient in teaching anymore, due to their academic incompetence, and who did not resign in response to an appealing early retirement plan; the recommendation came to be simple: let them perform the administrative work of the schools.

4.1. A performance-related-pay system:

Teachers at the Lebanese public schools are currently paid for having experience and responsibility regardless of how well they have learned from experience, how

effectively they carry out the responsibility or how well they teach. The current single salary structure is predictable, has objective bases for salary increments, is simple to manage and is not subject to arbitrary or biased decision-making. However, it is no longer effective as it does not focus on results and does not offer incentives for lifelong professional development. Richardson (1999) argues that it is nonsense to believe that the only reward teachers are looking for is the intrinsic rewards from teaching; they want to be paid well like everyone else.

Some findings in this study, mainly when teachers reported their need for a system that rewards good performers and punishes bad ones, had triggered the researcher to suggest the creation of a more performance-oriented culture. A new reward system could be designed and implemented, to try to communicate what the Government and the community value and to stress that high levels of performance are required and will be paid for. It would be used as a lever for cultural change to create more performance-oriented schools and teachers, where pay is better related to the contribution individual make towards the achievement of school and system targets (Tomlinson, 2000).

At this point, the researcher felt that she was not at a stage to recommend a reward system and to spell out all its details. She suggested that something needs to be done but to answer the 'how' question, a further, larger-scale survey is to be conducted; enabling her or other researchers to design an effective reward system for the Lebanese situation, after taking into consideration what other countries and researchers abroad have reached.

4.2. Principals:

In Lebanon, like in many other countries, training is not a requirement for the appointment of a Principal, and "there is still an (often unwritten) assumption that good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation" (Bush and Jackson, 2002, p.418). However, the researcher argues that this assumption must be no more valid. The Ministry of Education must recognize the need for specific preparation for aspiring and practicing school leaders in order to reach the positive effects identified in the school effectiveness research. The

researcher's ambition is similar to that of England's National College for school Leadership (NCSL): "to ensure that our current and future school leaders develop the skills, the capability and capacity to lead and transform the school education system into the best in the world" (NCSL, 2001, p.2, quoted in Bush and Jackson, 2002, p.419).

Consequently, the recommendations advanced by the researcher came to be of both types: short-term and long-term. The short-term ones deal with the existing Principals while the long-term ones focus on the appointment of future Principals and the required conditions for this recruitment.

Special training sessions and seminars are to be held for the current Principals, covering two broad aspects of their job: curriculum and leadership. Principals are to be updated properly with the characteristics of the new curriculum enabling them to manage its implementation properly. Normally, Principals are considered as an instructional resource in the schools, thus, teachers have to have faith in the academic ability and skills of their Principals. And since the current Principals are not really outstanding with respect to the academic qualifications, shown in the highest degree they have earned, the CERD must work hard on upgrading their skills.

In addition to the purely academic role that Principals are playing, they have to assume managerial duties as well. They are the leaders of their schools, and being good in academic matters does not secure their success in leadership roles. The CERD has to recognize the importance of this reality and tailor special seminars, workshops and other activities to enhance the leadership skills of the current Principals, keeping in mind that those Principals were first teachers and none of them had a degree in educational management, a major somehow absent in the Lebanese Universities. The Commonwealth secretariat (1996) argues that "without the necessary skills, many heads are overwhelmed by the task" (quoted in Bush and Jackson 2002, p.418). Thus, there is a current need for working on strategies for training and supporting the Lebanese school heads, with the hope of adopting a better solution in the future. The researcher argues that this solution is to start with the Ministry of Education that has to recognize the need for faculties in the Lebanese Universities that offer programmes in educational management. Under such educational leadership programmes, an international curriculum for school

leadership preparation can be applied, where most of the courses focus on leadership including vision, mission, shaping school's culture, human resources professional development, curriculum as well as other external relations. These courses, discussing the relevant theories and research, constitute the frames of reference that guide leaders in the decision-making process (Bush, 1999). Theory, which may be regarded as distilled experience (Bush and Jackson, 2002), "is vital if decision-making is to be informed by publicly available knowledge about the issue, and not to be constrained by the boundaries of the leader's personal experience" (Bush, 1995, cited in Bush and Jackson, 2002). Thus, school leaders have to be aware of these theories and research, i.e., they have to undertake a degree in educational management. This degree is to be granted at postgraduate level as the complexity of the leadership role arguably requires high-order intellectual skills. The logic is that since teaching must be a graduate-level profession, further training will be required for the principalship, making the requirements to be at or near masters level (Bush & Jackson, 2002). "Advanced study and practice require the ability to develop understanding as well as knowledge and skills, and to go beyond description to analysis and synthesis" (Bush & Jackson, 2002, p.424).

