Vision, Resistance, and Partnership: Navigating Organisational Change in K-12 Education

by

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Abstract

This thesis delves into the pivotal role of teachers in effectuating organisational change within K-12 educational settings. The study hinges on the premise that while teachers are at the forefront of implementing change, they are often sidelined in the decision-making processes, leading to a disconnect between policy and practice. This disconnect not only fosters resistance but also undermines the efficacy of change initiatives. By exploring the nuanced interplay between teachers' resistance and a leader's vision for change through teachers' lens, this quantitative research illuminates the complexities involved in educational reform. It underscores the necessity of involving teachers as active partners in the change process, not merely as executors of top-down initiatives.

Employing a comprehensive survey methodology, where 466 participant teachers from Alberta, other regions of Canada, and Egypt were surveyed, the research captures insights from a diverse cohort of K-12 teachers across various jurisdictions, both within and outside Canada. The findings reveal a profound impact of leadership practices on the success of change initiatives. Specifically, the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)-Observer section provides a unique lens into teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles, highlighting a direct correlation between inclusive leadership and reduced resistance to change. The study concludes with a call for a paradigm shift in leadership approaches, advocating for a more collaborative, transparent, and inclusive process that recognizes teachers as integral stakeholders in educational change. This approach, the thesis argues, is instrumental in bridging the existing gap between leadership vision and teachers' buy-in, ultimately paving the way for more sustainable and effective educational reforms.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Organisational change in educational institutions, necessitated by the exigencies of contemporary societal challenges is undeniable. A preponderance of these change initiatives, however, is predisposed to failure. Beer and Nohria (2000) contended that an alarming 70% of change efforts are unsuccessful (p. 133), attributing this predominately to managerial decision-making. Similarly, Kotter (2007) posits that the ineffectiveness of change often originates from a leader's inability to galvanize a coalition or engender sufficient momentum for transformation. The insufficiency of the coalition, coupled with an ambiguous vision, are primary contributors to this failure. Kotter (2007) emphasizes the indispensability of a "sound vision" for the fruition of transformation. The propensity for employee resistance increases in response to nebulous leadership vision, thereby jeopardizing the change initiative (Northouse, 2019). This study aims to explore the relationship between leadership vision and employee resistance to change.

Reflecting on my professional trajectory as a teacher and a lead teacher, I have been privy to the nuances of employee resistance to change. Resistance, I observed, is seldom an objection to the entirety of a change initiative or a philosophical opposition to change per se. Rather, the quality of the relationship between employees and leadership is a critical determinant of this resistance (Middleton, Harvey, & Esaki, 2015). This inquiry is an exploration of workplace resistance to leadership vision from the employees' perspective, defining "resistance" as an ethical and strategic stance of active refusal to participate in one's subjugation or that of others (Agócs, 1997). While the discourse traverses the broader conceptual terrain of resistance, the focal point remains workplace resistance to change.

The dynamics of power and resistance are integral to comprehending organisational interactions. Foucault (1995) posits a theoretical framework wherein resistance is understood as a concurrent phenomenon with the exercise of power. Power endeavors to cultivate disciplined, rational, and productive individuals, whereas resistance manifests as a counterforce to the subjectivity imposed by power, often perceived as inequitable. At the collective echelon, power orchestrates a stratified, hierarchical organisational milieu, while at the individual stratum, it aims to mold an array of impulses and desires into a competent employee. In this context, power inadvertently engenders its counterforce: resistance. Foucault (1995) provides a comprehensive view of resistance, detailing it as an array of responses that manifest in opposition to the exertion of power by authoritative entities. The dialectic between power and resistance remains an uncharted domain. This study explores the precipitating factors for resistance to authority and the structural dynamics of dissent movements. It postulates that resistance is not an innate response but a consequence of escalating discontent with authoritative practices. The study hypothesizes that the intricacies of interactions between leadership and employees, and inter-employee relations, are pivotal in deciphering the resistance phenomenon.

This research further hypothesizes that resistance originates at the individual level, potentially culminating in a collective stance against the leadership's vision. Various elements influence the solidarity among resisters and the evolution of this opposition into a collective movement. When leadership misconstrues the employees' reasons for dissent and underestimates their collective strength and alliances, the opposition movement gains traction, thereby attracting more participants. This momentum significantly empowers the opposition, enabling a more formidable challenge to the leadership's vision, consequently imperiling the change initiative.

Resistance to Change: General Scope

Resistance emerges as a primary factor in the unsuccessful outcomes of change initiatives, compelling leaders to delve into the motivations behind followers' opposition to the leader's vision. The obscurity or unattainability of the vision set forth by educational leaders is also a contributing factor to the failure of change (Kotter, 2007). In multicultural environments, the essence of communication escalates, and the dynamics between leadership and followers become increasingly complex (Ryan, 2018), presenting additional hurdles in the conveyance of the leader's vision. Consequently, followers are more prone to resist a vision that they perceive as unclear or enigmatic (Northouse, 2019).

The literature offers diverse interpretations of resistance. Zander (1950) defines resistance to change as behaviour "which is intended to protect an individual from the effects of real or imagined change" (p. 9). The concept is also understood as a response to the uncertainty that change brings. Dent and Goldberg (1999) posit a view akin to my observations, suggesting that individuals within an organisation do not resist change but are hesitant to embrace a change initiative wholeheartedly. The sources of resistance can range from fear of the unknown, an enigmatic vision, perceived authoritarian leadership, or impractical ideas. Zander's (1950) definition implies that resistance is an emotional response aimed at challenging the leader's authority and seeking protection. In contrast, Dent and Goldberg (1999) contend that resistance is fundamentally a cognitive construct, which informs and determines behaviours. This highlights the significance of reciprocal influences in the development of collective cognitive frameworks of resistance within an organisational context.

In organisational contexts, individuals often pursue solidarity, resulting in collective resistance that manifests in various forms and intensities. Kotter (2007) contends that individual resistance is uncommon. Based on my professional experiences, collective resistance begins with shared concerns about the leader's vision, its clarity, attainability, perceived fairness, or feasibility. Kotter's (2007) perspective suggests that resistance is not always a direct challenge but can potentially enrich the change initiative by adding new dimensions. This necessitates that leaders dissect the reasons behind resistance, comprehend the opposition's nature, and collaborate closely with followers to craft a more inclusive change plan.

The situational approach to leadership emphasizes the adjustment of leadership styles to match the competence and commitment of followers (Northouse, 2019). A key aspect of this approach is the developmental level of employees, which pertains to their competence and commitment to achieve a specific task (Blanchard et al., 2013, as cited in Northouse, 2019, p. 98). Similarly, the path-goal theory underscores the leader's adaptability in style to suit the characteristics of followers and the work environment (Northouse, 2019). Both theories highlight the developmental level of employees, which can significantly influence the emergence of resistance. For instance, Northouse (2019) posits that individuals new to their professional roles, characterized by their enthusiasm, may necessitate a reduced level of directive intervention and are thus likely to demonstrate a lower propensity for resistance.

As followers interact and express their discontent with a leader's vision, their collective resistance solidifies and intensifies. The escalation and gradation of this resistance are crucial in strengthening opposition to the leader's vision. Understanding resistance from the followers' standpoint can provide leaders with valuable insights into their concerns, aiding in the refinement

of the vision and approach to change. This study aims to provide an insight into an improved interactive relationship between educational leaders and their constituents, thereby facilitating more effective communication of the leader's vision and increasing the constituents' openness to change.

Resistance can also arise from a preference for the status quo over the unfamiliar. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) describe resistance as "any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo" (p. 63). This definition reflects more on the concerns about the circumstances surrounding change than a fear of change itself. Resistance may stem from a lack of preparedness, an enigmatic leader, or the impracticality of the change in the specific context of their work environment. It may also grow in situations where the leader-subordinate relationship is ineffective, the leader is perceived as unjust, or the leader's credibility is in question. Furthermore, resistance is likely when employees face a conflict between self-interest, self-esteem, or personal values and the change initiative. Collective resistance becomes more potent if the leader misunderstands the dynamics of follower interactions and power structures.

Comprehending resistance necessitates an unpacking of its conceptual foundations. Piderit (2000) suggests that resistance can be understood through three lenses: cognitive, emotional, and behavioural. While various theorists consider resistance primarily an attitude (e.g., Moutousi & May, 2018; Baaz et al., 2016), this study focuses on resistance as behaviour. Piderit (2000) acknowledges that these categories intersect but also diverge in meaningful ways. Understanding these aspects can help leaders decipher employees' responses to organisational

change, reflecting concerns about the change initiative itself (cognitive), and emphasizing the "emotional component" of resistance, which manifests as a defense against perceived oppression.

Resistance to Change in Educational Contexts

In the context of educational institutions, resistance to change assumes a heightened complexity, primarily due to the intrinsic challenges in persuading educators to alter established routines and methodologies they trust and are comfortable with. Terhart (2013) observes that teachers tend to resist change particularly when it is perceived as imposed, when the proposed alterations are nebulous, or when their professional judgment, honed by experience and confidence, leads them to doubt the efficacy of the changes. It is crucial to understand that teachers do not typically resist the notion of change in principle. Their resistance more often targets ambiguous visions or stems from a lack of robust rapport with leadership, or negative perceptions of those proposing change. The career stage of a teacher also significantly influences their propensity to challenge a leader's vision. This research posits that a teacher's developmental stage, particularly their years of experience, plays a mediating role in the decision to resist change. Notably, novice teachers are generally less resistant. It is imperative to recognize that such resistance does not inherently oppose change nor does it aim to obstruct leadership efforts without cause. When understood and approached correctly by perceptive and adaptable leaders, resistance can catalyze positive developments by revealing the underlying concerns and obstacles perceived by educators.

The stance of an employee within the educational hierarchy critically influences their reception of change initiatives. Terhart (2013) underscores the dissonance between the viewpoints of high-ranking educational administrators and classroom teachers. Change, he notes,

is frequently initiated by those at the apex of the educational hierarchy, who are often convinced of both the necessity for change and the assumption that it is welcomed by teachers. Contrarily, teachers seldom share this enthusiasm, especially when changes are perceived as imposed, leading to diverse manifestations of resistance. A fundamental issue arises from the expectation that teachers, pivotal to the implementation phase, are paradoxically excluded from the change design process, their insights overlooked. This disconnect not only fosters resistance but also significantly contributes to the failure of change initiatives.

Assessing the potential success or failure of change within educational settings is an intricate endeavor. Terhart (2013) describes the process of change in educational contexts as opaque and variable, subject to divergent perceptions among different stakeholders. Success for one group may be construed as failure by another, attributable to the multifaceted nature of educational outcomes, which can be interpreted variously and do not always directly reflect the quality or quantity of effort invested by teachers. While segmenting change plans into quantifiable, standardized components and espousing a results-oriented approach may mitigate these discrepancies, they do not wholly resolve the conundrum of evaluating change efficacy. Terhart (2013) acknowledges this perceptual divide between administrators and teachers, characterizing schools as "complex systems with a multitude of interest groups" with divergent objectives. He advocates for the formation of coalitions comprising change-receptive teachers and emphasizes their inclusion in change initiatives. Indeed, acknowledging teachers' perspectives and fostering an environment of collegial collaboration is indispensable for the success of any change initiative, given that teachers are the primary agents of implementation.

Leadership Vision

In this study, while the term "leader" could encompass various administrative roles within the upper echelons of the educational hierarchy, the focus is primarily on school principals. The exploration centers on the dynamics between a principal's visionary leadership in guiding school-wide change and the ensuing resistance from teachers.

Forging alliances is pivotal in effectuating change. Kotter (2007) contends that the success of change initiatives hinges significantly on the leader's ability to galvanize support among subordinates and allies. Martin et al. (2018) assert that an effective vision is anchored in core purpose and values, necessitating leaders to instill a sense of urgency, build momentum, and persuade subordinates of the change's indispensability.

Furthermore, motivating subordinates is crucial in the change process. Northouse (2019) elaborates on the Path-Goal Theory, suggesting that leaders can accomplish set goals by effectively motivating their subordinates. The theory underscores the interplay between the leader's style, subordinate characteristics, and the work environment. Optimal motivation, and consequently, successful change, is achieved when leaders adopt styles congruent with the nature of the tasks and the needs of their subordinates. Leaders exhibiting adaptability in their approach, tailoring their style to various tasks and individual subordinates, are often more successful in effecting change (Northouse, 2019). This thesis posits that leaders encountering minimal resistance are typically those who succeed, premised on the Path-Goal Theory's assumption that leaders can discern the motivational drivers and aspirations of all subordinates. However, recognizing these motivational needs, particularly in a multicultural and dynamic work

environment, remains a formidable challenge, compounded when the leader's vision lacks clarity, potentially fostering resistance.

Within the paradigm of transactional leadership, motivation is a cornerstone in fostering effective leader-subordinate relationships (Bass, 1999). Transactional leaders utilize contingent rewards to spur subordinates towards specific task completion (Bass, 1999) and may employ management-by-exception, intervening only when subordinates deviate from expectations. However, there's an exigency to investigate the extent to which educational leaders can articulate and disseminate clear, tangible goals and tasks, and to understand the dynamics between a leader's vision and its reception or resistance in the workplace. It is also pertinent to examine subordinates' perceptions of leaders' corrective actions and the subsequent impact on morale. Subordinates often view change as a departure from comfort, entailing additional workload, thereby necessitating a thorough understanding of their resistance, apprehensions, and reluctance towards the leader's vision.

The leader's proficiency in crafting and communicating a lucid, compelling vision significantly influences subordinates' perceptions and their receptiveness to change. Marion and Gonzales (2014) postulate that leadership is essentially a social construct, recognized only if acknowledged by others. They further discuss the subjective nature of leadership perceptions, influenced by various factors, including social interactions, which eventually coalesce into a collective understanding within a professional community. This collective perception not only shapes the leader-subordinate relationship but also the form and intensity of resistance to the leader’s vision. Moreover, leadership inherently involves exercising influence and power to steer the organisation towards a collective objective, necessitating followers' acceptance and active

participation. The clarity of the leader's vision is paramount in securing this engagement, as followers are reticent to embrace or partake in initiatives that lack clear direction.

Rationale of the Study

Resistance is a central reason that change initiatives fail, and educational leaders may need to explore subordinates' motives for opposing the leader's vision of change. Northouse (2019) came to the same conclusion as Kotter (2007) that change is likely to fail when leaders do not share a clear and feasible vision with their subordinates. Effective communication between the leader and his/her subordinates is essential. Interactions between the leader and his/her subordinates, however, can be challenging. Thus, leaders face further challenges to communicate their vision. Subordinates, simultaneously, are likely to oppose a vision that appears to be unclear and enigmatic (Northouse, 2019). In the researcher's experience, collective opposition starts when people express their concerns about the leader's vision to their peers who may share the same concerns. The existence of growing consensus and stronger alliances among subordinates may, at the end of the day, lead to the formation of a challenge to the leader's vision. This is likely to cause resistance to the leader's vision to become more cumulative. Understanding resistance from the perspective of subordinates may provide educational leaders, government officials, and researchers with further insight into teachers' frustrations and concerns. This insight can help leaders develop a more agreeable vision, positively respond to their subordinates, and assure them in situations of uncertainty. Ultimately, this may make the educational workplace environment more productive. Conducting a study to understand workplace resistance and how it may correlate with the way teachers perceive an educational leader's vision can lead to a more positive relationship between an educational leader and

teachers while helping leaders better communicate their vision and increase its potential for success (Kotter, 2007).

Change is not typically a simple mission; it comes with many challenges. Various studies show that it is a leader's role to convince subordinates of a vision and maintain effective and persistent communication to serve this purpose (e.g., Northouse, 2019; Kanter et al., 1992). It is useful, in this context, to explore to what extent the leader's vision is clear and convincing to teachers, from their perspective. It is also useful to explore how subordinates build a collective impression about the leader's vision. It is also still daunting to identify what makes employees in the workplace build consensus on opposing or supporting the leader's vision, although the employees may not have the same convictions or even the same degree of opposition to the projected vision of change. Teachers who resist a vision often have different reasons for doing so. Further, it is useful to understand how transformational leaders respond to instability and uncertainty that subordinates may suffer when the change initiative is being implemented. Motivating and influencing subordinates are effective ways for leaders to convince subordinates; nonetheless, it is still difficult to identify exactly what motivates different subordinates or what make them decide to resist the leader's vision, the degree of their response to this vision. Another point to consider is whether the number of the employee's experience can be an additional factor that affects motivating him/her. An effective way to better understand subordinates interacting with change is to directly learn from them and attempt to analyze their perspectives.

Research Problem and Questions

This study endeavors to navigate the complexities of teachers' workplace resistance to a leader's envisioned change, specifically through the prism of the teachers themselves. The

phenomenon of resistance bears significant implications for the workplace atmosphere and the relational dynamics between educators and the school principal. The primary goal of this research is to enrich our understanding of how a leader's vision of change may elicit teacher resistance. This enhanced understanding is instrumental in fortifying the synergy between educational leadership and the teaching staff, emphasizing the latter's pivotal role in driving change.

Employing a quantitative approach, this study delves into the correlation between the resistance of teachers in K-12 schools and the leadership's vision, focusing on their perceptions within culturally diverse educational settings. The findings from this research are projected to furnish more profound insights into the degree to which teachers' interpretations of a leader's vision can sway the trajectory of change initiatives, potentially demarcating triumph or derailment of change initiatives.

The research question guiding this study: How do teachers resist the leader’s vision?

The following are hypotheses of the study:

1. There are significant differences in K-12 teachers' views about their school principals' leadership practices based on the region they are in (Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions).
2. Gender influences K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance, with differences between male and female teachers.

3. Teachers' years of experience are positively correlated with their views on the effectiveness of their school principals' leadership practices and their willingness to engage in forms of resistance.
4. K-12 teachers who teach different educational levels (e.g., elementary, middle, high school) have differing opinions about the leadership practices of their school principals and the forms of resistance they employ.
5. Full-time and part-time teachers differ in their perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and the forms of resistance they engage.