For the current Principals, as well as for the future ones that the researcher expects them to be more professional, the researcher argues that there must be a kind of continuous mentoring. Mentoring, nowadays, can benefit from the information technology that is reached in the third millennium, and can be online. The on-line mentoring programmes have been already in use in my countries (Bush & Jackson, 2002). This kind of mentoring helps the heads to share their problems and find adequate solutions by taking fruitful advices from more experienced leaders.

Moreover, it keeps Principals updated with the most recent research conducted within their domain of interest, enabling them to assume the new strategies that are proved to lead to school improvement and effectiveness. Bush & Jackson (2002) argue that "there can be no single model of good practice but sharing ideas and plans provides rich potential for mutual learning" (p.427).

The already discussed recommendations dealt with the appointment of Principals, their academic qualifications and the strategies that must be implemented for

continuously updating their skills. The forthcoming ones deal with the Principal's role in motivating staff and establishing a positive organizational climate. Principals must:

- deal with equity with all the teachers under their supervision. Equity can be revealed, for instance, in the distribution of tasks over the different school's members, in the school's representation in the social events that are held in the surroundings.
- recognize the efforts of the outstanding and high-performing teachers. A simple 'thank you' costs nothing but its benefit is so high on teachers' motivation.
- help inspectors in assessing the performance of individual teachers. They don't have to hide some teachers' negative behaviours, as hiding such behaviours will have a bad impact on other teachers.
- establish and sustain a spirit of collegiality through emphasizing teamwork and encouraging high performers to act as mentors, making the school a professional environment and a place where isolation is forbidden.
- motivate teachers to declare their points of view and let them share in the decision-making process.
- keep an excellent relationship with the organizations in the surroundings, including banks, commercial firms and municipalities, as they have been found to be good financial sources for the school sometimes.
- motivate teachers, mainly low performers, to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the school.
- stimulate interest among teachers to view their work from new perspectives, especially with this new curriculum. Teachers are to be motivated to appreciate the advantages of the new curriculum, rather than feeling unable to cope with this change.

- keep the staff informed. Principals have to believe that resources, including information, are keys to the development of their schools. Good communication must not be left to chance as it enhances the spirit of togetherness. Thus, meetings are to be held regularly because they provide decision-making spaces and make information available to all. Gold et al. (2003) argue that meetings can be considered as "the visible manifestation of school leader's values system" (p.132).

A concluding recommendation was addressed to the Lebanese government to grant school leaders a greater flexibility and more control over their own activities, enabling them to exercise leadership over the values and direction of schooling and consequently minimizing the level of 'bastard leadership' that Wright (2001) has discussed. He notes: "leadership as the moral and value underpinning for the direction of schools is being removed from those who work here. It is now very substantially located at the political level where it is not available for contestation, modification or adjustment to local variations" (p.280).

the researcher argues that this recommendation is important but its application becomes highly emergent when the Principals in the Lebanese public schools become highly prepared in terms of academic and managerial qualifications in addition to other in-service training; increasing the sources of ideas and inspiration that those leaders can turn to in the course of undertaking their work. Thus, and a later stage, when the quality of people's preparedness for leadership positions is enhanced; school leaders have to avoid doing 'bastard leadership' by mediating government policy through their own value systems (Gold et al., 2003).

However, what is required meanwhile is to forbid the intervention of politicians who, most of the time, do favor to their followers on the account of the educational quality in the Lebanese public schools. A common example is the transfer of teachers to other schools just because they are closer to their homes; even though those teachers end up doing nothing simply because these schools do not need them. Under such circumstances, Principals feel paralyzed as they are unable to confront those superiors' will. These issues are no more acceptable!

A concluding remark is that it is time for the Lebanese government to realize the need for leadership centers to sponsor research to identify and disseminate good practice (Bush and Jackson, 2002).

5. The researcher's personal reflection:

Even though the researcher had conducted one research before, for her Master's degree; however, it was not as interesting, important and fruitful as this research. She was really proud of what this research had added to her repertoire. The most important feature of such an experience is that it lets you live and experience yourself many issues discussed by authors, mainly in research methodology. For instance, the researcher was not originally convinced by the many advantages that result from piloting the research instruments, until she did: she piloted her instruments not only once, but twice. First she thought that she could be so wise and intelligent in constructing the instruments as to let piloting be not as useful as other authors have argued. However the results of the pilot studies were more than great in stressing the importance of such studies in revealing many points which refinement deemed necessary to secure the instruments' face and construct validities.