Significance of the Study

This study holds multifaceted significance, both practical and theoretical, within the realm of educational transformation. Facilitating change within educational institutions remains a paramount concern across the academic spectrum, necessitating a nuanced understanding of the dynamics at play. The study proposes to establish a theoretical scaffold elucidating the nature of workplace resistance and its interrelation with a leader's vision, thereby demystifying the impediments to transformative efforts. Furthermore, it aspires to equip school leaders with the insights necessary for cultivating more robust alliances with teachers, recognizing them as integral collaborators in the change process. This endeavor not only amplifies the voices of teachers concerning their schools' reformative trajectories but also aims to enhance school leaders', educational connoisseurs', and scholarly experts' comprehension of teachers' standpoints on change, acknowledging their firsthand experiences.

The findings are poised to pique the interest of a diverse audience, including government officials, teachers, educational overseers across various echelons, authorities within school

districts and divisions, and academic researchers. An imperative facet of examining the nexus between workplace resistance and the leader’s vision through the teachers' lens is to unravel the intricacies of the perspectives harbored by "resister teachers," thereby painting a holistic portrait. Existing literature often construes workplace resistance as a mechanism for "deflecting abuse, safeguarding autonomy, modulating workload, and augmenting worker control through participatory schemes" (Hodson, 1995). In an educational context, resistance may burgeon from additional sources, such as insufficient professional development, an ambiguous vision for change, or inequitable task allocation. Should educational leaders misinterpret teachers' resistance, perceiving these opposition movements solely as insubordination, the consequent retaliatory stance could engender discord. Conversely, discerning the complexities encircling the change initiative, seeking concordance, and refining the approach to change can mitigate these tensions. Indeed, misconstrued opposition from teachers and/or communication breakdowns between leaders and teachers frequently precipitate the derailment of change initiatives.

From a practical standpoint, the study's outcomes are anticipated to shed light on the dynamics underpinning the relationship between teachers and school leaders, underscoring the pivotal role this relationship plays in steering school reforms. Additionally, it is envisaged to prompt profound contemplation regarding the efficacy of communicative exchanges between school leaders and teachers. Theoretically, while the study's scope remains somewhat circumscribed, it promises to serve as a foundational framework for interpreting workplace resistance within educational entities and may act as a beacon for those navigating the domains of school leadership and educational metamorphosis.

Limitations of the Study

The study primarily recruited K-12 teachers online via Facebook, through convenience sampling, which presented several limitations that warrant consideration. First, although Facebook is the most common social media platform to recruit participants, the reliance on a single online platform for recruitment may have introduced a selection bias, potentially not offering a comprehensive representation of K-12 teachers across the regions of interest. This methodological choice may restrict the generalizability of the findings to a broader teacher population.

Second, while the study aimed to encompass teachers from diverse regions, including Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian territories, the insufficient number of responses from some regions and demographics led to their exclusion. This limitation further narrows the scope of the study's findings and their applicability to broader geographical contexts.

Another significant limitation stems from the study's dependence on self-reported data. Such data can be subject to various biases, including the social desirability bias. Participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses. There is a possibility, however, that teachers may have provided responses they deemed socially acceptable, rather than reflecting their genuine perceptions.

Furthermore, the study employed a cross-sectional design, capturing teachers' perspectives at a single point in time. This design does not account for changes in perceptions or experiences over time, which may be relevant in understanding teachers' resistance to change.

The statistical analyses in this study explored the multifaceted nature of workplace resistance within K-12 educational settings. The survey in this study was not designed to

prioritize any demographic attributes of participants, in the Demographic Section, or to suggest that any group has an advantage over the others.

Exploring the philosophical dimensions of workplace resistance, this study referenced the perspectives of Karl Marx and Michel Foucault on group dynamics, resistance, and the practice of power. The study, however, does not link participants' resistance to these philosophical ideologies to participants, as the survey did not collect any data about the political or social beliefs of K-12 teachers.

Furthermore, the demographic distribution of the survey responses was heavily weighted towards participants from Alberta relative to other Canadian regions. As a result, the researcher conducted comparative analyses focused on discerning statistical differences between participants from Alberta, other parts of Canada, and Egypt. This methodological choice was driven strictly by the data available and should not be interpreted as indicative of any political or ideological bias.

Last, the study's quantitative nature, while providing numerical insights, may not capture the depth and nuances of teachers' perceptions. A more qualitative approach could have offered a richer, more detailed understanding of the underlying reasons for their views.

Delimitations of the Study

Geographically, the study focused on participants from Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions. This delimitation suggests that the findings were most pertinent to these areas and may not be applicable to teachers in other global regions. The study specifically targeted K-12 teachers, thereby excluding teachers from other educational levels, such as preschool or higher education, as well as other educational staff. Methodologically, the chosen survey approach gathered self-reported data, which could be subject to biases, as opposed to

observational or experimental methods that may have offered different insights. The survey's content included six forms of resistance, Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)-Observer, and specific demographic data. Other forms of resistance and demographic data were not explored. Statistically, the Kruskal-Wallis' test was employed due to the non-normal distribution of data, focusing on non-parametric methods and not considering the potential insights from parametric methods. The study was conducted within the school year of 2022-2023, which may not encapsulate changes or trends over more extended periods.

Assumptions of the Study

A foundational assumption of this study is the general absence of overt discriminatory practices within schools and irrespective of teachers' backgrounds. The research primarily concentrates on dissecting the interplay between workplace resistance and the leader's strategic vision for educational reform. Should the workplace milieu foster discrimination against certain teachers, the nature of resistance could deviate from the notion established in this study, which may suggest a different realm of study. It is broadly acknowledged that K-12 schools epitomize multicultural professional environments.

In instances of collective workplace resistance, teachers unite in a coalition, transcending distinctions of gender, narrow personal convictions, or ethnic origins, to contest the leader's blueprint for change. Another underlying assumption is that teachers do not inherently reject change; rather, their opposition is often directed toward the methodology of its implementation or the envisaged trajectory of such transformations. Resistance is more conceivable when the leader's vision is perceived as professionally untenable, not necessarily a reflection of the leader's identity or personal ethos. Each resister, in their capacity, contests the authority of the leader,

seeking a collective accord to forge an alliance with a definitive objective of challenging the leader's vision.

The researcher recognizes workplace resistance is neither invariably a detrimental force, nor is it categorically antagonistic to change. Paradoxically, it can sometimes catalyze the very change it seems to oppose, serving as a constructive agent in the evolution of the educational landscape.

Definition of Terms

In this study, I used a variety of terms throughout this study. The terms and their definitions are as follows:

Resistance: "any conduct that serves to maintain the status quo in the face of pressure to alter the status quo" (Zaltman and Duncan, 1977, p. 63). Further definitions of *resistance* will be discussed in *Chapter 2*.

Organisational Change: “a process in which a large company or organisation changes its working methods or aims, for example, in order to develop and deal with new situations or markets” (Cambridge Dictionary website). In this study, it is often referred to “*organisational change”* as *change*, *change initiative*, or *school reform*.

Leader: a person who leads and commands a group of people or an organisation. In this study, the leader is intended to refer to the school principal (Cambridge Dictionary website).

Teacher: a person whose job is to teach a group of learners in a school or college. The term “*teacher”* in this study refers to those who practice teaching in K-12 schools.

Vision: “A mental image the leader conjures up to portray a highly desirable end state for an organisation” (Gardner & Avolio, 1998, p. 39)

Power: is the phenomena of influence that involves a dynamic relationship between two agents, which may be viewed from two points of view: (a) What determines the behaviour of the agent who exerts power? (b) What determines the reaction of the recipient of this behaviour (French & Raven, 1959, as cited in Shafritz et al., 2016)

Leadership: "is the process of giving purpose [meaningful direction] to collective effort and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose" (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p.282).

Leadership Practices Inventory: is a quantitative instrument designed by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z Posner that is designed to measure five exemplary leadership practices (Posner, 2016)

LPI-Observer: Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer, the name of the assessment participants completed about their school principals.

Chapter Summary

Chapter One set the stage for investigating organizational change in educational settings, scrutinizing the high rate of change initiative failures attributed to factors such as leadership vision, managerial decision-making, and workplace resistance. This chapter questioned the predominant focus on the higher echelons in change resistance and introduced the importance of considering the human dynamics within organizations. The study aims to understand resistance from employees' perspectives, exploring the dialectic between power and resistance, especially in the context of educational reform. The chapter proposed a comprehensive view of resistance as a behavioral response to power, suggesting that effective change requires clear leadership vision, understanding of human dynamics, and addressing the root causes of resistance.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Extant research on workplace resistance predominantly scrutinizes the phenomenon through the lens of upper echelons of organisational hierarchies, often neglecting a comprehensive panorama. Hodson (1995), for instance, delineates a quadrilateral model encapsulating diverse objectives and manifestations of workers' resistance, positing that such resistance is inherently intertwined with the exercise of power within professional settings. This theory presupposes an innate propensity among employees to contest managerial authority to varying degrees, rendering workplace resistance an omnipresent, instinctive occurrence. The quandary arises in the upper management's perception of this resistance; frequently construed as an affront to transformative visions, leaders may respond with countermeasures perceived as challenges to their authority. Such retaliatory tactics could inadvertently impair leaders' insights into the genuine motivators behind employees' resistant behaviours. A perceptual dissonance often exists between leaders' interpretations and subordinates' rationale regarding these oppositional movements.

A concomitant complication in dissecting workplace defiance is the discernment—or lack thereof—of employees' actions as resistant. Accurately distinguishing acts of resistance remains problematic; for instance, an employee's failure to meet deadlines could be misconstrued as resistance, whereas time constraints may be the actual impediment. Hollander and Einwohner (2004) contend that for behaviours to qualify as resistance, they must be acknowledged as such by the actors, the target (those challenged by the resistance), and observers. In certain dynamics, leaders, positioned as targets, may refute the existence of resistance, particularly in climates of distrust towards subordinates presumed to be antagonistic (Fox, 1974). Leaders may feign

obliviousness to teachers' resistant acts, perhaps due to apprehension of exacerbating issues. Conversely, some teachers, as the actors, may remain unaware of their own resistant behaviours. Hodson (1995) suggests that such acts can be either intentional or subconscious, with the latter potentially eluding recognition by relevant parties.

This raises the pivotal question of how to precisely discern employee resistance. Given this study's characterization of resistance as an actionable concept, it's reasonable to infer the presence of implied resistance, particularly when change initiatives encounter presumed obstructive behaviours from subordinates. These actions, whether explicitly identified as resistance, can precipitate the initiative's derailment. The acknowledgment of resistant acts can fluctuate across organisations, heavily influenced by the rapport between leaders and their teams. It's imperative to recognize that while workplace resistance is a significant contributor to the derailment of change initiatives, the culpability for failure should not be solely attributed to it. Factors such as an absence of clear leadership vision or a paucity of commitment can also be pivotal. The collapse of a change initiative can signal the occurrence of resistance, as can the self-identification of resistant acts by the resisters, irrespective of alternative interpretations by other parties involved.

Conceptualization of Resistance

Each definition of resistance outlined in Chapter One encapsulates distinct and specific facets of the concept. Hollander and Einwohner (2004), for instance, underscore the intentional aspects of resistance, while Scott (1985) emphasizes the objectives of resistance movements and solidarity among resisters. In scholarly discourse, resistance is acknowledged as a behaviour, an action, primarily a response to the exertion of power (Hollander & Einwohner, 2004). Despite

this recognition, ambiguities persist regarding its measurement, the timeline of its escalation or de-escalation, and the motivations influencing this behaviour, which may diverge across organisations. The dynamics of how resisters interact and collaborate with each other, which can potentially intensify or diminish acts of resistance, remains unclear. Moreover, not all teachers in a multicultural organisation are likely to resist in a uniform manner, as cultural norms and personal convictions shape individual actions, behaviours, and perceptions. The literature falls short in elucidating what drives teachers to resist a leader's vision and, crucially, how they forge alliances with fellow teachers. Typically, resistance alliances coalesce around teachers discontented with proposed changes, fostering a collective spirit of opposition.

An ensuing conundrum is the dichotomy between a leader's exercise of power and resistance. The arising question here is whether resistance is invariably a counteraction to power. While frequently observed, this study posits that resistance can also stem from external factors beyond a leader's control. The exertion of power by educational leaders is not the sole catalyst for resistance; teachers' dissatisfaction may also originate from specific scenarios or policies, such as funding or legislation, outside a leader's purview (Giroux, 2005). Therefore, the notion that resistance within educational settings is solely a reaction to a leader's exercise of power warrants re-evaluation.

Resistance can manifest at individual or collective levels. In collective resistance, solidarity prevails, with alliances forming among resisters seeking refuge in their opposition (Scott, 1985). Irrespective of its form, resistance entails active endeavors (Ybema & Horvers, 2017) to contest or alleviate upper management's assertions, with resisters also promoting their own agendas (Scott, 1985). Various catalysts can prompt teachers to resist a leader's vision for

change, including perceptions that the organisation's trajectory fails to meet their expectations or exacerbates uncertainty. The interplay between leaders and teachers, as well as among teachers themselves, further influences the ebb and flow of resistance, though its complete eradication is improbable. The literature, however, lacks clarity on why teachers may oppose a leader's vision or the mechanisms impacting their resistance.

Scott (1985) postulates that resistance may also be a class-driven phenomenon, encompassing actions by subordinates intended to either mitigate or refute claims by higher authorities, or to further their own interests. His interpretation of resistance accentuates the material underpinnings of class conflict, acknowledging both individual and collective acts of defiance. However, he does not discount ideological resistance challenging an unsatisfactory or inequitable status quo, striving for alternate standards of justice. Scott's definition prioritizes intentions over outcomes, acknowledging that resistance efforts often falter. Other academics (e.g., Baaz et al., 2016) suggest resistance can simply be a "response to power dynamics," independent of the actors' intentions. If workplace resistance is deemed a voluntary action, with resisters ultimately choosing whether to contest a leader's vision, the element of intent becomes indispensable.

In forming an alliance, resisters unite under a shared objective: challenging perceived oppression. Scott (1985) contends that collective resistance fosters mutual support, culminating in a solidarity that precludes harm among resisters. This raises the question of whether all actions, deliberate or spontaneous, qualify as resistance. Scott (1985) maintains that an act must be acknowledged by others as defiant to be considered resistance. His argument delineates four key aspects of resistance: a) its purposeful, intentional nature; b) its status as a social construct,

necessitating recognition by resisters, targets, and observers as oppositional; c) the progression from individual dissent to organised group action is characterized by the efforts of those opposing to find allies, thereby gaining strength and influence; and d) its objective to alter or disrupt a status quo perceived as disadvantageous.

Resistance is a conscious endeavor, with resisters typically cognizant of their opposition to the leader's authority. Hollander and Einwohner (2004) assert that a resister must recognize their own resistance and intention to challenge authority, emphasizing the significance of intent in "everyday" resistance acts. This study also intended to probe the individual intent inherent in collective resistance, as it is implicitly present in the group dynamic.

Philosophy of Resistance

Marxism concentrates on restructuring political power to enable the proletarian class to assume control and attain greater justice, striving to remodel society so that equality prevails for all. Bronner (2017) contends that Marxism accentuates the collective consciousness of proletarians and their agency. According to Weber, proletarian consciousness encompasses three pivotal elements: a) the inevitability of revolution, b) the pursuit of reforms, and c) the cultivation of solidarity among workers. For Marx, collective resistance stands as the principal avenue through which the working class can seize power and instigate justice and peace. Marxists underline the criticality of "class consciousness" in empowering the proletariat to construct a fairer world. Integral to Marxist ideology are ethical mandates and appeals for solidarity. Marxism champions collective resistance, grounded in the conviction that the collective judgment prescribes what is beneficial for the entirety of a group. Indeed, this collective aspect can partly elucidate workplace resistance in terms of human interactions,

alliances, and the power dynamics within an organisation. Marx's concept of transformation extends beyond social or economic realms, encompassing a shift in mindsets and interpersonal relations as social entities (Allman, 2010). The intricacies of opposition and the demands of resisters may intensify when resistance transitions from an individual act to a collective movement. Marx posited that the internal dynamics among resisters could regulate and even dictate the group's evolution, occasionally forging unique characteristics intrinsic to the group of resisters (Allman, 2010).

The phenomena of resistance and power are interdependent. Foucault (1995) posits that resistance is an innate human response to power; authority endeavors to mold disciplined individuals who are rational, responsible, and productive, hence the existence of resistance to any exercise of power deemed unjust. He also maintains that at the collective level, power aims to structure followers within a stratified, hierarchical space. For individuals, the primary objective of power is to orchestrate personal ambitions, emotions, and desires into competent employees. Thus, power inherently engenders its own resistance. However, the intensity and character of resistance vary across contexts, influenced by numerous factors. Foucault's concept of resistance encompasses all forms of defiance against a leader or challenges to their transformative vision, considering that most transformation agendas originate from the upper echelons of organisational hierarchies. This study hypothesizes that workplace collective resistance originates from the individual refusals exhibited by a handful of employees, then progressively escalates, contingent on specific factors and circumstances that may diverge across organisational contexts, and upon gaining sufficient momentum, achieves its objectives. This opposition begins with a minor faction of subordinates harboring concerns and legitimate objections to the leader's vision, eventually evolving into a collective movement.

Power and resistance share a commonality: both aspire to exert influence. Baaz et al. (2016) concur with Foucault (1995) that resistance and power are interrelated and mutually constitutive. According to Foucault (1995), resistance is a counteraction to exercises of power, which reciprocally spawn resistance. Nonetheless, deciphering the mechanism through which resistance shapes power, especially within the workplace, remains challenging. Generally, the exercise of power is manifest in the leader's mandate and job description. Conversely, resistance is unpredictable. It is arduous to ascertain when subordinates may initiate opposition or resistance, and its potential severity. Moreover, opposition movements may be swayed by diverse factors and dynamics, contingent on the workplace.

Resistance can coexist with power frequently, but not incessantly. Foucault's theory presumes that power and resistance are inescapably dichotomous. If so, workplace resistance should be omnipresent wherever officials exercise power, whenever a leader enacts any form of authority. In reality, this is improbable within the workplace environment. Subordinates are unlikely to contest every exercise of power by the school principal. This study concurs with Foucault that workplace resistance often surfaces as a reaction to the exercise of power. However, this study contends that even if the relationship between subordinates and the leader is ineffective, it is implausible to presume that employees challenge every instance of exerted authority. Furthermore, this study argues that resistance does not invariably accompany every exercise of power. Workplace resistance does not necessarily manifest daily or with every instance of authority by the leader. Certain exercises of power by the leader may be fundamentally perceived, anticipated, and accepted by subordinates; for instance, when a school principal proposes that a teacher diversify activities in his or her class to accommodate different levels of students. At times, the exercise of power is welcomed or at least unopposed. In certain

contexts, resistance may surface when subordinates question the leader's decision-making competence or when they lose confidence in the leader. Because each workplace has its distinctive circumstances, workplace resistance may vary from one setting to another. Workplace resistance can also present in varying degrees and forms, or even vanish from one scenario to another within the same organisation and among the same individuals, but it is unlikely to cease entirely.