After this research, the researcher found that her research abilities were enhanced. She acquired the required skills for constructing, piloting and handling the research instruments as well as for coding and analyzing the data. Analyzing the quantitative data was the big challenge: she thought first that many statisticians in the university where she teaches could help her, however when she asked them to guide her, she was really shocked with their answers that came to be: "to help, you have to publish an article and to put my name as a co-author". After such replies, the researcher decided to defy what was facing her: with her limited statistical knowledge, she started to read and read about statistics and SPSS. Then, she found herself able to select and do the statistical tests required to analyze her data. Thanks God! The lesson was obvious: "when you decide, you can reach your goal" i.e. "when there is a will, there is a way", in addition to the great happiness that accompanied the achievement.

The researcher argues that the next research will be easier than this one and it will take her less time, as she had been introduced to and is now aware of what might face a researcher in his/her journey. She expects to surpass in the future the difficulties that had faced her in this study: nothing is worse more than learning from one own's experience.

Furthermore, the researcher has an important message to say after this experience: you never know the answers to your research questions. Many people believe that research is not as useful as it seems, as sometimes, the answers could be predicted in advance. This is true especially in some cultures where people are not used to such studies. The researcher confronted this issue from few leaders in the Ministry of Education when she tried to get an official permission to access the public schools in Lebanon. For instance, they believed that they know what the teachers' needs are, when in fact, the results of the research could be surprising. The researcher has learned that each research adds something new to the already existing references, and the results can not be predicted.

Moreover, the researcher learned the importance of being organized in doing a better job and saving time. A researcher is normally overwhelmed with a huge number of articles and books in which he/she has to look for something of interest to him/her. If these references are not well organized, the researcher ends up loosing time doing nothing useful: searching for an issue he/she read it before but lost in the big mass of papers. The researcher stressed also the efficiency of preparing the bibliography while writing the text; because if it is to be kept till the end, the researcher will end up loosing his/her mind. At the very early stages of this research, the researcher did not pay attention to the importance of this matter due to her lack of experience in doing research. Then, she realized that there was no way to continue like this, and she started to organize her bibliography at time.

Finally, the researcher would like to stress the importance of a quality she gained after this experience and which is 'patience'. She knew that patience has to accompany each work; consequently its quality will be enhanced and its impact on the individual's satisfaction will be maximized. Now the researcher is much more patient than before and she is really appreciating this newly acquired virtue.

Appendices

Appendix A
The Teacher Questionnaire

Informed Consent

My name is Dorine Mattar Haddad and I am a Ph.D. student at The University of Leicester, U.K. I am conducting research on the effects of the school principal's leadership style on teachers' motivation. The purpose of this research is to focus on the importance of motivation in the daily effective performance of teachers and to find out the characteristics of the principal's leadership style that when adopted, creates a motivating environment in the school. The results of the study will help the Lebanese educational authorities find out the teachers' needs and the principals' leadership skills required to secure a brighter educational future.

Your answers are important to me. The questionnaire will take you approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. The questionnaire includes no identifying information about any individual. I do not want you to put your name on the questionnaire. Any data that identifies you by name or phone number will be destroyed upon completion of this project. Your identity will be kept confidential.

If you choose to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without prejudice or repercussion. If, at any time, there are questions about the procedure, contact me at 06-952117. If you would like to participate, please read the following statement and sign it.

I have read the procedure described above. I agree to participate in this research and I have received a copy of this description.

_____ _____
Participant's Signature Date

_____ _____
Principal Investigator's Signature Date

Ref: / / / /

The statements on this form are about motivation in the daily performance of schoo!teachers and characteristics of the principal's leadership style in it. Please answer each question by yourself as carefully and honestly as you can. PLEASE DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THIS FORM. Once you have handed it in, nobody will know that this is your form.

If you have any question or comments, please do not hesitate to call me on 06-952117.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Dorine Mattar Haddad, Ph.D. Candidate, University of Leicester, U.K

Part A : Biographical section

Please circle as appropriate.

Personal biography

1- Gender:
1. Male 2. Female

2- Marital Status:
1. single 2. married 3. divorced 4. widow

3- Age: What is your age group?

1. 29 and less 2. 30-39 years 3. 40-49 years 4. 50 or over

4- Income: What is your annual income in US$? (From teaching only)

1.4,999 or below
2.5,000-9,999
3.10,000-14,999
4.15,000-19,999
5.20,000-24,999
6.25,000- 29,999

5- Father's level of education:

1. University education level with a Degree
2. University education level, without a Degree
3. Baccalaureate
4. Intermediate or Technical
5. Primary
6. Did not enter the school

6- Mother's level of education:

1. University education level with a Degree
2. University education level, without a Degree
3. Baccalaureate
4. Intermediate or Technical
5. Primary
6. Did not enter the school

Professional biography

7- Degree: What is the highest degree do you currently hold? (Please circle as appropriate)

1. MA.
2. BA / BSc.
3. Teaching Diploma
4. Dar el- Moalimeen
5. Baccalaureate
6. Technical
7. Brevet
8. Others, please specify_____

8- Area of Specialty: What is your area of specialty?