Nature of Power

A crucial element of employees' opposition to the leader's vision is the power dynamics among the resisters themselves and between the resisters and the leader. Folger and Skarlicki (1999) characterize resistance as "employee behaviour that seeks to challenge, disrupt, or invert prevailing assumptions, discourses, and power relations" (p. 36). Beyond underscoring power dynamics, Folger and Skarlicki's (1999) definition also illuminates the primary objective of employees in opposing the leader: resisters aim to disrupt the leader's agenda and respond to the leader's exercise of power by forging a counteracting force. In this context, it becomes imperative to scrutinize the essence of power, the dynamics of relationships, and patterns of interaction within the organisation itself. In environments where the leader wields substantial power, employees are less inclined to engage in direct or active forms of resistance. The extent of the leader's power, the nature of relationships they maintain with other employees, and the coalitions that exist within the organisation may also influence the intensity of resistance among employees who aim to counter the leader's vision.

Power, however, is a social construct; a leader within an organisation is an influencer. Subordinates rallying coworkers to join a collective opposition movement against the leader's

vision are also influencers (Shafritz et al., 2016). In collective resistance, those spearheading the opposition movement strive to persuade others of their capacity to exert power and leverage their influence against the established authority of the leader. Leadership within the collective resistance movement is typically covert under most circumstances. Comprehending power, influence, and the political undercurrents of the workplace, through which influence is acquired and exercised, is vital for understanding how conflict dynamics within organisations converge and evolve. Within an organisation, an individual's power is relative to others in specific social relationships (Pfeffer, 1981). In this light, it is critical to investigate how individuals within an organisation perceive power, influence, and the potential they discern in their own capacities. The growth of the collective resistance movement hinges on the resisters' ability to convince more colleagues across the organisational hierarchy that the leader's change vision may contravene employees' self-interests or heighten uncertainty, rendering the proposed change plan unfeasible. Enlisting more subordinates to participate in the collective opposition is essential for generating resistance momentum. In an educational setting, teachers are less prone to openly challenge the leader or their vision; thus, such interactions and exercises of influence among subordinates are typically implicit and are less likely to occur deliberately. This study posits that these interactions and alliances form gradually over an extended period of time. The leader's success in actualizing the change plan, however, depends on their ability to persuade a larger audience to embrace the change and to forge alliances throughout the organisational hierarchy. Emphasizing the interactions among individuals in an organisation does not necessarily imply an inherent conflict between the leader and teachers; examining these interactions serves merely as a strategy to comprehend and analyze power relations and influential interactions within organisations.

Viewing organisations through a lens of power and politics reveals that they are intricate systems composed of coalitions of individuals who share similar interests, beliefs, values, perspectives, and/or perceptions. Coalitions materialize when the interests of individuals partially converge (Bolman & Deal, 2017). A coalition of resisters may gain traction when each member is united by a common objective, which in this instance is to thwart the leader's initiatives. Shafritz et al. (2016) argue that most coalitions are transient, shifting with issues both vertically and horizontally, and can even transcend organisational boundaries. In this sense, resisters band together when they share a common interest in challenging the leader's authority, and their coalition may broaden to encompass more resisters. The dynamic nature of coalitions often hinges on specific goals. The presence of a resisters' coalition does not necessarily mean that all members share the same intensity of opposition or perceive the movement uniformly. Although the methods and means of resistance may fluctuate and evolve, the central focus of such a coalition typically remains constant: to contest the leader's vision of change. Thus, resistance can be perceived as an endeavor to establish some form of oppositional power, either individually or collectively. The primary aim of workplace resistance is to challenge the leader's authority, either overtly or covertly, to impede their efforts to execute the change vision. The motivations for this emergent opposing force may vary, but its objective is often clear-cut. Resistance within organisations is an immensely complex phenomenon. The intricacy of workplace resistance can be elucidated through two facets: first, individuals resisting power do not necessarily oppose the structures of dominance. They may choose to resist in certain situations while opting not to in others. The second aspect is that neither the resisters nor those being resisted are monolithic entities (Hollander & Einwohner, 2004). In other words, coalitions typically encompass

individuals who may concur on some viewpoints but diverge on others. Additionally, individuals may alter their stances and/or affiliate with other coalitions.

Types and Forms of Resistance

Workplace resistance can manifest in various forms. Hollander and Einwohner (2004) offer a typology of workplace resistance, beginning with what they term 'overt resistance.' This is defined as “behaviour that is visible and readily recognized by both targets and observers as resistance and, further, is intended to be recognized as such” (p. 545). This category encompasses both individual acts of refusal and collective acts of resistance, such as social movements and revolutions. They also describe other types of resistance where the degree of intent and recognition may vary, meaning that actors, targets, and observers may not concur on whether certain actions constitute resistance. The second type, 'covert resistance,' refers to "acts that are intentional yet go unnoticed (and, therefore, unpunished) by their targets, although they are recognized as resistance by other, culturally aware observers.” Examples include “gossip,” "bitching," and “subtle subversion in the workplace” (Griffiths, 1998; Prasad & Prasad, 1998; Scott, 1985, 1990; Sotirin & Gottfried, 1999; Wickham, 1998 as cited in Hollander and Einwohner, 2004).

The third type, 'unwitting resistance,' as defined by Hollander and Einwohner (2004), is not intended by the actors but is perceived as resistance by the target and/or observer. Often, such acts of unintentional resistance lack a specific target, although individuals in the workplace may feel targeted by these actions. For example, an employee’s repeated absence or tardiness may be interpreted as an act of resistance by the leader, even if the employee has other reasons for their behaviour. This type is categorized as 'target-defined resistance.'

Tucker (1993) discusses the influence of employment status on everyday forms of resistance. He posits that temporary employees tend to resist in non-aggressive ways, suggesting that teachers are less likely to openly oppose their leader unless there are clear and undeniable violations of the law. Consequently, this study assumed that everyday forms of resistance are more prevalent in educational organisations. Tucker's study examines the forms of resistance likely to be adopted by temporary employees, with gossip being identified as the most common initial step. In such instances, aggrieved employees share concerns without seeking collective confrontation or support. Tucker also notes that gossip can function as a form of "settlement behaviour," where participants assign blame and make judgments. Furthermore, he argues that while gossip is an overt form of resistance, it is rare for leaders to be aware of the employees' concerns.

Tucker (1993) identifies confrontation as another form of resistance, where employees directly address their concerns with the leader. This approach is less common than gossip and is perceived as riskier, potentially leading to reprimands or termination. Additionally, confrontation is less likely in educational settings. Tucker also discusses resignation as a form of resistance, where employees choose to leave their position rather than voice grievances. This is typically not a common form of resistance and usually follows active conflict management efforts. Collective action, where employees collectively express dissatisfaction with the leader, is also noted as a form of resistance.

Drawing from my experience as a teacher and a lead teacher, I have observed 'purposeful inaction' as an additional form of resistance. In this scenario, employees either avoid required tasks or perform them minimally, without overtly opposing the leader or their vision. They may feign engagement in tasks, complain about their complexity, and perform them inadequately. If

adopted collectively, this approach can undermine a change initiative by ensuring that no substantial work is completed or that it is done too poorly to be effective.

Another form of resistance I have experienced is 'deliberate obstruction,' which differs from Tucker's (1993) concept of sabotage. While sabotage involves intentional property damage and is rare in educational contexts, deliberate obstruction entails individual or collective efforts to trivialize the leader's vision, often turning it into catchphrases or jokes. Employees may undermine assigned tasks or the change initiative, continuously claiming misunderstanding while intentionally failing to meet deadlines. This differs from situations where employees genuinely struggle due to ambiguous instructions or lack of training. Deliberate obstruction occurs when employees are capable and trained but choose not to engage due to an intent to thwart the change initiative.

Ybema and Horvers (2017) describe two forms of subtle workplace resistance: 'frontstage' and 'backstage.' Frontstage resistance is an active and voiced opposition to management, including direct protests, open articulation of opposition to change, complaints to colleagues, or symbolic acts of resistance. This form of resistance can also involve disengagement from change-related activities, such as arriving late to meetings or expressing reluctance to perform change-related tasks. The goal is to convey opposition to the leader and hinder the implementation of change. Backstage resistance, in contrast, is a passive form where employees outwardly accept the change initiative but privately express concerns and reluctance. They may question the necessity and desirability of the planned change in confidential conversations with colleagues. Frontstage resisters often lack backstage support and may be targeted by management as troublemakers.

Backstage resistance shares similarities with everyday forms of resistance. Ybema and Horvers (2017) found that employees engaging in backstage resistance often feel indifferent, disgruntled, skeptical, and cynical about change. They identified key elements that may determine the success or failure of change initiatives, including effective communication between employees and leaders, employees' natural fear and uncertainty about change, the leader's rapport with employees, organisational politics and power dynamics, interaction and influence patterns within the organisation, the power and clarity of the leader's vision, and the organisational path to change. The nature and degree of these elements vary by organisation, making each unique in its capacity for change.

This study posits that the most likely forms of resistance in educational organisations are 'everyday forms of resistance,' where subordinates challenge their relationship dynamics with leaders in subtle ways, complying with directives while covertly opposing the leader's authority (Mackin, 2005).

Educators' Sense of Duty

Regardless of the educational organisation type, whether public, religious, private, or charter schools, this study posits that teachers are inherently committed to shaping future generations. Consequently, the interaction dynamics within K-12 schools likely mirror those in other public organisations, even in non-public school settings. According to Petter (2005), literature provides evidence that empowering employees by granting them autonomy can paradoxically both diminish and amplify resistance to leadership changes. Therefore, workplace resistance is contingent upon various factors, including the situation, the employee-leader relationship, and the perceived freedom of employees.

Furthermore, Petter (2005) highlights the concept of responsibility, which varies across societal cultures and organisational roles. This responsibility can be internal, termed 'emotivist,' or external, known as 'rationalist.' The latter encompasses democratic, bureaucratic responsibilities, legal accountability, and social activism, particularly relevant in public education (Burke, 2001; Meier et al., 1991). Internal responsibility, on the other hand, may incite resistance, especially among teachers who lack a strong rapport with their leaders (Hollander and Einwohner, 2004).

Cooper (2012) emphasizes that each employee's moral responsibility influences their behaviour. Teachers, for instance, may strongly resist changes they perceive as unethical or detrimental to their students, leading to more overt and collective resistance. Conversely, moral responsibility can also drive teachers to support changes they deem beneficial. Effective communication and ethical leadership are thus crucial in navigating these dynamics.

Resistance can also stem from concerns over professionalism and technicalities. Teachers may resist changes that disrupt their comfortable routines or require unfamiliar techniques. However, this resistance is not necessarily collective; it varies based on individual comfort with change and skill development.

Importantly, the relationship between power and resistance is cyclical and interactional. As Hollander and Einwohner (2004), following Foucault (1995), note, resistance arises in response to the exercise of power. This resistance, far from being purely disruptive, can catalyze positive change. Cultural factors and social contracts further influence these power dynamics.

Last, everyday resistance, as discussed by Mackin (2005), represents a subtle yet conscious challenge to existing power structures. This study aims to unravel these dynamics, recognizing that power, as Ewick (1992) argues, is increasingly discursive and not confined to traditional structures.

Principled Resistance

Resistance to change, often depicted as a negative force in organisational literature (Coch and French, 1948), is increasingly recognized as an inherent aspect of organisational culture. Scholars like Jermier and Clegg (1994) and Foucault (1995) suggest that resistance naturally emerges in top-down power structures. Contrary to the view that resistance is solely harmful (Piderit, 2000; Ford et al., 2008), it can also serve as a constructive challenge to leadership (Pile & Keith, 1997). This study posits that workplace resistance should be seen not as a detriment but as a valuable feedback mechanism, potentially enriching the change process (Dent & Goldberg, 1999).

Moreover, the concept of productive resistance, as discussed by Courpasson and Dany (2009), emphasizes resistance as a catalyst for alternative managerial practices that can benefit the organisation. Rather than outright opposition to change, the resistance movement may, at times, aspire to refine or enhance the process of change, thereby enhancing organisational performance and change implementation (Courpasson et al., 2012).

Grebenau (2018) highlights that resistance is a natural response to the discomfort of change. This is particularly relevant in educational settings, where rapid changes by leaders can meet with inertia or refusal from teachers. The challenge lies in understanding the nuances of this

resistance and its relationship to the leader's vision. Furthermore, resistance in education often manifests when changes to the curriculum are proposed. Teachers may resist changes they perceive as limiting to broader educational goals, such as critical thinking and personal development (Santoro and Cain, 2018; Giroux, 2005).

In the realm of education, the clash between teachers' practitioner-oriented perspectives and leaders' administrative-focused improvement plans is notable. While both groups aim for an effective educational system, their approaches differ significantly. Leaders may prioritize aspects like funding and legislation, whereas teachers often focus on students' personal development (Giroux, 2005). This divergence necessitates a balanced approach that incorporates teachers' insights into the design and implementation of change initiatives.

Recognition of Resistance

The concept of resistance in organisational literature is not uniformly defined, leading to varied interpretations. Hollander and Einwohner (2004) propose that for actions to be considered resistance, they must be recognized as such by the actors involved, the target, and observers. However, this definition encounters challenges when these parties hold divergent perceptions. For example, an employee's actions, perceived as non-compliance by a leader, may simply be a result of unclear instructions. Conversely, subtle acts of resistance by an employee may go unnoticed by the leader, illustrating the complexity of everyday resistance. This ambiguity often leads to questions about whether such incidents are genuine resistance or misunderstandings (Hollander and Einwohner, 2004).

Most researchers, including Baaz et al. (2016), agree that intent is a crucial component of resistance. They argue that while intentions behind resistance can be multifaceted and sometimes

unclear, they are often present and significant. In collective resistance movements, for instance, participants may not share identical reasons or methods of opposition, but their intent to resist remains a unifying factor. This complexity does not diminish the role of intention in resistance, as it often underpins the actions and decisions of those involved (Baaz et al., 2016).

In educational settings, resistance can manifest in subtle yet intentional ways. Teachers, for instance, may delay submitting reports to signal their disagreement with a principal's vision. Such actions, while not overtly disruptive, indicate a conflict of interests. Conflicts in schools can be both explicit and implicit, often taking the form of everyday resistance. Despite the nature of the resistance, neither teachers nor principals typically aim to disrupt the standard workflow. The dynamics of these conflicts are influenced by factors such as societal culture, workplace atmosphere, and interpersonal relationships within the organisation.

Notion of Leadership Vision

Leadership in the North American educational context is a process of social influence aimed at achieving a common goal, involving guiding followers and effectively communicating and building relationships (Chemers, 1997; Chin, 2015; Northouse, 2019). The nature of these interactions significantly influences leadership and the forms of resistance employees may exhibit.

Transformational leadership, as explored by Middleton, Harvey, and Esaki (2015), minimizes workplace resistance, particularly in achieving 'trauma-informed organisational change.' This aligns with Mary’s (2005) findings that both transformational and transactional leadership styles correlate with positive outcomes. These studies, however, focus primarily on the success of leadership practices without delving into how followers' resistance relates to the leader’s vision.

Communicating a clear, compelling vision is crucial in minimizing resistance (Ndalamba et al., 2018). A leader's vision should encompass profound knowledge, ethical capacity, and the ability to inspire and motivate. Assuming all leaders, however, can overcome resistance and align subordinates with their vision may be overly optimistic. Understanding the reasons behind teachers' resistance, their perspectives on educational change, and their role as partners in change is essential.

In this context, the highlighted section emphasizes the critical aspects of a leadership vision as outlined by Ndalamba et al. (2018). This vision encompasses the leader's capacity to work effectively with subordinates, establish rapport, and understand the organisational context. Leaders are tasked with setting clear directions and common goals, formulating plans with achievable objectives, and inspiring subordinates to engage in these plans. An underlying assumption in this framework is the leader's ability to overcome workplace resistance and persuade subordinates to embrace change initiatives. Addressing workplace resistance effectively requires educational leaders to understand three key challenges: identifying the root causes of teachers' resistance, comprehending teachers' perspectives on the educational system and change, and gauging the extent to which leaders can collaborate with teachers as partners in change. This approach also involves understanding teachers' aspirations, frustrations, workplace challenges, capabilities, and the need for professional development programs.

Ndalamba et al. (2018) outline seven elements of an effective leadership vision, including self-awareness, commitment to others' growth, recognizing the need for change, focusing on the right problems, understanding context, effective communication, and executing action plans. These elements highlight the importance of a leader's ability to communicate effectively and understand the organisational context.

Employee resistance to a leader's vision often arises from how it is communicated or its lack of clarity. A vision is indispensable, providing followers with a clear direction and purpose. Ndalamba, Caldwell, and Anderson (2018) identify four essential characteristics of leadership vision: imagining possible opportunities, finding a common purpose, appealing to common ideas, and animating the vision. They emphasize the need for a vision to be lucid, meaningful, and integrated into both the organisational culture and the individual aspirations of followers. Northouse (2019), however, observes that some transformational leaders struggle to communicate effectively, leading to ambiguous visions and subsequent change failures.

Leaders bear the responsibility of formulating a clear vision that anticipates the organisation's future and addresses existing challenges. Dantley (2005) posits that followers, including teachers and students, embrace a transformational leader's vision if it aligns with the organisation's culture and their personal and professional goals. Discrepancies, however, arise when followers perceive the vision as incongruent with their aspirations or the organisational culture. Such disparities can stem from concerns about a leader's practices, leading to resistance and undermining change initiatives. For transformative change to materialize, leaders must forge consensus and build coalitions, necessitating a profound understanding of followers' perspectives (Kotter, 2007).

Greenfield (1980) highlights the importance of the human aspect in organizations, suggesting leaders must account for this to enact effective change. Effective leadership is measured by the ability to present a clear vision and motivate staff towards it, while ambiguous visions can lead to resistance (Northouse, 2019). For educational leaders, understanding the perspectives of their staff is crucial in creating an all-encompassing vision for change.

Identifying and addressing the causes of resistance is essential for a leader to effectively implement change and overcome the challenges it presents.

In conclusion, a leader's clear and culturally aligned vision is crucial for motivating followers and implementing organizational change. Overcoming resistance through effective communication and a deep understanding of organizational dynamics is key to successful transformation.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Two explored the complexities of workplace resistance, focusing on the nuanced interplay between employees' resistance actions and organizational power dynamics. The chapter analyzed the workplace resistance phenomenon and its progression from the individual to various collective levels. It critiqued the predominant focus on upper echelons in resistance studies and introduced a multifaceted view that encompassed both overt and covert forms of resistance. Utilizing theoretical frameworks like Marxism and Foucault's theories, Chapter Two explored the philosophical bases of workplace resistance, its expression in educational contexts, and how leadership styles affect resistance outcomes. The chapter emphasized recognizing resistance as a dynamic that can serve as a catalyst for organizational improvement or as an adversarial stance, positing that a deep understanding and addressing of resistance's underlying causes are essential for efficacious leadership and organizational change.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this research study is to explore the relationship between school leaders' visions and workplace resistance in K-12 schools. Additionally, the study aims to measure potential relationships between workplace resistance and demographic data, such as the participants' number of years of teaching experience. The primary goal of this data collection is to understand teachers' perspectives on change and identify the factors that cause them to resist change in the workplace. The methodology involves a survey, which was completed by K-12 teachers from various jurisdictions both within and outside of Canada.

This chapter begins by restating the research problem. It then delves into the research design and provides a description of the population sample chosen for this study. Subsequently, the instrument used for the study is detailed, followed by an overview of the data collection process. A discussion on how the data were analyzed is presented next. The chapter concludes by outlining the ethical measures implemented to protect participants, and it provides a summary of the key points.

Restatement of the Research Problem

In educational institutions, the alignment between a leader's vision for change and the receptivity of teachers is crucial. Despite the importance of moving forward cohesively, there is a noticeable resistance among teachers to leadership-driven reforms. Such resistance presents significant challenges, affecting both the professional environment and the relationship between teachers and school principals. This research aims to delve into the reasons behind teachers' resistance to a leadership vision, viewing the issue from their perspective. Through this exploration, the study seeks to shed light on the dynamics between a leader's proposed change

and the ensuing teacher opposition. Ultimately, the research aspires to deepen our understanding of the relationship between educational leaders and teachers, emphasizing the essential role educators play as cooperative agents of change.

Research Design

The research employed a quantitative approach, utilizing a cross-sectional design for data collection. This method was chosen to capture a snapshot of teachers' perspectives about their respective principals towards the end of the 2022-23 school year. By focusing on this specific timeframe, the study aimed to gain insights into teachers' views after they had completed at least one full school year at the same institution. It is worth noting that there was no intention to replicate this data collection in subsequent years.

The survey instrument was divided into three primary sections:

1. Forms of Resistance: This section delved into the various ways teachers may express their opposition or resistance. By understanding these forms, the research hoped to identify common patterns or methods of resistance among educators.
2. Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)-Observer (2017): This section was incorporated to gain a deeper understanding of teachers' perceptions of their school principals. The LPI-Observer is a renowned tool that evaluates leadership practices.
3. Demographic Information: The final section gathered essential demographic details about the participants, providing context to their responses and allowing for potential correlations or patterns to be identified.

The LPI is underpinned by five exemplary leadership practices:

- Model the Way
- Inspire a Shared Vision
- Challenge the Process
- Enable Others to Act
- Encourage the Heart

Developed by Kouzes and Posner, the LPI framework emerged from two decades of rigorous research. Posner (2016) asserts that these five practices are instrumental in driving organisational success. They outline the behaviours and actions individuals should adopt to emerge as effective leaders. Furthermore, the LPI validation was not limited to a single domain; it encompassed studies conducted in the educational sector across various global jurisdictions. Notably, both teachers and other educational leaders have validated the LPI, attesting to its applicability and relevance in the educational context.

Population and Sample

This study took place online. The researcher conducted the survey to collect data from practicing teachers about their perspectives on workplace resistance and their school principals' vision of change. The study aimed to gather data from K-12 teachers from various jurisdictions. The invitation to participate in the study was shared via a Facebook ad. The survey was uploaded to the researcher's University of Alberta cloud space on Google Forms. Only K-12 practicing teachers were invited to complete the survey, regardless of their employment status, the type of school, academic program, or language teaching program they worked in.

Sampling

The study aimed to explore the relationship between a leadership vision of change and teachers' workplace resistance to projected change. It focused exclusively on collecting data from current K-12 teachers, making the target population of K-12 teachers in general. The Demographics Section of the survey, however, did gather data about the participants' workplaces. Teachers from all educational programs and K-12 schools were invited to participate.

The survey had a cross-sectional design. All reachable units of the target population were invited to participate, so no sampling procedure was conducted. This approach mirrored the survey design of the Elementary-Secondary Education Survey (ESES), which Statistics Canada administered annually since 2003. Determining the overall number of K-12 teachers in all schools was beyond the researcher's reach. The researcher used Cochran's (1977) formula to calculate the necessary sample size for the unknown population of K-12 teachers.

$$n = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{(0.05)^2} = 384.16 \approx 385$$

n = sample size

p = estimated proportion of the population which has the attribute = 0.5 (maximum value is used because variability in the proportion is unknown.)

q = 1 – p

e = acceptable sampling error (e = 0.05)

z score at confidence level of 95% = 1.96

Sampling Technique

This study employed convenience sampling to recruit participants for the survey. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where participants are selected based on their availability and willingness to take part in a study, rather than using a random or systematic sampling method (Gideon, 2012).

The convenience sampling used in this study was the only available technique to the researcher. The researcher attempted to recruit participants from Alberta through a different sampling technique. The researcher contacted various school boards via face-to-face meetings, telephone conversations, and emails to get their required approval and invite participants through random sampling. Most of the invitations were turned down by school boards. The only available recruitment method for this survey was through Facebook between March 10th and April 10th, 2023. The researcher created a Facebook page titled after the study and posted an advertisement to recruit K-12 teachers for the survey. The survey was set to appear only to those employed as K-12 teachers in regions including Canada, the United States, Europe, and the Middle East, aged between 22 and 65 years.

The Facebook advertisement was programmed to show up only to population of interest and the researcher implemented filtering criteria such as region, occupation, and age (Gideon, 2012, p. 72). The inclusion criteria encompassed K-12 teachers aged 22 to 64, located in North America, Europe, or the Middle East. Exclusion criteria were school principals or administrators, those outside the age range of 22 to 64, and those outside the specified regions. The survey,

which contained additional stratums in its Demographic section, was hosted on Google Forms, and participants responded online.

The advertisement reached the news feeds of 4,626,060 individuals at least once. Facebook did not specify the frequency of individual exposures to the advertisement. Therefore, the researcher assumed that some individuals encountered the advertisement multiple times but not necessarily took the survey more than once. The researcher lacked control over the advertisement's display frequency to each Facebook user. Of those exposed to the ad, 141,714 users clicked the survey link, constituting 3% of the viewers. Out of these, 882 users submitted the survey, which was 6.22% of the link-clickers. Ultimately, 591 K-12 teachers completed the survey. Participants who indicated they either did not comprehend the consent letter, were not current K-12 teachers, or had taken the survey previously, did not access the three main sections of the survey. This filtering accounted for the discrepancy between the total number of survey submissions and completions. Every participant who accessed the three primary survey sections responded to all the questions. A detailed breakdown of participants who completed the survey by jurisdiction is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Participants' Demographic Data: jurisdiction

Jurisdiction	Number of Participants
Alberta	160
other Canadian regions	199
Egypt	107
Germany	3
Iraq	18
Italy	1

Jordan	3
Kuwait	4
Lebanon	50
Oman	1
Saudi Arabia	27
The United States	1
Turkey	3
United Arab Emirates	5
No country indicated	9
Total number of participants	591

To generalize the findings, the researcher focused on regions with statistically significant numbers of teacher participants. Specifically, attention was given to three regions: Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The combined total of participants from these three regions was 466.

Recruiting Participants through Social Networking Sites

Using Facebook for research recruitment is a recognized method among researchers. For example, Kapp et al. (2013) utilized Facebook advertisements to recruit participants for a health-related study. They argued that "the ease of Facebook ad distribution for study recruitment could revolutionize health research, including the opportunity to recruit internationally" (p. 136). Thomson and Ito (2014) carried out a cross-sectional study examining privacy concerns associated with Facebook. They recruited participants from 18 countries via a Facebook advertisement in seven languages. When the response rate was lower than anticipated, they supplemented recruitment through snowballing from one of the researchers' Facebook pages and approached administrators of publicly searchable Facebook groups. They concluded that

Facebook held potential for cross-cultural studies. It is common for Facebook users to share survey recruitment advertisements with peers or in Facebook groups with shared interests. While snowball sampling is a non-probability technique, Heckathorn (1997) demonstrated that multiple snowball samples eventually converge on characteristics representative of the target population. Moreover, Gideon (2012) argued that "non-probability panels often claim to produce representative and therefore generalizable results" (p. 68).

In general, social networking sites offer a valuable recruitment tool, enabling researchers to access populations that may be challenging to reach through traditional research methods (Moreno et al., 2013). The growing accessibility of the internet and the popularity of social networking sites have simplified participant recruitment and survey conduction in educational research (Forgasz et al., 2017). Facebook, as the most popular social network site, allows profile owners to create an online presence, display personal information, establish an online social network, and communicate with others (Moreno et al., 2013). By 2023, the total number of active Facebook accounts globally reached 2.98 billion users (Dixon, 2023). Social networking websites made research more "feasible and low-cost," breaking down geographical barriers (Moreno et al., 2013). Another motivation for using Facebook in this study was to provide participants with a comfortable environment to answer questions about their school principals and workplace resistance without fear of identification.

Instrumentation

The survey comprised 44 questions, segmented into three primary sections. The first section contained six questions addressing various forms of workplace resistance in K-12 schools. The second section featured 30 LPI-Observer questions, aiming to capture teachers'

perspectives on their school principals' leadership. Questions in both the first and second sections utilized a five-point Likert scale: 1 = never, 2 = once in a while, 3 = sometimes, 4 = usually, 5 = almost always. The third section gathered demographic data through eight questions. All survey questions were presented in English, but an Arabic version was also advertised in the Middle East.

The first section, titled "Teachers' Forms of Resistance," presented six statements about resistance forms. These statements drew from literature on everyday resistance forms and power relations. Each statement depicted a type of workplace resistance that participants may adopt in opposition to the school leader. In the subsequent statistical analysis, this section represented teachers' workplace resistance. Participants indicated their agreement level using a 5-point Likert scale. Responses were scored, with totals ranging from 30 to 150. This range was chosen because the statistical analysis treated the five LPI practices as a singular entity.

In the second section, teachers assessed their school leader's practices, including the leader's vision, by responding to the "*Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer* (LPI)" (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). The LPI encompasses five leadership practices: *Model the Way*, *Inspire a Shared Vision*, *Challenge the Process*, *Enable Others to Act*, and *Encourage the Heart*. Each practice correlated with six essential behaviours, culminating in a 30-statement inventory.

Although the LPI traditionally employs a 10-point Likert scale, it was adapted to a five-point scale in this study for consistency with the rest of the survey. This adaptation was consistent with the LPI's development, as the current online version uses a five-point Likert scale (Posner, 2016). Part 2 of the survey consisted of LPI-Observer statements, covering the five exemplary LPI leadership practices. Each of the five LPI practices contained six statements. The

total score in each category reflected the sum of the six numerical values representing the participant's responses. The possible score range for each category spanned from six to 30. Before the research's commencement, permission to use the LPI was secured from the instrument's author (See Appendix).

The third section, titled "Demographic Information," comprised eight questions. These addressed gender, years of work experience, the school category where the participant worked, the educational stage of the school, the type of program or immersion of the school, and employment status (either full-time or part-time). The number of answer options varied based on the question. The survey did not contain any personal identifiers, ensuring participants' identities remained confidential.

Reliability of LPI

The *Leadership Practices Inventory* is an empirical assessment tool that measures The Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership framework, as designed by Kouzes and Posner. The LPI was utilized as a research instrument in several hundred academic studies across various fields (Posner, 2016). Posner's 2016 data analysis drew from nearly 2.8 million respondents spanning diverse organisations, countries, disciplines, and backgrounds. Posner (2016) highlighted that the internal reliability of both the LPI-Self and LPI-Observer editions was assessed using Cronbach's alpha (see to Table 2). This reliability test encompassed the five dimensions representing Kouzes and Posner's (2017) exemplary leadership practices. A total of 231,345 participants, with 130,515 men (56.4%) and 100,830 women (43.6%), completed the LPI-Self. Furthermore, 1,429,105 participants, comprising 774,114 men (54.2%) and 654,991 women (45.8%), completed the LPI-Observer. Both the LPI-Self and LPI-Observer participants

represented a wide array of ethnicities, age groups, educational backgrounds, nationalities, job titles, and employers, including various governmental entities and the private sector. Among those who took the LPI-Self, 17,997 were professionals in the field of education.

Table 2 presents the internal reliability of the LPI, as determined by Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Posner, 2016). For brevity in Table 2, each leadership practice was abbreviated as follows: Model the Way (Model), Inspire a Shared Vision (Inspire), Challenge the Process (Challenge), Enable Others to Act (Enable), and Encourage the Heart (Encourage).

Posner (2016) provides evidence to prove the robustness of the internal reliability of LPI across a wide range of sample populations. The sample population represents a variety of occupations (fields and disciplines), positions and hierarchical levels, industries, and organisations. Table 2 illustrates examples of ranges of internal reliability. Posner (2016) argues that most studies across professional settings, positions, and occupations that used LPI found no statistically significant gender differences (e.g., Erickson, 1992; Long, 1994; Bankes, 1999; Berry, 2012; Hunt, 2014).

Table 2

Ranges of Internal LPI Reliability by Occupation (Posner, 2016)

Occupation	Internal reliability range
Teachers	0.78 to 0.95
Women in executive positions in banking and higher education	0.71 to 0.82
College presidents	0.65 to 0.91
Female vice presidents in nonacademic affairs	0.70 to 0.89
Chief student affairs officers	0.70 to 0.91
Chief financial officers at community colleges	0.75 to 0.85
Department heads at King Saud University (Saudi Arabia)	0.65 to 0.74
Community college faculty	0.73 to 0.88

Validity of LPI

Various analyses indicate that the items within each of the five practices of LPI correspond more internally among themselves than they do with other factors (Posner, 2016). In her research, Adcock-Shantz (2011) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis on LPI and found:

> five interpretable factors, consistent with Kouzes and Posner's five factors—the five leadership practices of Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. The a priori hypothesis had five dimensions and the Scree plot confirmed the five dimensions/factors were correct. The five factors were rotated using a Varimax rotation. The rotated solution yielded the following five factors: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart, which accounted for 90% of the item variance (p. 103).

LPI was also validated in educational organisations. Nolan (1992) conducted a structured interview protocol in a school setting and reported that participants validated 81% of the salient principal scores as actual patterns of behaviour. The five-factor structure of LPI was essentially presented in a study involving school administrators and teachers (Stuart, 1999). Moreover, the five-factor structure was essentially replicated in a study involving school administrators and teachers, and the framework was explained over 72% of the variance in a study of chief faculty officers in Thailand (Amnuckmanee, 2002).

LPI was also validated across different regions and languages. Zagorsek, Stough, and Jakli (2006) intentionally selected subjects from geographically and culturally diverse settings. In

their study, LPI was administered to MBA students (mostly line and middle managers) from the United States (US), India, Nigeria, South Korea, Argentina and Slovenia with administering translated versions for respondents who did not speak English. Sample sizes ranged from 110 in the US to 162 in Argentina. The percentage of females ranged from 31% in Nigeria to 48% in the US. In all, there were 801 respondents. Forty-five percent of the respondents were older than 30 years. Thirty-three percent had more than 10 years of work experience, 53% had between one and 10 years of work experience and 15% had no previous work experience. Females represented 39% of the sample. The reliability of the instrument scales (Cronbach's alpha) ranged from 0.62 to 0.72. The LPI exhibited a high degree of structural equivalence. Previous studies suggest that the instructions and items of the LPI are easy to understand and translate into different languages (Posner, 2016), and that ''there are no statements that directly reflect American cultural values that could potentially confuse respondents from other nations'' (Tsend, 2000, p. 93). Results of the multigroup confirmatory factor performed on the Zagorsek, Stough, and Jakli (2006) sample showed that the LPI five-factor structure emerged in all nations studied. Zagorsek, Stough, and Jakli (2006) found that most of the items that were supposed to load on a particular factor did load on that factor; of 180 loadings (six groups × 30 items), 175 were significantly different from 0. Furthermore, most of the factor loadings (for 21 out of 30 items) were equal (showing no statistically significant differences) across cultures studied.

Respondents came from different cultures with different worldviews, customs, religions and levels of economic development. Although MBA students were similar in some respects such as education, Zagorsek, Stough, and Jakli (2006) found that each sample was quite heterogeneous, in the sense that respondents came from a wide variety of industries, companies

and departments. Zagorsek, Stough, and Jakli (2006) ensured increased validity of their conclusions by including them all in one sample.

Previous studies concluded that leadership scores were consistently associated with important aspects of managerial and organisational effectiveness, such as workgroup performance, team cohesiveness, commitment, satisfaction, and credibility (Posner, 2016). The relationship between a six-item Likert scale assessing various aspects of a leader's effectiveness (Cronbach's alpha = 0.98) and practices (as measured by the LPI) was examined utilizing only the responses from observers (Posner, 2016). Participants who took the LPI-Observer survey provided relatively independent assessments and thereby minimized potential self-report bias (Posner, 2016). Regression analysis was performed, with leader effectiveness as the dependent variable and the five leadership practices as the independent variables ($F = 318.88$, $p < 0.0001$) (Posner, 2016). Leadership practices explained more than 55% (adjusted R2 = 0.756) of the variance around constituents' assessments of their leaders' effectiveness (Posner, 2016).

In a study that included a sample of directors and employees at a retail firm, Mitchell (2015) concluded that organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and productivity were significantly correlated with each of the five leadership practices on LPI.