1. Humanities
2. Sciences
3. Math
4. History/ Geography
5. Arts/ physical education
6. General
7. Nursery
8. Others _____

9- Number of years in teaching: Please circle the total number of years you have spent in teaching.

1. 1-5 years
2. 6-10 years
3. 11-15 years
4. 16-20 years
5. above 21 years

10- Number of years in teaching under *current principal:*

1. 1-5 years
2. 6-10 years
3. 11-15 years
4. above 16 years

11- Supplementary Income:
Do you perform any other job in the afternoons in order to increase your monthly income?

1. Yes
2. No *(if no, move to the following page)*

12- Type of work

1. Teaching
2. Apprenticeship
3. Trade
4. Others :_____

Part B

In the items below, please describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your principal. Please circle from 1 to 5:

1 = SD = strongly disagree,

2 = D = disagree,

3 = N = neutral,

4 = A = agree,

5 = SA = strongly agree

My principal :

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. provides positive support	1	2	3	4	5
2. creates an environment motivating to learning	1	2	3	4	5
3. protects instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
4. stresses academic standards	1	2	3	4	5
5. maintains high visibility	1	2	3	4	5
6. maintains a spirit of collegiality	1	2	3	4	5
7. offers staff opportunity to participate in professional development	1	2	3	4	5
8. maintains firm discipline	1	2	3	4	5
9. distributes tasks among teachers efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
10. shares and helps the teachers in lessons preparation	1	2	3	4	5
11. makes frequent classroom observations	1	2	3	4	5
12. provides feedback to teachers regarding class performance	1	2	3	4	5
13. promotes new instructional practices	1	2	3	4	5
14. evaluates teachers achievement	1	2	3	4	5

15. controls students progress	1	2	3	4	5
16. serves as an instructional resource in the school	1	2	3	4	5

Part C

The following items are designed to provide information about teacher motivation. Please complete this questionnaire as carefully and frankly as possible. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers. It is your perception and honest opinion in which I am most interested.

Please rate the statements below from 1 to 5:

1 = SD = strongly disagree

2 = D = disagree

3 = N = neutral

4 = A = agree

5 = SA = strongly agree

I am motivated in my present work by:

	SD	D	N	A	SA
17. Salary	1	2	3	4	5
18. promotion	1	2	3	4	5
19. Fringe benefits	1	2	3	4	5
20. Job security	1	2	3	4	5
21. Training	1	2	3	4	5
22. Facilities such as computers, library and Laboratories	1	2	3	4	5
23. long holidays	1	2	3	4	5
24. Support I receive from my principal	1	2	3	4	5
25. sense of equality I perceive among all staff members	1	2	3	4	5
26. good administration	1	2	3	4	5
27. friendly atmosphere and social interaction with my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
28. sense of belonging and teamwork present at my school	1	2	3	4	5
29. good social standing offered by teaching	1	2	3	4	5

30. recognition I receive from my principal	1	2	3	4	5
31. Appreciation from students & their parents	1	2	3	4	5
32. Appreciation from my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
33. chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	1	2	3	4	5
34. participation I make in the decision-making process in this school	1	2	3	4	5
35. The great deal of control I can exercise over my own work activities	1	2	3	4	5
36. professional growth opportunities available to me	1	2	3	4	5
37. feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	1	2	3	4	5
38. The way I make change among students	1	2	3	4	5
39. Personal commitment to teaching	1	2	3	4	5
40. ability of trying out methods of my own when teaching & being creative	1	2	3	4	5
41. the progress of curriculum reform	1	2	3	4	5
42. The process of school restructuring	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B
The semi- structured interview

1- Discuss the three main problems that you think are facing the Lebanese public schools.

2- Discuss the three main problems that you think are facing the teachers in the Lebanese public schools.

3- Indicate in order the advantages of being a teacher in the public sector.

4- Indicate in order the three factors affecting most your willingness to come to school daily and perform your job.

5- Indicate in order the three missing factors that, if they were present in your current job, lead to higher job motivation.

6- Indicate in order the qualities that you like most in your principal's managerial style.

7- Indicate in order the qualities that you dislike most in your principal's managerial style.

8- Comment briefly on the following terms: are they available in your school? Do they motivate you?

- Recognition (from principal, colleagues, students, parents)
- Collegiality
- Professional growth
- Participation in the decision-making
- Facilities (computers, laboratories, library...)

9- Discuss the three main factors that are present in your school and have led to the excellent/bad results that your students are achieving in the official examinations?