LPI in Educational Research

The LPI was frequently employed in educational research. For instance, Bankes (1999) utilized the LPI to survey teachers from seven elementary schools, aiming to compare differences in teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership behaviours in high- and low-achieving urban elementary schools in Colorado. Adcock-Shantz (2011) used the LPI-Self

version to assess the effectiveness of a leadership development program. In this study, 49 employees and 29 supervisors at a Southwestern community college in the United States were surveyed. Kirshtein (2012) applied the LPI to survey around 250 South Carolina teachers and their principals, exploring differences in perceptions of effective instructional leadership behaviours in charter schools. Moore (2012) incorporated the LPI alongside The Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire to delve into the relationship between the LPI's Five Leadership Practices and teachers' morale in two distinct South Carolina high schools.

Moreover, the LPI found application in global educational research, administered in various languages. For example, it was used to survey school leaders in the Philippines (Olandria, 2009, as cited in Posner, 2016) and department heads at King Saud University in Saudi Arabia (Alfayez, 2014, as cited in Posner, 2016). In Jordan, Abu-Tineh (2008, as cited in Posner, 2016) employed the LPI to survey a sample of 1,000 public school teachers from basic and high schools in Amman. The aim was to determine if Kouzes and Posner's Transformational Leadership Model could offer practical leadership guidance to Jordanian school principals. Yavuz (2010) adapted a Turkish version of the LPI and used it to provide practical reform agenda suggestions, surveying a sample of 436 teachers selected randomly. Notably, the LPI was available in multiple languages, including Spanish, Simplified Chinese, Brazilian Portuguese, German, and Mongolian (Posner, 2016).

Reliability of the Collected Data

Reliability of Forms of Resistance Section

The case processing summary, as presented in Table 3, indicates a complete dataset with 466 valid cases and no exclusions. This total response rate of 100% suggests a comprehensive dataset without missing or invalid responses, thereby enhancing the reliability and generalizability of the survey results.

Table 3

Forms of Resistance: Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	466	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	466	100.0

*Cronbach's Alpha Test

The reliability of the survey instrument, as measured by Cronbach's Alpha in Table 4, is reported to be 0.65, with a slightly higher Alpha based on standardized items at 0.668. This indicates a moderate level of internal consistency among the six items in the survey. While a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.65 is generally considered acceptable in exploratory research, which is still an acceptable value (Raharjanti et al., 2022). This suggests that the items are reasonably consistent in measuring teachers' forms of resistance.

Table 4

Forms of Resistance: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.65	.668	6

*Cronbach's Alpha Test

The item-total statistics in Table 5 provide a detailed view of each item's contribution to the scale. The 'Scale Mean if Item Deleted' column suggests that the removal of any single item does not significantly increase the overall mean of the scale, indicating a balanced contribution from each item. The 'Scale Variance if Item Deleted' column shows a slight increase in variance upon the deletion of any item, which is typical in scales with a small number of items. The 'Corrected Item-Total Correlation' values, ranging from 0.320 to 0.484, indicate a moderate positive correlation between each item and the total score. This suggests that each item is a fair contributor to the scale, though some items (e.g., 'not attending staff meetings') have a stronger correlation than others (e.g., 'Intentional be absence or tardiness'). The 'Squared Multiple Correlation' values are relatively low, indicating that other variables not included in the scale may explain the variance in each item. This suggests potential areas for further exploration in the scale's construct validity. Finally, the 'Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted' values suggest that the deletion of any single item does not significantly improve the overall Alpha, reinforcing the notion that each item contributes meaningfully to the scale's consistency.

Table 5

*Forms of Resistance: Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Reduce communication	8.42	9.706	.462	.254	.571
Intentional delay to submit paperwork	9.52	11.446	.356	.233	.613
No social gathering	8.45	9.315	.358	.205	.630
not attending staff meetings.	9.55	11.013	.484	.334	.576
Tell a joke about the principal	9.21	10.874	.361	.147	.611
Intentional be absence or tardiness	9.73	12.280	.320	.190	.627

*Cronbach's Alpha Test

In summary, the reliability analysis of the survey instrument, as reflected in the Cronbach's Alpha test, indicates a moderate level of internal consistency. The scale demonstrates a reasonable degree of reliability.

Reliability of the LPI Section

The reliability statistics in Table 6, based on a sample size of 466 cases (N = 466), are particularly striking, with Cronbach's Alpha attaining an exceptional value of 0.979. This figure, mirrored in the Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items, denotes an extraordinary level of internal consistency among the 30 items of the LPI section of the survey. The substantial number of cases further reinforces the robustness of these findings. This is consistent with other studies involving teachers taking the LPI, as shown in Table 2. Such a high alpha coefficient, derived from a significant sample, is emblematic of superlative reliability, suggesting that the items are in robust alignment and collectively measure the underlying construct with remarkable precision.

Table 6

LPI: Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.979	.979	30

*Cronbach's Alpha Test

The item-total statistics, as presented in Table 7, offer a nuanced examination of each item's contribution to the scale. The 'Scale Mean if Item Deleted' values exhibit minimal variation, suggesting that the exclusion of any single item does not disproportionately skew the scale's mean score. This uniformity is indicative of a well-calibrated scale, where each item

contributes equitably to the collective measurement. The 'Scale Variance if Item Deleted' values, while exhibiting some degree of variability, do not signal any significant disparities, further affirming the scale's equilibrium. The 'Corrected Item-Total Correlation' values are notably robust, ranging from 0.532 to 0.852. These substantial correlations underscore each item's strong and positive association with the total score, reinforcing their relevance and congruence with the overarching construct. The 'Squared Multiple Correlation' values are also noteworthy, with the majority of items demonstrating a significant proportion of variance accounted for by the other items in the scale. This indicates a high degree of inter-item coherence and synergy. The 'Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted' column consistently exhibits that the removal of any individual item does not materially enhance the overall alpha, which remains steadfastly high. This underscores the integral role of each item in the scale's overall reliability and robustness.

Table 7

LPI: Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others.	91.39	929.244	.673	.561	.979
Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	91.50	933.033	.680	.581	.979
Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities.	91.88	926.088	.721	.603	.979
Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with.	91.27	917.902	.821	.748	.978
Praises people for a job well done.	91.23	922.215	.762	.704	.978

Makes certain that people adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed upon.	91.18	946.180	.532	.370	.979
Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.	91.74	922.304	.761	.654	.978
Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	91.52	927.321	.730	.617	.979
Actively listens to diverse points of view.	91.41	916.522	.812	.722	.978
Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.	91.48	922.740	.752	.634	.978
Follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes.	91.28	927.444	.743	.644	.978
Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	91.66	915.665	.839	.744	.978
Actively searches for innovative ways to improve what we do.	91.59	917.820	.832	.744	.978
Treats others with dignity and respect.	90.85	929.324	.710	.644	.979
Makes sure that people are creatively recognized for their contributions to the success of our project.	91.44	919.159	.803	.720	.978
Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance.	92.23	919.872	.736	.667	.979
Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	91.90	919.924	.803	.721	.978
Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.	91.69	916.937	.790	.685	.978

Involves people in the decisions that directly impact their job performance.	91.67	915.951	.815	.706	.978
Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	91.61	922.407	.756	.708	.978
Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organisation.	91.62	918.116	.841	.762	.978
Paints the “big picture” of what we aspire to accomplish.	91.53	916.753	.841	.782	.978
Identifies measurable milestones that keep projects moving forward.	91.73	919.498	.817	.728	.978
Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	91.13	934.708	.625	.558	.979
Tells stories of encouragement about the good work of others.	91.63	917.902	.799	.717	.978
Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership.	91.53	913.153	.818	.703	.978
Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	91.49	914.715	.836	.754	.978
Takes initiative in anticipating and responding to change.	91.58	915.552	.852	.767	.978
Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	91.52	917.747	.827	.731	.978
Gets personally involved in recognizing people and celebrating accomplishments.	91.58	917.555	.811	.756	.978

*Cronbach’s Alpha Test

In summary, the reliability analysis of the LPI section of the survey instrument, as reflected through the Cronbach's Alpha test, demonstrates an exceptionally high level of internal consistency. The scale exhibits a remarkable degree of reliability, with each item contributing significantly and synergistically to the measurement of the underlying construct. Given that the LPI section of the survey is the main instrument to reach findings in this study, this elevated level of reliability is pivotal in ensuring the validity and credibility of the research findings, laying a solid foundation for the subsequent analytical and interpretive endeavors within the thesis.

Validity of the Study

External Validity

Mozersky et al. (2021) defined external validity as "the extent to which study results will generalize outside the study context" (p. 43). Christensen (2007) argued that external validity was an "inferential process." Since most participants, where statistical significance was observed, hailed from Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt, the generalizability of the findings was limited to K-12 teachers from these three regions.

Internal Validity

Internal validity was achieved when there were no confounding sources, ensuring that effects on the dependent variables were solely due to the independent variables (Leary, 2017). Leary (2017) described a confound as uncontrollable variables, other than the independent ones, that influenced results in a systematic manner.

One potential threat to internal validity was attrition, which arose when participants could not complete the study for various reasons (Leary, 2017). No attrition, however, was observed among the 591 participants in this study. Every participant fully recorded and submitted their answers. Participants completed the survey only once, and no follow-up surveys were administered. An Arabic translation was provided for those more comfortable with the Arabic language. In most cases, the survey took between 10 to 20 minutes to complete and did not contain any questions that could identify participants. Before accessing the survey questions, participants were assured of the anonymity of their responses and informed about data storage and processing procedures. Additionally, two reminders were posted on the same Facebook page where the survey ad appeared. The ad was set to display to any K-12 teacher who may have been interested in participating.

Another potential threat to internal validity was history or history effects (Leary, 2017). To mitigate history effects, the Facebook ad for the study remained available for one month, from March 10th to April 10th, 2023. Participants had the flexibility to complete the survey at their convenience. Furthermore, the survey was presented through an informal channel: a Facebook ad with commenting disabled. This approach aimed to reduce any potential sensitivity arising from participants fearing identification.

Data Collection

The researcher obtained permission from the Research Ethics Board of the University of Alberta to conduct his study on Facebook (see Appendix). He established a Facebook page bearing the study's title and disseminated an ad, inviting practicing K-12 teachers to participate by completing the survey. The ad, tailored to appear solely to K-12 teachers, contained a link to

the survey on Google Forms. This survey provided details about the study, the researcher, data collection and analysis procedures, confidentiality, participants' rights, and potential risks associated with survey completion. All steps, from uploading survey questions to posting the Facebook ad, adhered to the University of Alberta Research Ethics Board's guidelines and the study's approved parameters.

Before accessing the survey questions, participants received assurances regarding their rights, data processing, and storage. They also confirmed their current employment as K-12 teachers and that this was their inaugural survey attempt.

The online invitation method was adopted after several school boards in Alberta and the Alberta Teachers Association declined to facilitate the study through their channels. Engaging teachers via social networking sites and informal teacher-only gatherings potentially made participants more at ease. This approach further reassured participants that their school boards and principals would remain unaware of their survey participation.

Data was collected from self-identified K-12 teachers. The gathered information was anonymous, ensuring no participant could be identified. While it was conceivable that individuals outside the target demographic viewed the study's Facebook ad and participated out of curiosity, or that some participants responded multiple times, measures were in place to mitigate these possibilities. The researcher incorporated three preliminary questions in the survey, asking participants to affirm their current K-12 employment and that this was their first survey completion. If participants indicated otherwise, they were directed to submit the survey without viewing subsequent questions. Moreover, the survey's 44 primary questions inherently filtered responses, making it challenging for non-practicing teachers to respond accurately.

To minimize coverage errors, the Facebook ad was specifically configured to display only to K-12 teachers. The ad's commenting feature was deactivated to enhance participant confidentiality. The informal and confidential recruitment method likely encouraged many teachers to comfortably complete the survey. Data was initially stored on Google Forms within the researcher's University of Alberta Google Drive space. Subsequently, participant responses were transferred to a Google Sheets file, downloaded, and password-protected on the researcher's personal laptop. The researcher then reviewed and, where necessary, anonymized the responses using dummy codes.

Data Analysis

This study employed a quantitative method. K-12 teachers were invited to complete a three-section survey. The researcher utilized version 29.0 of the SPSS software for data analysis. Data were initially collected in a Google Form, subsequently transferred to a Google Sheet, and then downloaded in Microsoft Excel format. This format encompassed all variables and each of the five subscales of the LPI. To assess the relationship between the five LPI practices and participants' demographics, a mean score was calculated for each participant across all LPI questions. Demographic data were anonymized using dummy codes. Responses in the "Teachers' Forms of Resistance" section underwent separate descriptive analysis.

The researcher double-checked participants' scores in the survey to ensure accuracy. Before conducting regression analysis, the study verified the One-way ANOVA assumptions of normality of dependent variables and equality of variance (Kozak & Piepho, 2018). After data screening, the research hypotheses were tested using One-way ANOVA tests, with exceptions: on two occasions, a t-test was performed, and on another, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted.

An alpha level of 0.05 was adopted, consistent with conventions in humanities research (Everitt & Skrondal, 2010).

Data were organized based on the Demographic section, which included educational level, employment type, years of experience, work jurisdiction, educational program, school type, gender, and work municipality. The researcher then analyzed participants' mean scores in the LPI-Observer assessment to discern any trends based on these demographics.

As outlined earlier in this chapter, the 30 behavioural statements of the LPI were scored using a five-point Likert scale. While the LPI is typically scored on a 10-point Likert scale, employing a five-point scale for its 30 statements was not unprecedented (Posner, 2016). This adaptation aimed to simplify the survey-taking experience for participants and ensure consistency with other sections of the survey. Participants selected the score that most closely reflected their level of agreement with their school principal's leadership behaviour as described in each statement. The specific points and their corresponding values in this survey were as follows:

1 = never

2 = once in a while

3 = sometimes

4 = usually

5 = almost always

Descriptive Statistics

This section provides a detailed examination of the descriptive statistics derived from the survey data. This analysis is instrumental in painting a vivid picture of the demographic characteristics of participant teachers. By dissecting the data, the researcher's aim is to explore the nuanced patterns and trends that reside within the responses of our diverse participant pool. This endeavor not only serves as the backbone of our empirical findings but also lays the groundwork for a deeper understanding of the intricate dynamics between school leadership and teacher resistance.

Table 8 presents data on Albertan teachers across various categories. In the gender category, females score higher (3.15) than males (2.82), with unspecified genders leading (3.53). For years of experience, teachers with ≤ 5 years have the highest score (3.48), decreasing with more experience. Teachers in Islamic schools have the highest mean (3.61), while public schools have the lowest (2.99). Differences by educational level are minor, all around 3.10. Special education teachers score highest (3.65) in program type, contrasting with 'other programs' (2.53). Full-time teachers average 3.12, higher than part-time (2.95) and substitutes (2.92). Urban teachers (3.14) slightly outscore rural counterparts (3.04).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Characteristics of Albertan Teachers

Category	Sub-category	n	Mean	Standard Deviation
gender	males	27	2.82	1.10
	females	126	3.15	1.07
	non-binary	2	3.28	.26
	preferred not to say	5	3.53	.86
	≤ 5 years	38	3.48	.84

years of experience	6-10 years	33	3.08	1.09
	11-15 years	28	3.07	1.09
	16-20 years	26	2.93	1.17
	≥ 21 years	35	2.90	1.12
school type	public	107	2.99	1.06
	private	9	3.24	.92
	Islamic faith-oriented	23	3.61	.90
	Catholic faith-oriented	21	3.13	1.20
educational level	kindergarten	5	3.21	1.32
	elementary school	86	3.08	1.13
	junior high school	36	3.13	.95
	high school	33	3.15	1.02
program type	main program	131	3.07	1.05
	immersion program	8	2.96	1.10
	special education	17	3.65	1.06
	other programs	4	2.53	1.11
employment type	full-time	150	3.12	1.07
	part-time	8	2.95	1.10
	substitute teacher	2	2.92	.12
municipality	urban	111	3.14	1.06
	rural	49	3.04	1.08

Table 9 offers an insightful perspective on the descriptive data for participants from other Canadian regions. Regarding gender, males register a mean score of 3.32, outpacing females, who exhibit a mean of 3.04. Interestingly, participants who preferred not to disclose their gender have the lowest mean score (2.64), hinting at potential underlying factors worth investigating further. Analyzing years of experience, the highest mean score is evidenced in the 16-20 years bracket (3.33), contradicting the usual expectation of more experienced teachers scoring higher, as those with ≥ 21 years have a mean score of only 2.96. Within school types, the private category, albeit based on a small sample, leads with a mean of 3.92, followed closely by the Islamic faith-oriented category (3.74). Public schools rank the lowest with a mean of 3.03. When scrutinizing educational levels, a discernible decline in mean scores is observed from junior high

school (3.33) to high school (2.82). For program types, special education teachers appear to have the most elevated mean score (3.49). Notably, part-time employees (3.63) outperform their full-time counterparts (3.02) in the employment category. Last, a negligible difference is seen between urban and rural municipalities, with the urban set having a slight advantage at 3.09 compared to 3.03 for the rural cohort.