Appendix C

1- Tables supplied by the CERD describing the physical conditions of the Lebanese intermediate public schools in 2002:

Table 1

Mouhafaza	the total # of the lebanese intermediate public schools
Beirut	29
Beirut suburbs	63
Mount Lebanon	129
North Lebanon	236
Al-Bekaa	150
South Lebanon	80
Al-Nabatie	74
Total	761

Table 2

Mouhafaza	number of buildings per one school				
	one building	two	three	four	Total # of schools
Beirut	25	4			29
Beirut suburbs	56	4	2	1	63
Mount Lebanon	104	19	5	1	129
North Lebanon	189	36	7	4	236
Al-Bekaa	123	20	6	1	150
South Lebanon	65	14	1		80
Al-Nabatie	61	11	2		74
Total	**623**	**108**	**23**	**7**	**761**
percentage	**82%**	**14%**	**3%**	**1%**	**100%**

Table 3

Mouhafaza	school's architecture			
	school-based architecture	house-based architecture	unidentified	Total # of schools
Beirut	16	13		29
Beirut suburbs	44	19		63
Mount Lebanon	72	56	1	129
North Lebanon	136	96	4	236
Al-Bekaa	116	34		150
South Lebanon	70	10		80
Al-Nabatie	67	7		74
Total	**521**	**235**	**5**	**761**
percentage	**68%**	**31%**	**1%**	**100%**

Table 4

Mouhafaza	population density in the school's surrounding				
	high	moderate	low	unidentified	Total
Beirut	28	4	1	0	33
Beirut suburbs	43	27	4	0	74
Mount Lebanon	23	98	39	1	161
North Lebanon	104	150	41	3	298
Al-Bekaa	32	100	51	2	185
South Lebanon	23	43	29	1	96
Al-Nabatie	20	44	24	1	89
Total	**273**	**466**	**189**	**8**	**936**
percentage	**29%**	**50%**	**20%**	**1%**	**100%**

Table 5

Mouhafaza	Noise in the school's surrounding				
	high	moderate	low	unidentified	Total
Beirut	16	14	2	1	33
Beirut suburbs	22	31	21	0	74
Mount Lebanon	13	52	94	2	161
North Lebanon	48	76	172	2	298
Al-Bekaa	15	57	113	0	185
South Lebanon	17	28	49	2	96
Al-Nabatie	19	27	41	2	89
Total	**150**	**285**	**492**	**9**	**936**
percentage	**16%**	**30%**	**53%**	**1%**	**100%**

Table 6

Mouhafaza	Pollution in the school's surrounding				
	high	moderate	low	unidentified	Total
Beirut	7	10	15	1	33
Beirut suburbs	9	28	37	0	74
Mount Lebanon	5	24	129	3	161
North Lebanon	25	42	227	4	298
Al-Bekaa	8	29	148	0	185
South Lebanon	9	12	74	1	96
Al-Nabatie	7	5	75	2	89
Total	**70**	**150**	**705**	**11**	**936**
percentage	**7%**	**16%**	**75%**	**2%**	**100%**

Table 7

Mouhafaza	Fence				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	21	8	1	3	33
Beirut suburbs	45	19	1	9	74
Mount Lebanon	75	38	4	44	161
North Lebanon	181	39	6	72	298
Al-Bekaa	115	34	9	27	185
South Lebanon	72	15	1	8	96
Al-Nabatie	58	22	0	9	89
Total	**567**	**175**	**22**	**172**	**936**
percentage	**61%**	**18.7%**	**2.3%**	**18%**	**100%**

Table 8

Mouhafaza	Central heating System				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	0	1	0	32	33
Beirut suburbs	1	0	0	73	74
Mount Lebanon	19	14	4	124	161
North Lebanon	12	5	2	279	298
Al-Bekaa	13	17	3	152	185
South Lebanon	2	0	0	94	96
Al-Nabatie	10	2	0	77	89
Total	**57**	**39**	**9**	**831**	**936**
percentage	**6%**	**4%**	**1%**	**89%**	**100%**

Table 9

Mouhafaza	other heating facilities				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	1	1	0	31	33
Beirut suburbs	9	6	1	58	74
Mount Lebanon	86	26	18	31	161
North Lebanon	201	2	6	89	298
Al-Bekaa	138	6	22	19	185
South Lebanon	31	4	4	57	96
Al-Nabatie	60	3	1	25	89
Total	**526**	**48**	**52**	**310**	**936**

Table 10

Mouhafaza	Clean water				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	29	2	1	1	33
Beirut suburbs	43	12	4	15	74
Mount Lebanon	100	13	20	28	161
North Lebanon	181	14	21	82	298
Al-Bekaa	118	23	14	30	185
South Lebanon	81	7	1	7	96
Al-Nabatie	75	9	0	5	89
Total	**627**	**80**	**61**	**168**	**936**
percentage	**67%**	**8.5%**	**6.5%**	**18%**	**100%**