Table 9

*Demographic Characteristics of Teachers from other Canadian Regions**

Category	Sub-category	n	Mean	Standard Deviation
gender	males	21	3.32	1.03
	females	171	3.04	1.10
	non-binary	1	3.27	.
	preferred not to say	6	2.64	1.20
years of experience	≤ 5 years	19	3.29	1.10
	6-10 years	30	2.95	1.21
	11-15 years	39	2.88	.99
	16-20 years	47	3.33	1.07
	≥ 21 years	64	2.96	1.11
school type	public	169	3.03	1.11
	Private	3	3.92	.18
	Islamic faith-oriented	6	3.74	.69
	Catholic faith-oriented	21	2.97	1.09
educational level	kindergarten	21	3.11	1.17
	elementary school	97	3.06	1.11
	junior high school	36	3.33	1.06
	high school	45	2.82	1.04
program type	main program	147	3.00	1.08
	immersion program	26	3.03	1.15
	special education	17	3.49	1.11
	other programs	9	3.34	1.10
employment type	full-time	182	3.02	1.11
	part-time	14	3.63	.80
	substitute teacher	3	2.94	.93
municipality	urban	116	3.09	1.12

	rural	83	3.03	1.07

*Descriptive statistics

In Table 10, which presents the descriptive data concerning the Egyptian teachers, several notable patterns emerge across different categories. Regarding gender, the mean scores for males, females, and those who preferred not to specify their gender are closely clustered, with scores of 3.42, 3.39, and 3.47 respectively, indicating minimal gender-based differences in the scores. However, the standard deviation values reveal a larger dispersion of scores among females compared to males. Analyzing scores based on years of experience, teachers with 16-20 years of experience outperformed other groups, boasting the highest mean score of 3.57. Conversely, teachers in Islamic faith-oriented schools had the lowest mean score (2.94) among all school types, whereas those in public schools exhibited the highest mean (3.52). When segmented by educational level taught, high school teachers marginally outperformed elementary school teachers with scores of 3.49 versus 3.48 respectively, while kindergarten teachers showed a distinctly lower score (1.43). Intriguingly, substitute teachers, despite their minimal representation, achieved the highest mean score (4.63) in the employment type category, and part-time teachers consistently outscored their full-time counterparts. Last, a marginal difference was observed between urban and rural municipalities, with teachers in rural settings achieving a higher mean score of 3.53 in comparison to their urban counterparts, who averaged a score of 3.30.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Characteristics of Egyptian Teachers

Category	Sub-category	n	Mean	Standard Deviation
gender	males	54	3.42	.78
	females	52	3.39	.99
	non-binary	0	N/A	N/A
	preferred not to say	1	3.47	.
years of experience	≤ 5 years	30	3.47	.98
	6-10 years	18	3.33	1.09
	11-15 years	20	3.35	.81
	16-20 years	16	3.57	.74
	≥ 21 years	23	3.31	.78
school type	public	64	3.52	.73
	private	34	3.28	1.02
	Islamic faith-oriented	6	2.94	1.07
	Catholic faith-oriented	3	3.13	1.80
educational level taught	kindergarten	1	1.43	.
	elementary school	47	3.48	.94
	junior high school	24	3.20	.90
	high school	35	3.49	.74
program type	main program	75	3.47	.89
	immersion program	1	2.5	.
	special education	6	3.1	.90
	other programs	25	3.33	.86
employment type	full-time	84	3.27	.89
	part-time	21	3.81	.65
	substitute teacher	2	4.63	.00
municipality	urban	61	3.30	.95
	rural	46	3.53	.78

Online Survey: Ethical Considerations

Online survey studies, such as the one conducted by the researcher, carry risks like potential third-party access to participants' information (Singh & Sagar, 2022). Adhering to the University of Alberta Research Ethics Board (REB2) guidelines, the researcher utilized an

anonymous Facebook page for the survey and disabled comments to ensure participant anonymity. The survey began with an informed consent letter outlining the study's risks, benefits, objectives, and data handling procedures. Participants acknowledged their rights and expressed their intent to participate. The survey's promotion on Facebook targeted only adult K-12 teachers.

Chapter Summary

This study evaluated K-12 teachers' views regarding their principals' leadership practices and potential forms of resistance teachers may adopt in opposition. Chapter Three detailed the quantitative methodology of the study, encompassing the population, methodology, and instrumentation. This included a discussion on the Leadership Practices Inventory and other survey sections. This chapter also outlined the procedures for data collection and analysis. Chapter Four delved into the analysis and results of the gathered quantitative data.

Chapter Four: Analysis of Data

Introduction

Chapter Three outlined the research design, methodology, and data collection procedures. It detailed the target population and the instruments used for data collection. The chapter also elucidated the methods employed to analyze the data. This chapter presents the findings of the online quantitative study that recruited K-12 teachers via Facebook. Sufficient participation from Egypt, Alberta, and other parts of Canada allowed for generalization to these regions. Responses from other regions were excluded due to insufficient participation, rendering the findings non-generalizable to those areas. Initially, this chapter offers descriptive statistics for the Forms of Resistance section and the Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer. It then reports on the assumption of one-way ANOVA normality of data distribution, followed by non-parametric ANOVA analyses where required. Subsequently, findings addressing the study's research question and hypotheses are presented, culminating in a summary of key findings.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The study aimed to explore teachers' perceptions of their school principals' vision of change and their presumptions about workplace resistance. The research question (RQ) and hypotheses (H) addressed were:

RQ: How do teachers resist the leader's vision?

H1: There are significant differences in K-12 teachers' views about their school principals' leadership practices based on the region they are located in (Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions).

$H_0 1$: There are no significant differences in K-12 teachers' views about their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance based on the region they are located in (Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions).

H2: Gender influences K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance, with differences between male and female teachers.

$H_0 2$: Gender has no effect on K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance.

H3: Teachers' years of experience are positively correlated with their views on the effectiveness of their school principals' leadership practices and their willingness to engage in forms of resistance.

$H_0 3$: Teachers' years of experience are not correlated with their views on the effectiveness of their school principals' leadership practices and their willingness to engage in forms of resistance.

H4: K-12 teachers who teach different educational levels (e.g., elementary, middle, high school) have differing opinions about the leadership practices of their school principals and the forms of resistance they employ.

$H_0 4$: K-12 teachers who teach different educational levels (e.g., elementary, middle, high school) do not have differing opinions about the leadership practices of their school principals and the forms of resistance they employ.

H5: Full-time, part-time, and substitute teachers differ in their perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and the forms of resistance they engage in.

$H_0 5$: Full-time, part-time, and substitute teachers do not differ in their perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and the forms of resistance they engage in.

Data collection involved a three-section survey: Forms of Resistance, Leadership Practices Inventory LPI-Observer, and Demographics. Through this survey, quantitative data were obtained and subsequently analyzed.

Findings and Results

In this section, the comprehensive results and findings from the study are presented, thoroughly aligned with the research question at hand. Drawing from methodologies explained in Chapter Three, a non-parametric One-way ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis test) was employed for the data analysis using the SPSS software version 29. This choice was ideal for our dataset, which did not adhere to a normal distribution. The subsequent findings are categorized into descriptive statistics, detailed outcomes of the Kruskal-Wallis test, and an in-depth discussion linking back to the central research question, contrasting the results with existing literature. Although descriptive data for the Forms of Resistance and LPI sections are presented below, the data analysis focused on the LPI and Demographics sections of the survey only.

Table 11 provides a comprehensive statistical overview of forms of resistance across different regions, specifically Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The data reveals notable regional variations in resistance measures. In Alberta, the mean resistance score is 1.99 with a standard error of 0.04, and the 95% confidence interval ranges narrowly from 1.91 to

2.06, suggesting a relatively consistent level of resistance across the sample. The standard deviation is 0.48, indicating moderate variability within the data. Comparatively, other Canadian regions exhibit a slightly higher mean resistance score of 2.07, with a standard error of 0.03. The confidence interval is slightly broader (2.00 to 2.14), and the standard deviation is identical to Alberta's. However, the skewness and kurtosis values are higher, indicating a more asymmetrical and peaked distribution of resistance scores. In Egypt, the mean resistance score is lower at 1.87, with a standard error of 0.06. The broader confidence interval (1.76 to 1.98) and higher variance (0.33) and standard deviation (0.57) suggest greater variability in resistance levels. The skewness and kurtosis values are the highest among the regions, reflecting a more pronounced asymmetry and sharp-tailed distribution. This analysis underscores the importance of regional context in understanding the dynamics of resistance, with each region displaying distinct statistical characteristics in their resistance patterns.

For teachers, such resistance may not always overt or directed against the school principal himself or herself. For a deeper exploration into the potential reasons behind these patterns among teachers, Chapter Five offers a comprehensive discussion and presumed explanations.

Table 11

Teachers' Forms of Resistance by Region: Descriptive Statistics

		Alberta		other Canadian regions		Egypt	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Mean		1.99	.04	2.07	.03	1.87	.06
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	1.91		2.00		1.76	

	Upper Bound	2.06		2.14		1.98	
5% Trimmed Mean		1.97		2.05		1.83	
Median		2.00		2.00		1.75	
Variance		.23		.23		.33	
Std. Deviation		.48		.48		.57	
Minimum		1.00		1.13		1.00	
Maximum		3.75		4.13		4.13	
Range		2.75		3.00		3.13	
Interquartile Range		.63		.63		.75	
Skewness		.53	.19	.96	.17	1.15	.23
Kurtosis		.54	.38	1.95	.34	1.64	.46

Table 12 delineates the descriptive data for the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) across three regions: Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. With a sample size of 107, Egypt registers the highest mean LPI score of 3.40, accompanied by a standard deviation of 0.88, suggesting that leadership practices in this region, on average, are marginally superior and somewhat less dispersed than in the other two regions. Alberta, comprising a larger sample of 160, exhibits a mean score of 3.11 with a notably higher standard deviation of 1.06, indicating a broader dispersion of scores around the mean compared to Egypt. Other Canadian regions, with the most substantial sample size of 199, present a slightly lower mean LPI score of 3.06 and the highest variability, as shown by a standard deviation of 1.10. When amalgamating the data from all three regions, the combined mean settles at 3.16 with a standard deviation of 1.05, reflecting the overall leadership practices and their distribution across the entire dataset. The results underscore regional variations in leadership practices and the extent of their consistency or variability within each region.

Table 12

*Teachers' Ratings of their School Principals**

	Alberta	other Canadian regions	Egypt	Total
N	160	199	107	466
Mean	3.11	3.06	3.40	3.16
Standard Deviation	1.06	1.10	.88	1.05

*LPI Descriptive Data by Region

Testing of ANOVA Assumptions

Before conducting a One-way ANOVA test to explore potential correlation between LPI mean scores of participants and their jurisdictions, the normality assumption was violated in each of the three jurisdictions of Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. Table 13 displays the results of the Normality assumption test for the LPI means of participants from Alberta. The significance value in Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is 0.200 indicating the dataset is normally distributed. In contrast, the p-value of 0.001 in the Shapiro-Wilk test suggests that the data from the LPI scores for Alberta participants significantly deviate from a normal distribution, according to the Shapiro-Wilk. The researcher assumed the dataset of Albertan teachers is not normally distributed.

Table 13

Normality Test for LPI Mean Scores Among Alberta Participants

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LPI mean scores	.061	160	.200*	.968	160	.001

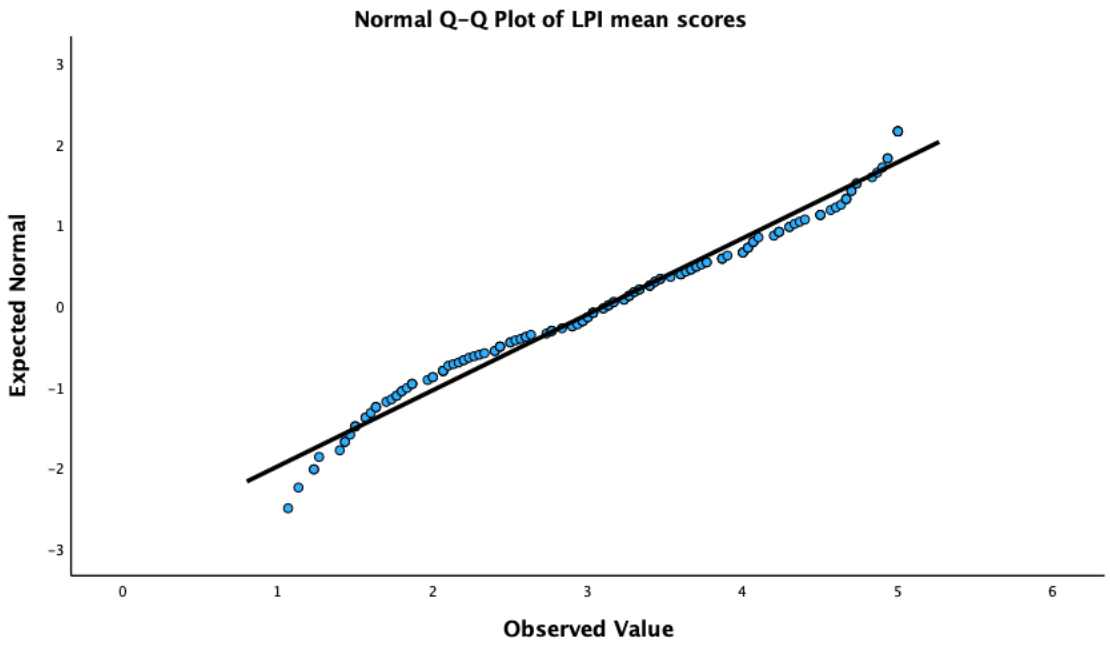

Figure 1. Q-Q plot shows the deviation of the dataset for Albertan participants from normality distribution.

Table 14 presents the results of the normality assumption test for the LPI mean scores of participants from Canadian regions other than Alberta. The p-value of 0.005 in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is less than 0.05, suggesting that the data from participants in other Canadian regions than Alberta significantly deviate from a normal distribution. Shapiro-Wilk, p-value is smaller than 0.001, confirms that the data from these regions' participants do not meet the assumption of normality according to the Shapiro-Wilk test.

Table 14

Normality Test for LPI Mean Scores: Participants the Other Canadian Regions

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LPI mean scores	.078	199	.005	.962	199	<.001

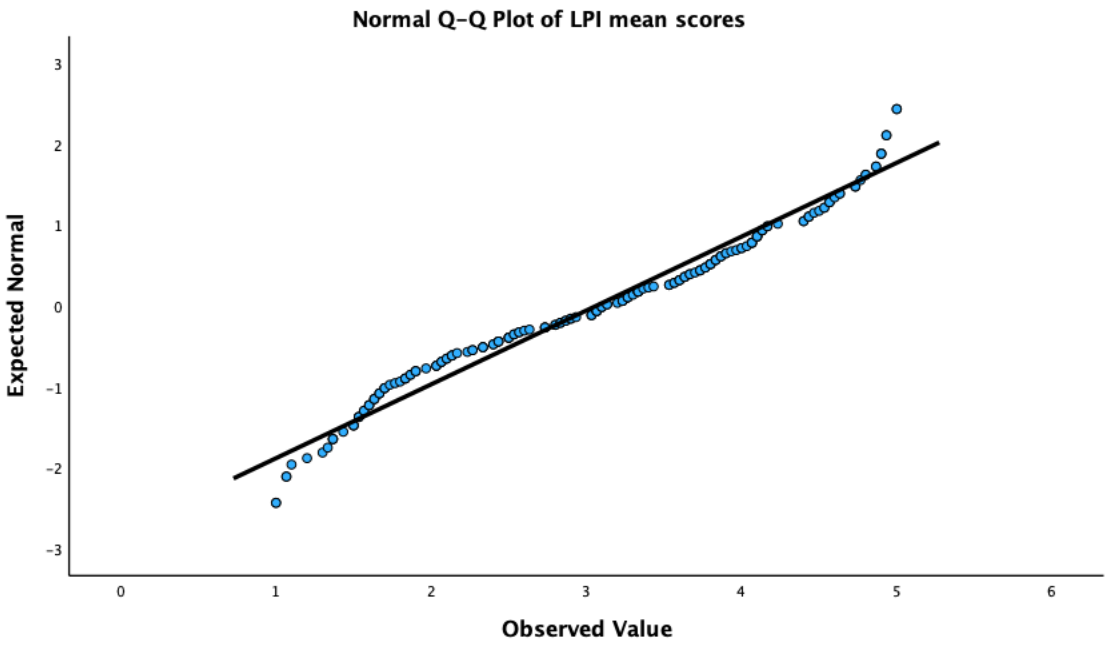

Figure 2. Q-Q plot displays the dataset for participants from other Canadian regions are not normally distributed.

Table 15 presents the results of the Normality assumption test for the LPI mean scores for Egyptian participants. In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the p-value (0.009) is less than 0.05. Therefore, the data for the LPI mean scores does not fully meet the assumption of normality. This conclusion is confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilk test where the p-value (0.003) is also less than 0.05. Consequently, the data for the LPI mean scores does not meet the assumption of normality based on the Shapiro-Wilk test as well.

Table 15

Normality Test for LPI Mean Scores Among Egyptian Participants

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LPI mean scores	.101	107	.009	.960	107	.003

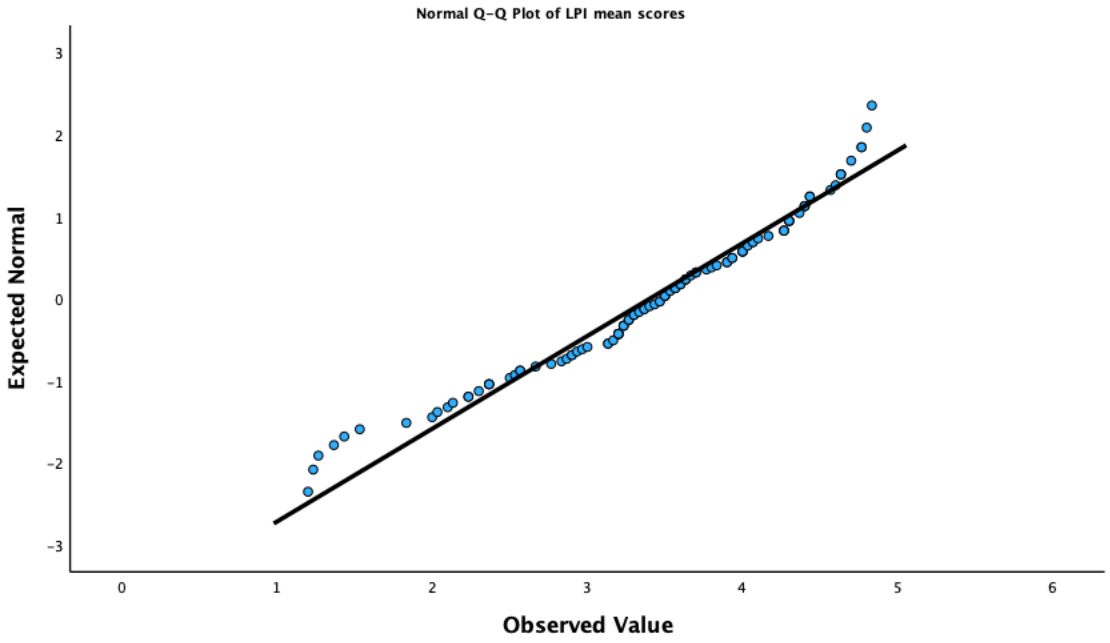

Figure 3. Q-Q plot shows departure of the dataset for Egyptian participants from normality distribution.

In the context of the study, the survey data's non-normal distribution can be attributed to several factors. First, real-world data, especially from human respondents, often deviates from the idealized bell curve due to inherent variability in human behaviours and perceptions (Field, 2009). The diverse backgrounds, experiences, and contexts of the teachers could have introduced variability in the responses. Second, the survey's design, including the type of questions and

response scales, may have influenced the way participants responded, leading to clustering of responses at certain points (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In summary, the combination of inherent human variability, potential sampling bias, and survey design intricacies could explain the non-normal distribution of the survey data.

Further, the non-normal distribution of the survey data, particularly when participants responded to the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) using a Likert scale, can be attributed to the inherent nature of ordinal data. Likert scales produce ordinal data, which means that while the intervals between points may represent consistent differences, the data itself does not necessarily have true equidistant properties (Jamieson, 2004). Consequently, the assumption of equal intervals, crucial for normal distribution, is violated. Furthermore, when survey participants respond to Likert items, they often exhibit tendencies like acquiescence bias or central tendency bias, leading to skewed distributions (Weijters et al., 2010). Additionally, the specific context or subject of the survey can lead to ceiling or floor effects, where respondents predominantly choose the highest or lowest categories, respectively. Such clustering of responses can further deviate from a normal distribution. In essence, the ordinal nature of Likert scales, coupled with respondent biases and the survey's context, can collectively account for the non-normal distribution of the data.

Testing of Hypotheses

Testing of Hypothesis One

The research question asked how teachers resist the leader's vision. Teachers' workplace resistance is influenced by how they perceive the leader's practices indicated by LPI. Cultural context can determine how teachers see their school principals' practices and how they resist

leader's vision. It was hypothesized that there are significant differences in K-12 teachers' views about their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance based on the region they are located in.

Conducting a Kruskal-Wallis test to investigate the effect of gender on LPI scores, Table 16 presents an overall summary of the data related to the LPI mean scores of 466 participants from Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions included in this dataset. The average LPI mean scores for all participants, irrespective of their jurisdictions, is 3.16 on a scale that appears to range from one to five and the standard deviation of 1.05. The mean for the LPI mean scores suggests that the average participant scores moderately high on the LPI scale.

Table 16

*LPI Scores and Jurisdiction for All Participants**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
LPI mean scores	466	3.16	1.05	1.00	5.00
jurisdiction	466	2.20	.79	1.00	3.00

*Kruskal-Wallis descriptive statistics

Table 17 presents the mean ranks from the conducted Kruskal-Wallis test. The data is ranked from the smallest to the largest values regardless of the group to which they belong. The mean rank is the average rank for each group. Participants from Egypt have the highest mean rank of 264.63. This indicates that LPI mean scores for participants from Egypt tend to be higher than Albertan teachers (a mean rank of 226.44). Participants from other Canadian regions have the lowest mean rank of 222.44.

Table 17

Kruskal-Wallis Ranks for All Teacher Participants from All Regions

	jurisdiction	N	Mean Rank
LPI mean scores	Alberta	160	226.44
	other Canadian regions	199	222.44
	Egypt	107	264.63
	Total	466	

In Table 18, the results of the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis test conducted on teachers across all regions are presented. With a total sample size (N) of 466, the test yielded a statistic of 7.499. Given the two degrees of freedom, the asymptotic significance level (2-sided test) stands at .024. This p-value indicates a statistically significant difference among the teacher groups from different regions.

Table 18

*Test Summary for All Participants from All Regions**

Total N	466
Test Statistic	7.499
Degree Of Freedom	2
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.024

*Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis for LPI scores

The Kruskal-Wallis test, as shown in Table 19, shows there is no significant difference in how Albertan teachers and their counterparts from other Canadian regions when rating their school principals (adjusted significance = 1). Also, there is no significant difference between the rates giving to school principals given by Alberta and Egyptian teachers (adjusted significance = 0.069). In contrast, the significant differences between Egyptian teachers and teachers from other Canadian regions in rating their leaders' practices in LPI (adjusted significance = .027) are significant. Thus, the null hypothesis, which states that there are no significant differences in K-12 teachers' views about their school principals' leadership practices based on the region they are

in (Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions), is rejected. Egyptian teachers tend to rate their school principals higher than their Canadian counterparts, except for Albertan K-12 teachers. Albertan teachers are not significantly different from Egyptian teachers in rating their school principals in LPI. Given this context, Egyptian teachers are less likely to resist their school principals when implementing their leaders' change vision.

Table 19

Pairwise Comparisons of Jurisdiction for LPI Scores of All Participants across All Regions

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
other Canadian regions-Alberta	3.995	14.299	.279	.780	1.000
other Canadian regions-Egypt	42.184	16.143	2.613	.009	.027
Alberta-Egypt	38.189	16.816	2.271	.023	.069

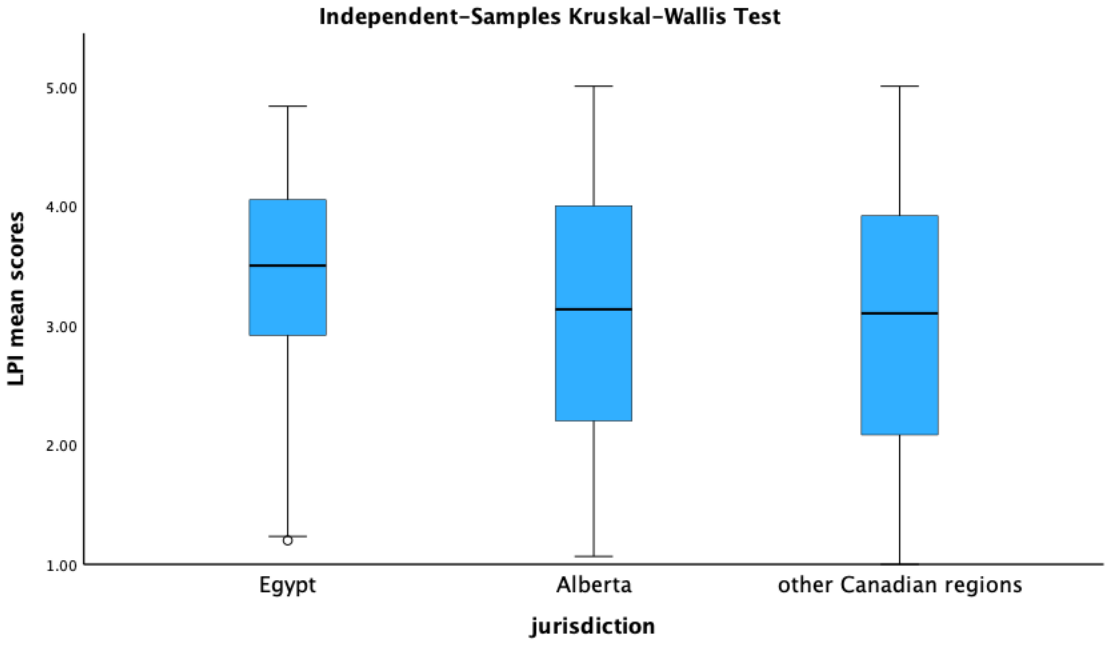

Figure 4. Egyptian participants tend to rate their school principals higher than their counterparts in Alberta and the rest of Canada.

Testing of Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis stated that gender influences K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance, with differences between male and female teachers. As presented in tables 8, 9, and 10, the numbers of participants from Egypt, Alberta, or the rest of Canada who “preferred not say” their genders or referred to themselves as “non-binary” were only 15 participants in total, which does not establish a statistical significance to generalize in any of the three jurisdictions. Consequently, all statistical analyses in the second hypothesis only include males and females in each jurisdiction. This means focusing on 106 Egyptian participants, 153 Albertan participants, and 192 participants from other Canadian region.

Albertan Male and Female Teachers

In a Kruskal-Wallis test exploring differences in Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) ratings of school principals among Albertan male and female teachers. The descriptive statistics, presented in Table 20, were drawn from a sample size of 153. The LPI mean scores averaged at 3.09, with a standard deviation of 1.08, indicating a range of perceptions that spanned from 1.07 to a maximum of 5.00. Gender distribution, identified with 1 as male and 2 as female, yielded a mean value of 1.82 and a standard deviation of 0.382. This suggests a predominantly female representation in the sample, which should be accounted for when interpreting any gender-based disparities in LPI ratings.

In Table 21, which employs the Kruskal-Wallis test to evaluate the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) ratings of school principals by male and female teachers from the three regions, the gender-based differences in mean rankings between Albertan male and female teachers are

observable. From the 153 participants, the 27 male teachers produced a mean rank of 65.19, while the 126 female teachers yielded a higher mean rank of 79.53. These variations in rankings highlight distinct perceptual differences between male and female educators in Alberta regarding their appraisal of their school principals' leadership prowess.

In Table 22, detailing the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis test outcomes for Albertan male and female teachers assessing their school principals via the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), a sample size of 153 was considered. The test generated a statistic value of 2.331. Given a degree of freedom of 1, the asymptotic significance (p-value) was observed to be 0.127. This p-value implies that there is no statistically significant difference in LPI ratings between male and female educators in Alberta regarding their perception of their school principals' leadership.

Canadian Male and Female Teachers Outside of Alberta

According to Table 20, the differences in the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) ratings of school principals were assessed among 192 male and female teachers from Canadian regions excluding Alberta. The data exhibited a mean LPI score of 3.07 with a considerable variability, evidenced by a standard deviation of 1.10, and ratings ranging between 1.00 to 5.00. Notably, the gender distribution, manifested by a mean value of 1.89 and a standard deviation of 0.313, underscores a preponderance of female respondents, implying that interpretations of gender-related disparities in LPI ratings ought to be approached with circumspection given the potential underrepresentation of male viewpoints.

In a Kruskal-Wallis test examining ratings of school principals, as shown in Table 21, using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) from teachers in Canadian regions outside of Alberta, gender-based differences in rankings emerged. Among the 192 participants, the 21 males had a mean rank of 109.29, while the 171 females had a mean rank of 94.93. This variation in mean ranks indicates perceptual differences between male and female teachers regarding their school principals' leadership qualities.

Table 22 displays the independent-samples Kruskal-Wallis test assessing ratings of school principals via the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) for teachers from Canadian regions excluding Alberta, a sample size of 192 yielded a test statistic of 1.248. Given a degree of freedom of 1, the resulting asymptotic significance (p-value) was 0.264. This p-value indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in LPI ratings between male and female teachers from regions of Canada outside Alberta.

Egyptian Male and Female Teachers

The Kruskal-Wallis test descriptive data, presented in Table 20, examined differences between Egyptian males and females in rating their school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The sample comprised 106 respondents, with LPI scores ranging from 1.20 to 4.83, indicating varied perceptions of leadership quality among principals. The average LPI score was 3.40 with a standard deviation of 0.89, highlighting a moderate variation in ratings. Additionally, the gender distribution was nearly balanced with a mean value of 1.49, signifying a near-equal representation of males and females in the study. However, inferential statistics are required to deduce any gender-based differences in ratings.

As presented in Table 21, rank means Egyptian male and female teachers in their ratings of school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The sample comprised 106 teachers, with 54 male and 52 female. The mean ranks were close, with the male teachers having a mean rank of 52.82 and the female teachers a slightly higher mean rank of 54.20. This proximity in mean ranks suggests that there may be minimal differences in how both genders perceive the leadership practices of their school principals.

The Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis test was employed, as displayed in Table 22, to analyze differences between Egyptian male and female teachers' ratings of their school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) among a sample of 106 participants. With a test statistic of 0.053 and an asymptotic significance (p-value) of 0.818. Consequently, the null hypothesis is retained. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the ratings given by Egyptian male and female teachers regarding their school principals' leadership practices in the sampled population. Consequently, the null hypothesis is retained, with regards to Egyptian teachers. This suggests that there is no statistically significant difference between the ratings given by Egyptian male and female teachers regarding their school principals' leadership practices in the sampled population.

Female Teachers across Alberta, the rest of Canada, and Egypt

In Table 20, the descriptive statistics from the Kruskal-Wallis test provide insights into the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) ratings given to school principals by female teachers spanning the regions of Alberta, the rest of Canada, and Egypt in LPI. Among the sample size of 349 female teachers, the mean LPI score is 3.13, with a standard deviation of 1.08, and the scores

range from 1.00 to 5.00. The jurisdiction variable has a mean value of 2.34 and a standard deviation of 0.724, suggesting a majority representation from Alberta and the rest of Canada.

Table 21 displays the Kruskal-Wallis test ranks of LPI means for female teachers across Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt as they evaluate their school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). From the collective sample of 349 participants, female teachers in Egypt, with 52 respondents, provided a mean rank of 198.63, which is notably higher than those in Alberta and other Canadian regions, who posted mean ranks of 176.34 and 166.83 respectively from their 126 and 171 respondents.

Table 22 presents the outcomes of the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test, focusing on female teachers from Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt as they assess their school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Out of a total sample of 349, the test yielded a statistic value of 3.996, which is adjusted for ties. With a degree of freedom set at 2, the derived asymptotic significance (p-value) is 0.136. The p-value indicates that there is not a statistically significant difference in the LPI ratings across the female educators from the three regions in terms of their perception of their school principals' leadership capabilities.

Table 23 presents pairwise comparisons derived from the Kruskal-Wallis test, illuminating distinctions in the ratings made by female teachers regarding school principal leadership practices across different jurisdictions: Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The juxtaposition between "other Canadian regions" and "Alberta" yielded a standardized test statistic of 0.803, and following the application of the Bonferroni correction, an adjusted significance level of 1.000, implying a lack of significant disparity in ratings between these regions. The comparison involving "other Canadian regions" and "Egypt" demonstrated a standardized test statistic of 1.990 with an adjusted significance of 0.140; despite its initial

significance being below the 0.050 mark, the post-adjustment significance exceeded this threshold, suggesting no substantial difference. Last, the pairing of "Alberta" and "Egypt" showcased a standardized test statistic of 1.340 and an adjusted significance level of 0.541, reinforcing the absence of a statistically discernible differentiation in ratings between these two jurisdictions.

Male Teachers across Alberta, the rest of Canada, and Egypt

Table 21 also provides LPI ratings of male teachers across Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt regarding their school principals' practices as captured by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). From a total of 102 male respondents, the mean score assigned to the school principals was 3.24, with a standard deviation of 0.95. This underscores variability in the scores, which ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00. The 'jurisdiction' variable had a mean value of 1.68 with a standard deviation of 0.798.

Table 20

*LPI Scores by Male and Female Teachers and Jurisdiction**

Jurisdiction		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Alberta	LPI mean scores	153	3.09	1.08	1.07	5.00
	gender	153	1.82	.382	1	2
Other Canadian Regions	LPI mean scores	192	3.07	1.10	1.00	5.00
	gender	192	1.89	.313	1	2
Egypt	LPI mean scores	106	3.40	.89	1.20	4.83
	gender	106	1.49	.502	1	2
Female teachers across all regions	means	349	3.13	1.08	1.00	5.00
	jurisdiction	349	2.34	.724	1	3
Male teachers across all regions	means	102	3.24	.95	1.00	5.00
	jurisdiction	102	1.68	.798	1	3

*Kruskal-Wallis descriptive statistics

Table 21 showcases the Kruskal-Wallis rank data highlighting variations in male teachers' evaluations of their school principals using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) across Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. Within the dataset, male teachers from Egypt, comprising 54 respondents, conferred a mean rank of 56.06. In Alberta, the mean rank stood noticeably lower at 39.57 from 27 respondents. Meanwhile, the remaining Canadian regions, represented by 21 male teachers, provided a mean rank of 55.10, closely mirroring the ranking from Egypt. This tabulation accentuates possible regional nuances in the perception and evaluation of school principal leadership competencies by male teachers.

Table 21

*LPI Mean Score Ranks by Males and Females and Jurisdiction**

Jurisdiction	Category	N	Mean Rank
Alberta	male	27	65.19
	female	126	79.53
	Total	153	
Other Canadian Regions	male	21	109.29
	female	171	94.93
	Total	192	
Egypt	male	54	52.82
	female	52	54.20
	Total	106	
Female teachers across all regions	Egypt	52	198.63
	Alberta	126	176.34
	other Canadian regions	171	166.83
	Total	349	
Male teachers across all regions	Egypt	54	56.06
	Alberta	27	39.57
	other Canadian regions	21	55.10
	Total	102	

*Kruskal-Wallis test

Table 22, utilizing the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test, examines gender-based differences among teachers in Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The test's results in Alberta (N=153) and other Canadian regions (N=192) show no significant gender differences, with test statistics of 2.331 (asymptotic significance .127) and 1.248 (.264), respectively. Similarly, in Egypt (N=106), the test statistic is .053 with an asymptotic significance of .818, indicating no significant gender-based differences.

When analyzing data across all regions, however, some differences emerge. For female teachers (N=349), the test statistic is 3.996 with an asymptotic significance of .136, suggesting no significant differences. In contrast, for male teachers (N=102), the test statistic is 5.984 with an asymptotic significance of .050. This suggests significant differences in responses among male teachers across these regions, highlighting the need for further investigation into regional variations in teacher responses.

Table 22

*Test Summary for LPI Scores by Region and Males, and Females**

Alberta	Total N	153
	Test Statistic	2.331
	Degree Of Freedom	1
	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.127
Other Canadian regions	Total N	192
	Test Statistic	1.248
	Degree Of Freedom	1
	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.264
Egypt	Total N	106
	Test Statistic	.053
	Degree of Freedom	1
	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.818
Female teachers across all regions	Total N	349
	Test Statistic	3.996
	Degree Of Freedom	2
	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.136
	Total N	102

Male teachers across all regions	Test Statistic	5.984
	Degree Of Freedom	2
	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.050

*Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis

In the context of the pairwise comparisons of male teachers across the three regions, as presented in Table 23, considering that the comparison between Alberta and Egypt showed a borderline significant difference, it is appropriate to further investigate this difference with a Mann-Whitney test, while still adjusting for multiple comparisons to reduce the risk of Type I error. The primary interest lies in discerning the specific nature of the difference between Alberta and Egypt, then the researcher conducted a Mann-Whitney test between these two jurisdictions, see Tables 19 and 20. The pairwise comparison between Alberta and other Canadian regions also approached significance (adjusted significance of 0.214). Also, the comparison between the other Canadian regions and Egypt showed no significant difference, with an adjusted significance of 1.000. Given this lack of significance, further investigation via a Mann-Whitney test is not necessary for these pairings.