Table 11

Mouhafaza	Electricity				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	29	3	1	0	33
Beirut suburbs	60	12	1	1	74
Mount Lebanon	128	17	9	7	161
North Lebanon	257	20	14	7	298
Al-Bekaa	131	40	10	4	185
South Lebanon	81	9	6	0	96
Al-Nabatie	75	7	3	4	89
Total	**761**	**108**	**44**	**23**	**936**
percentage	**81%**	**11.5%**	**5%**	**2.5%**	**100%**

Table 12

Mouhafaza	Telephone				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	29	0	0	4	33
Beirut suburbs	64	2	0	8	74
Mount Lebanon	85	2	0	74	161
North Lebanon	172	2	2	122	298
Al-Bekaa	96	1	1	87	185
South Lebanon	45	0	0	51	96
Al-Nabatie	30	0	0	59	89
Total	**521**	**7**	**3**	**405**	**936**
percentage	**56%**	**1%**		**43%**	**100%**

Table 13

Mouhafaza	Open playground				
	good or not bad	to be repaired	to be changed	not available	Total
Beirut	1	0	0	32	33
Beirut suburbs	3	0	0	71	74
Mount Lebanon	29	9	1	122	161
North Lebanon	47	6	2	243	298
Al-Bekaa	26	8	0	151	185
South Lebanon	20	0	0	76	96
Al-Nabatie	8	1	0	80	89
Total	**134**	**24**	**3**	**775**	**936**
percentage	**14%**	**3%**		**83%**	**100%**

Table 14

Mouhafaza	Gymnasium		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	7	26	33
Beirut suburbs	7	67	74
Mount Lebanon	12	149	161
North Lebanon	23	275	298
Al-Bekaa	2	183	185
South Lebanon	16	80	96
Al-Nabatie	9	80	89
Total	**76**	**860**	**936**
percentage	**8%**	**92%**	**100%**

Table 15

Mouhafaza	multi-purpose laboratory		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	24	9	33
Beirut suburbs	38	36	74
Mount Lebanon	79	82	161
North Lebanon	118	180	298
Al-Bekaa	67	118	185
South Lebanon	46	50	96
Al-Nabatie	47	42	89
Total	**419**	**517**	**936**
percentage	**45%**	**55%**	**100%**

Table 16

Mouhafaza	Art's workshop		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	6	27	33
Beirut suburbs	1	73	74
Mount Lebanon	7	154	161
North Lebanon	3	295	298
Al-Bekaa	4	181	185
South Lebanon	2	94	96
Al-Nabatie	1	88	89
Total	**24**	**912**	**936**
percentage	**3%**	**97%**	**100%**

Table 17

Mouhafaza	Technology's workshop		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	9	24	33
Beirut suburbs	4	70	74
Mount Lebanon	10	151	161
North Lebanon	19	279	298
Al-Bekaa	9	176	185
South Lebanon	15	81	96
Al-Nabatie	5	84	89
Total	**71**	**865**	**936**
percentage	**7.6%**	**92.4%**	**100%**

Table 18

Mouhafaza	Computer laboratory		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	6	27	33
Beirut suburbs	7	67	74
Mount Lebanon	36	125	161
North Lebanon	46	252	298
Al-Bekaa	7	178	185
South Lebanon	24	72	96
Al-Nabatie	11	78	89
Total	**137**	**799**	**936**
percentage	**15%**	**85%**	**100%**

Table 19

Mouhafaza	Principal's office		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	28	5	33
Beirut suburbs	55	19	74
Mount Lebanon	109	52	161
North Lebanon	190	108	298
Al-Bekaa	146	39	185
South Lebanon	69	27	96
Al-Nabatie	67	22	89
Total	**664**	**272**	**936**
percentage	**71%**	**29%**	**100%**

Table 20

Mouhafaza	Teacher's lounge		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	26	7	33
Beirut suburbs	53	21	74
Mount Lebanon	110	51	161
North Lebanon	152	146	298
Al-Bekaa	115	70	185
South Lebanon	66	30	96
Al-Nabatie	60	29	89
Total	**582**	**354**	**936**
percentage	**62%**	**38%**	**100%**

Table 21

Mouhafaza	Waiting area		
	available	not available	Total
Beirut	31	2	33
Beirut suburbs	54	20	74
Mount Lebanon	82	79	161
North Lebanon	141	157	298
Al-Bekaa	90	95	185
South Lebanon	72	24	96
Al-Nabatie	56	33	89
Total	**526**	**410**	**936**
percentage	**56%**	**44%**	**100%**

Table 22

Mouhafaza	W.C for students(total)		
	good or not bad	to be repaired	no way to repair it
Beirut	153	220	0
Beirut suburbs	351	392	0
Mount Lebanon	481	419	13
North Lebanon	1400	618	41
Al-Bekaa	563	559	47
South Lebanon	737	214	14
Al-Nabatie	609	186	15
Total	**4294**	**2608**	**130**
percentage	**61%**	**37%**	**2%**

Table 23

Mouhafaza	W.C for teachers (total)		
	good or not bad	to be repaired	no way to repair it
Beirut	68	24	2
Beirut suburbs	138	51	17
Mount Lebanon	192	73	1
North Lebanon	496	139	46
Al-Bekaa	207	103	27
South Lebanon	260	30	0
Al-Nabatie	227	28	0
Total	**1588**	**448**	**93**
percentage	**75%**	**21%**	**4%**

Table 24

	Owned by the								
Mouhafaza	**Government**	**Municipality**	**an individual**	**Donation**	**Gov + Donation**	**Mun. + Donation**	**Ind. + Donation**	**Not specified**	**Total**
Beirut	1		27	1					29
Beirut suburbs	4		50	1	1	5	2		63
Mont Lebanon	24	5	73	4	1	5	14	3	129
North Lebanon	49	4	120	9		5	43	6	236
Al Bekaa	67	5	34	2		10	32		150
South Lebanon	45	3	16		3	4	7	2	50
Nabatie	51	1	8	1	3	3	6	1	74
Total	**241**	**18**	**328**	**18**	**8**	**32**	**104**	**12**	**761**
%	**31.7%**	**2.4%**	**43.1%**	**2.4%**	**1.05%**	**4.2%**	**13.7%**	**1.6%**	**100%**

2- Descriptive Statistics

GENDER

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	male	38	18.8
	female	164	81.2
	Total	202	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		203	

Marital status

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	single	35	17.4
	married	156	77.6
	divorced	2	1.0
	widow	8	4.0
	Total	201	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		203	

Age

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	29 and less	15	7.5
	30-39 years	18	9.0
	40-49 years	81	40.3
	50 and over	87	43.3
	Total	201	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		203	

Income

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	4,999 or below	26	12.9
	5,000- 9,999	106	52.5
	10,000- 14,999	66	32.7
	15,000- 19,999	4	2.0
	Total	202	100.0
Missing	System	1	
Total		203	

Father's level of education

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	university education with a degree	5	2.5
	university education without a degree	15	7.4
	baccalaureate	24	11.8
	intermediate or technical	41	20.2
	primary	107	52.7
	did not enter the school	11	5.4
Total		203	100.0

Mother's level of education

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	university education without a degree	5	2.5
	baccalaureate	15	7.4
	intermediate or technical	38	18.7
	primary	114	56.2
	did not enter the school	31	15.3
Total		203	100.0

Degree

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	MA	10	4.9
	BA / BSc	9	4.4
	teaching diploma	35	17.2
	Dar el-Moalimeen	88	43.3
	Baccalaureate	49	24.1
	Technical	1	.5
	Brevet	11	5.4
Total		203	100.0

Area of specialty

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Humanities	56	28.6
	Sciences	18	9.2
	Math	23	11.7
	History/ Geography	9	4.6
	Arts/ physical education	17	8.7
	General	47	24.0
	Nursery	22	11.2
	others	4	2.0
	Total	196	100.0
Missing	System	7	
Total		203	

Number of years in teaching

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	1-5 years	12	5.9
	6-10 years	15	7.4
	11- 15 years	6	3.0
	16- 20 years	17	8.4
	above 21 years	153	75.4
Total		203	100.0

3- Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	father's level of education		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: MEEXTRI

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.185[a]	.034	.029	1.0270

a. Predictors: (Constant), father's level of education

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.118	1	7.118	6.749	.010[a]
	Residual	201.449	191	1.055		
	Total	208.567	192			

a. Predictors: (Constant), father's level of education

b. Dependent Variable: MEEXTRI

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.581	.285		9.055	.000
	father's level of education	.167	.064	.185	2.598	.010

a. Dependent Variable: MEEXTRI

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

a. Dependent Variable: MEFULFIL

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

a. Dependent Variable: MEATMOS

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

a. Dependent Variable: MECURRIC

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

a. Dependent Variable: MERECOGN

Regression

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	marital status	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	GENDER	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: MEGROWTH

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.259[a]	.067	.062	.9765
2	.294[b]	.086	.077	.9689

a. Predictors: (Constant), marital status

b. Predictors: (Constant), marital status, GENDER

ANOVA[c]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.067	1	13.067	13.705	.000[a]
	Residual	181.162	190	.953		
	Total	194.229	191			
2	Regression	16.795	2	8.398	8.945	.000[b]
	Residual	177.434	189	.939		
	Total	194.229	191			

a. Predictors: (Constant), marital status

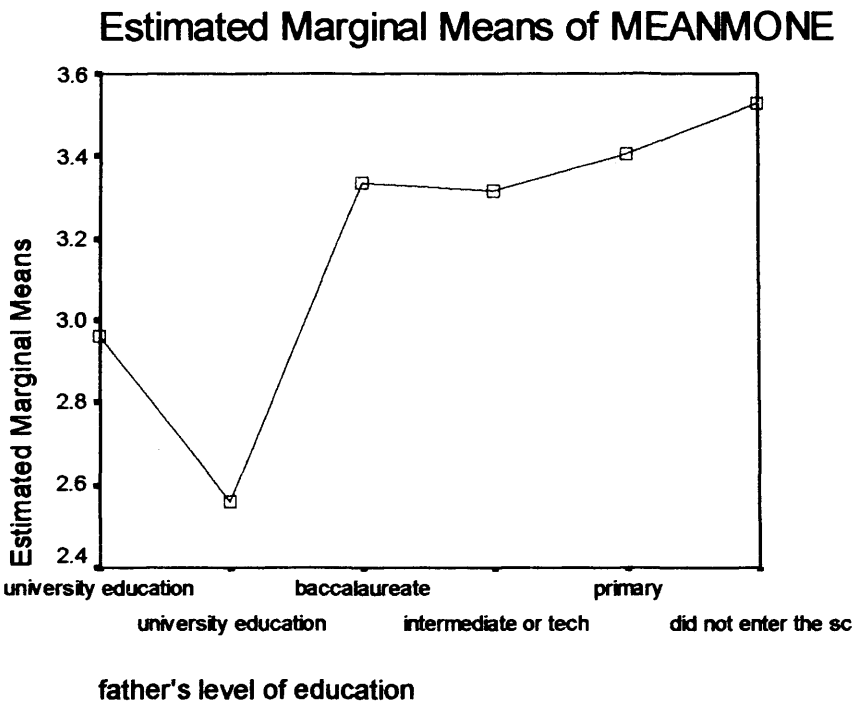
b. Predictors: (Constant), marital status, GENDER

c. Dependent Variable: MEGROWTH

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.524	.238		10.609	.000
	marital status	.440	.119	.259	3.702	.000
2	(Constant)	1.868	.405		4.615	.000
	marital status	.435	.118	.256	3.684	.000
	GENDER	.365	.183	.139	1.993	.048

a. Dependent Variable: MEGROWTH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Estimated Marginal Means
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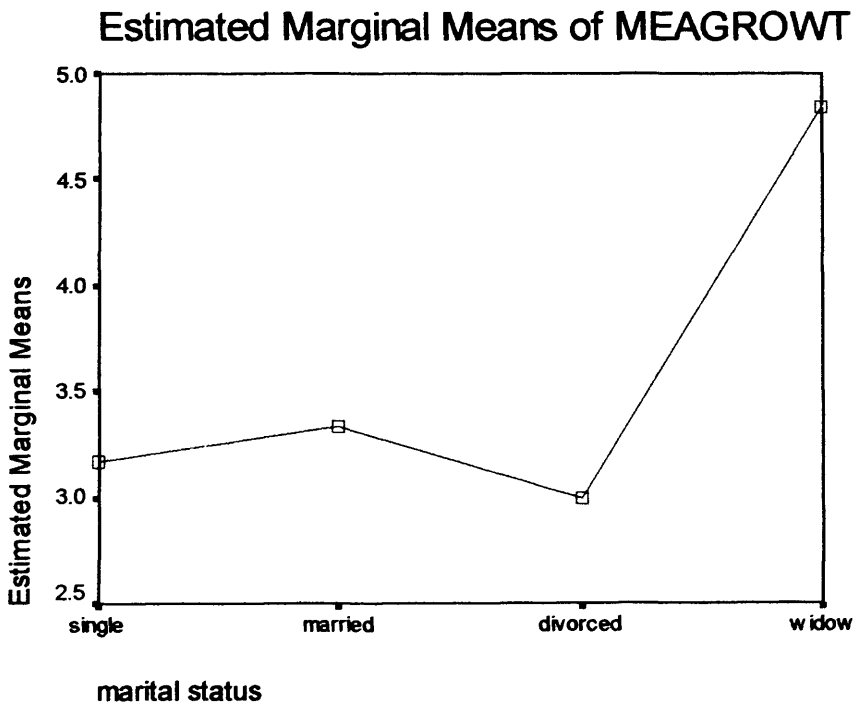
3.4
3.2
3.0
2.8
2.6
2.4
university education
baccalaureate
primary
university education
intermediate or tech
did not enter the sc
father's level of education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Estimated Marginal Means
5.0
4.5
4.0
3.5
3.0
2.5
single
married
divorced
widow
marital status

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