Table 23

*Comparisons of LPI Scores: Female and Male Teachers**

Gender	Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
Female teachers across all regions	other Canadian regions-Alberta	9.514	11.845	.803	.422	1.000
	other Canadian regions-Egypt	31.798	15.976	1.990	.047	.140
	Alberta-Egypt	22.284	16.628	1.340	.180	.541
Male teachers across all regions	Alberta-other Canadian regions	-15.521	8.607	-1.803	.071	.214
	Alberta-Egypt	16.491	6.973	2.365	.018	.054
	other Canadian regions-Egypt	.970	7.608	.127	.899	1.000

*Kruskal-Wallis Pairwise

Table 24 uses the Mann-Whitney U test to compare Egyptian and Albertan male teachers. The results show a clear difference in mean ranks between Egyptian male teachers and their Albertan counterparts. Egyptian male teachers (N=54) have a higher mean rank of 45.51 with a sum of ranks at 2457.50, indicating they generally rank higher on the measured variable. In contrast, Albertan male teachers (N=27) have a lower mean rank of 31.98 and a sum of ranks of 863.50, suggesting they ranked their school principals lower on LPI. The total sample size for this study is 81. This significant disparity in mean ranks points to potentially different experiences or perceptions between male teachers in these regions, emphasizing the need to consider regional contexts in educational research.

Table 24

*LPI Scores of Egyptian and Albertan Male Teachers**

jurisdiction	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Egypt	54	45.51	2457.50
Alberta	27	31.98	863.50
Total	81		

*Mann-Whitney means ranks

In Table 25, the results of the Mann-Whitney test indicate a statistically significant difference in the ratings of school principals on the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) between male teachers from Egypt and Alberta. The Mann-Whitney statistic is 485.500, and the Wilcoxon W statistic is 863.500. The standardized test statistic (Z) is -2.440, which corresponds to a two-tailed asymptotic significance (p-value) of .015. This p-value indicates a significant difference in the distribution of Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) scores between the two groups, with male teachers in Egypt likely to rate their school principals' practices higher than male teachers in Alberta.

Table 25

*LPI Scores: Test Statistics for Albertan and Egyptian Male Teachers**

	means
Mann-Whitney	485.500
Wilcoxon W	863.500
Z	-2.440
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.015

*Mann-Whitney

The null hypothesis is retained. This indicates that there is no statistically significant difference between the ratings given by male and female teachers regarding their school principals' leadership practices in the sampled population. The statistical analysis, however, concluded that Egyptian male teachers tend to rate their school principals in LPI significantly higher than Albertan male teachers.

Testing of Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis of the thesis explores the impact of K-12 teachers' years of experience on their perceptions of principal leadership and their propensity for resistance. It posits that more experienced teachers may have a nuanced understanding of leadership effectiveness and a distinct approach to resistance. To examine this, a non-parametric ANOVA, specifically the Kruskal-Wallis test, was employed due to the non-normal distribution of the dataset. This test aimed to discern differences in perceptions and behaviours among teachers grouped by their years of experience. The relevant descriptive statistics, detailed in Tables 11, 12, and 13, provide a comprehensive view of how experience influences teachers' perspectives on school management and leadership dynamics. Consequently, the researcher will start testing

the third hypothesis by discussing the results from Kruskal-Wallis means ranks of teachers by their experience level.

Table 26 showcases the relationship between teaching experience and perceptions of principal leadership among K-12 teachers in Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions. The data is divided into five experience categories. Teachers with ≤ 5 years of experience (N=87) have a mean rank of 268.86, higher than those with 6-10 years (N=81, mean rank 224.86) and 11-15 years (N=87, mean rank 218.57). Those with 16-20 years of experience (N=89) show a mean rank of 245.86, while teachers with ≥ 21 years (N=122) have a mean rank of 215.66. This indicates noticeable variations in leadership perceptions based on different tenure intervals among teachers from these diverse regions.

Table 26

*Teachers' LPI Scores by Their Experience**

years of experience	N	Mean Rank
≤ 5 years	87	268.86
6 - 10 years	81	224.86
11 -15 years	87	218.57
16 - 20 years	89	245.86
≥ 21 years	122	215.66
Total	466	

*Kruskal-Wallis means ranks

Table 27 provides a summary of the results from an Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test. With a total sample size of 466 participants, the computed test statistic is 10.29. Given the five distinct groups compared the test reveals an asymptotic significance value (p-value) of .036 for a two-sided test, which indicates that there are statistically significant differences in the median scores among at least two of the groups. Thus, in the context of the hypothesis

concerning teachers' years of experience and their perceptions of principal leadership, this suggests variations in perceptions across the experience groups under investigation.

Table 27

*Test Summary Teachers' LPI Scores by Experience**

Total N	466
Test Statistic	10.293
Degree Of Freedom	4
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.036

*Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis

Table 28, delineating pairwise comparisons from a Kruskal-Wallis Test, provides a breakdown of differences in perceptions of principal leadership across specific pairs of teacher experience groups. Notably, when evaluating the significance values, only the comparison between the "≥ 21 years" group and the "≤ 5 years" group registers a significant difference with a raw significance value (Sig.) of .005. Upon adjusting for multiple comparisons (Adj. Sig), this indicates that perceptions of leadership between the most experienced teachers (≥ 21 years) and the least experienced (≤ 5 years) are notably different. Another significant pairwise comparison emerges between the "11 to 15 years" group and the "≤ 5 years" group with a raw significance value of .014; however, its adjusted significance value is .138, which surpasses the standard threshold, rendering it non-significant after adjustment. All other pairwise comparisons present non-significant differences in perceptions.

Table 28

*Teacher Ratings of Their Principals on LPI by Teacher Experience Level**

Sample 1-Sample 2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
≥ 21 years-11-15 years	2.913	18.896	.154	.877	1.000
≥ 21 years-6-10 years	9.202	19.300	.477	.634	1.000

≥ 21 years-16-20 years	30.204	18.771	1.609	.108	1.000
≥ 21 years-≤ 5 years	53.201	18.896	2.815	.005	.049
11-15 years-6-10 years	6.289	20.791	.302	.762	1.000
11-15 years-16-20 years	-27.291	20.302	-1.344	.179	1.000
11-15 years-≤ 5 years	50.287	20.417	2.463	.014	.138
6-10 years-16-20 years	-21.002	20.678	-1.016	.310	1.000
6-10 years-≤ 5 years	43.998	20.791	2.116	.034	.343
16-20 years-≤ 5 years	22.997	20.302	1.133	.257	1.000

*Kruskal-Wallis pairwise *comparisons*

Following the results presented in Table 27, which indicated a statistical significance across the groups, the pairwise comparisons, as presented in Table 28, yielded predominantly non-significant findings after adjustments for multiple comparisons. This discrepancy underscores the complexities inherent in pairwise analyses of multiple groups. To further scrutinize these pairwise differences with heightened precision, the researcher employed the Mann-Whitney test. This subsequent analysis provides a more detailed understanding of the differences between specific pairs of experience groups.

Using the Mann-Whitney test for pairwise comparisons, as presented in Tables 30 and 31, between distinct years of teaching experience, certain statistically significant variations were observed. Teachers with ≤ 5 years of experience significantly differed from those with 6-10 years ($U = 2884.500$, $Z = -2.029$, $p = .042$), 11-15 years ($U = 2951.000$, $Z = -2.509$, $p = .012$), and ≥ 21 years ($U = 4072.000$, $Z = -2.866$, $p = .004$) in their views on principal leadership effectiveness and resistance levels. However, comparisons like 6-10 years vs. 11-15 years ($U = 3464.500$, $Z = -.187$, $p = .851$) showed no significant differences. These findings led to the rejection of the null hypothesis, suggesting a correlation between teachers' years of experience and their perceptions of principal leadership and resistance behaviours. Notably, less experienced

teachers tend to rate their principals higher in Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and show less resistance to leadership-driven change.

Table 29

Mann-Whitney Table of LPI Mean Ranks by Teacher Experience

years of experience	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
≤ 5 years	87	91.84	7990.50
6-10 years	81	76.61	6205.50
Total	168		
≤ 5 years	87	97.08	8446.00
11-15 years	87	77.92	6779.00
Total	174		
≤ 5 years	87	92.74	8068.00
16-20 years	89	84.36	7508.00
Total	176		
≤ 5 years	87	119.20	10370.00
≥ 21 years	122	94.88	11575.00
Total	209		
6-10 years	81	85.23	6903.50
11-15 years	87	83.82	7292.50
Total	168		
6-10 years	81	81.69	6616.50
16-20 years	89	88.97	7918.50
Total	170		
6-10 years	81	104.33	8451.00
≥ 21 years	122	100.45	12255.00
Total	203		
11-15 years	87	105.64	9190.50
≥ 21 years	122	104.55	12754.50
Total	209		
16-20 years	89	113.84	10131.50
≥ 21 years	122	100.28	12234.50
Total	211		
11-15 years	87	83.19	7237.50
16-20 years	89	93.69	8338.50
Total	176		

Table 30

Mann-Whitney Test Statistics of LPI Scores by Teacher Experience

years of experience	Mann-Whitney	Wilcoxon W	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
≤ 5 years 6-10 years	2884.500	6205.500	-2.029	.042
≤ 5 years 11-15 years	2951.000	6779.000	-2.509	.012
≤ 5 years 16-20 years	3503.00	7508.00	-1.091	.275
≤ 5 years ≥ 21 years	4072.000	11575.000	-2.866	.004
6-10 years 11-15 years	3464.500	7292.500	-.187	.851
6-10 years 16-20 years	3295.500	6616.500	-.964	.335
6-10 years ≥ 21 years	4752.000	12255.000	-.461	.645
11-15 years ≥ 21 years	5251.500	12754.500	-.129	.898
16-20 years ≥ 21 years	4731.500	12234.500	-1.593	.111
11-15 years 16-20 years	3409.500	7237.500	-1.367	.172

Testing of Hypothesis Four

In the ever-evolving realm of educational leadership, the relationship between school principals and their teaching staff remains a focal point of inquiry. As we traverse through the tiers of K-12 education—elementary, middle, and high school—it becomes increasingly evident that the educational environment and its intricacies may influence educators' perceptions of leadership dynamics. Such variations potentially stem from the differing pedagogical demands, developmental stages of students, and institutional expectations at each educational level. As we delve deeper into this intricate interplay, the fourth hypothesis emerges: teachers across different K-12 grade levels may have varied opinions concerning their principals' leadership behaviours and the resistance strategies they employ. This hypothesis aims to explore the multifaceted perspectives held by teachers who teach different educational levels, offering insights into the nuanced relationship dynamics within the educational hierarchy. To test the fourth hypothesis, the researcher compared the LPI mean scores to the educational level taught in each of the three regions: Alberta, the other Canadian regions, and Egypt.

Table 31 analyzes the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) mean scores by educational level in Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The Kruskal Wallis Table of Ranks shows regional and educational variations in LPI scores. In Alberta, mean ranks slightly increased from elementary (77.02) to high school (79.48), indicating a gradual rise in leadership practices. In contrast, other Canadian regions show a disparity, with junior high educators (103.17) scoring higher than elementary and high school levels, suggesting unique leadership qualities at this level. Egypt's trend differs, with elementary (55.95) and high school (55.24) educators scoring similarly, but junior high teachers (46.17) scoring lower, possibly due to different pedagogical

approaches or cultural factors. These findings highlight the complexity of leadership dynamics across different regions and educational levels.

Table 31

*LPI Mean Scores by the Educational Level Taught**

Region	Educational Level	N	Mean Rank
Alberta	elementary school	86	77.02
	junior high	36	78.97
	high school	33	79.48
other Canadian regions	elementary school	97	89.42
	junior high	36	103.17
	high school	45	78.74
Egypt	elementary school	47	55.95
	junior high	24	46.17
	high school	35	55.24

*Kruskal Wallis table of ranks

Table 32 presents Kruskal-Wallis test statistics for Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) scores across educational levels in Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. In Alberta, the Kruskal-Wallis H value is 0.94 with an asymptotic significance (p-value) of .954, indicating uniform leadership practices across educational levels, suggesting a consistent leadership approach. Analysis of the LPI scores given by participants from other Canadian regions reveals a Kruskal-Wallis H value of 4.494 and an asymptotic significance (p-value) of .106. This suggests a tendency towards diversity in leadership practices, but the variation is not statistically significant. This variation could be due to different educational policies or cultural factors.

Egypt, with a Kruskal-Wallis H of 1.777 and an asymptotic significance (p-value) of .411, also shows no significant differences in leadership practices across educational levels, implying a standardized leadership approach in its educational system.

Table 32

*LPI Test Statistics by the Educational Level Taught**

Region	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. Sig.
Alberta	0.94	2	.954
other Canadian regions	4.494	2	.106
Egypt	1.777	2	.411

*Kruskal Wallis

The analyses presented in Tables 32 and 33 provide insightful data on the variance of Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) scores across different educational levels in Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. Table 31's Kruskal-Wallis Table of Ranks shows distinct mean ranks in LPI scores across regions and educational levels, suggesting regional and educational level-based differences in leadership practices. Table 32, however, reveal that these differences are not statistically significant, as indicated by the high p-values in all regions (Alberta: .954, other Canadian regions: .106, Egypt: .411). Given these findings, the null hypothesis, which posits no significant difference in LPI scores across educational levels within each region, cannot be rejected. This suggests that while there are observable variations in leadership practices, teachers' perceptions about the practices of their school principals do not statistically differ significantly across the taught educational levels within the regions studied.

Testing of Hypothesis Five

In the complex landscape of educational dynamics, the relationship between teachers and their school principals is crucial to shaping the overall institutional environment. While many studies have delved into the intricacies of this relationship, few have examined how a teacher's employment status—whether full-time, part-time, or substitute—influences their perceptions of leadership practices and their subsequent resistance behaviours. The fifth hypothesis posits that these teacher groups perceive their school principals' leadership practices differently and vary in their modes of resistance or engagement. However, due to the participation of only seven substitute teachers from the three regions in the survey, this group has been excluded from the analysis to ensure the validity and generalizability of the findings. The statistical analyses focused on 459 full-time and part-time teachers from Egypt, Alberta, and the other Canadian regions.

In Table 33, the descriptive statistics, resultant from the Kruskal-Wallis test, provide a comprehensive view of how teachers, differentiated by their employment status, rated their school principals' practices via the LPI survey. The means, with a sample cohort of 459 participants, is an average score of 3.15, underscoring a standard deviation of 1.05, which suggests a varied distribution of perceptions. Concurrently, the employment status variable, which differentiates between full-time (coded as '1') and part-time (coded as '2') teachers, averages at 1.09 with a contained standard deviation of 0.292. This modest deviation, coupled with the mean's closeness to the lower bound of 1, is caused by the predominance of full-time teachers in the sample (416 full-time teachers).

Table 33

*LPI Scores of Teachers from the Three Regions by Their Employment Status**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
means	459	3.15	1.05	1.00	5.00
employment status	459	1.09	.292	1	2

*Kruskal-Wallis descriptive statistics

Table 34 provides a detailed analysis of Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) scores among teachers, segmented by their employment status across Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt. The table shows notable differences in mean ranks based on full-time and part-time employment statuses within each region. In Alberta, full-time teachers have a mean rank of 79.85, slightly higher than their part-time counterparts at 72.88. This suggests a marginal difference in leadership practices between full-time and part-time educators in this region. Other Canadian regions exhibit a more pronounced disparity, with full-time teachers scoring a mean rank of 96.19, while part-time teachers have a significantly higher mean rank of 128.54. This could indicate that part-time teachers in these regions may tend to rate their school principals higher in LPI. In contrast, Egyptian teachers show a reverse trend, where full-time teachers have a lower mean rank (49.14) compared to part-time teachers (68.45). This may reflect unique cultural or systemic factors influencing leadership styles in Egypt. When considering the combined regions, the mean ranks for full-time (224.03) and part-time (287.80) teachers further emphasize these regional differences, highlighting the impact of employment status on leadership practices in diverse educational settings.

Table 34

*LPI Scores of Teachers by their Employment Status**

Region	Employment Status	N	Mean Rank
Alberta	Full-time	150	79.85
	Part-time	8	72.88
Other Canadian Regions	Full-time	182	96.19
	Part-time	14	128.54
Egypt	Full-time	84	49.14
	Part-time	21	68.45
Combined Regions	Full-time	416	224.03
	Part-time	43	287.80

*Kruskal-Wallis mean ranks

Table 35 elucidates the Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics, examining the variance in Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) scores based on employment status across different regions. The table reveals significant disparities in the influence of employment status on leadership practices in these regions. In Alberta, the Kruskal-Wallis H value is 0.177 with an asymptotic significance (Asymp. Sig.) of .674, indicating that there is no significant difference in LPI scores between full-time and part-time teachers. This suggests a uniformity in leadership practices irrespective of employment status in this region. Conversely, in other Canadian regions, the Kruskal-Wallis H value is 4.228 with an Asymp. Sig. of .040, denoting a statistically significant difference in leadership practices between full-time and part-time teachers. This implies that employment status plays a more influential role in these regions. Egypt presents an even more pronounced difference, with a Kruskal-Wallis H value of 6.761 and an Asymp. Sig. of .009, strongly suggesting that employment status significantly affects leadership practices. When considering the combined regions, the Kruskal-Wallis H value of 9.010 with an Asymp. Sig. of .003 further underscores these regional differences, highlighting the substantial impact of employment status on leadership practices across these diverse educational settings.

Table 35

Kruskal-Wallis Test Statistics of LPI by Employment Status across Regions

Region	Kruskal-Wallis H	df	Asymp. Sig.
Alberta	0.177	1	.674
Other Canadian Regions	4.228	1	.040
Egypt	6.761	1	.009
Combined Regions	9.010	1	.003

In the examination of the fifth hypothesis, the decision to accept or reject the null hypothesis, which posits no significant difference in Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) mean scores based on teachers' employment status, varies across regions. For Alberta, the null hypothesis is upheld due to the absence of a statistically significant difference in LPI scores between full-time and part-time teachers (Asymp. Sig. = .674). In contrast, for other Canadian regions and Egypt, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicated by Asymp. Sig. values of .040 and .009, respectively, both below the .05 threshold. This suggests a significant impact of employment status on leadership practices in these areas. Moreover, when considering all regions collectively, the Asymp. Sig. value of .003 for the combined regions further supports the rejection of the null hypothesis, highlighting a significant difference in LPI scores between full-time and part-time teachers across the broader study context. This finding underscores the influence of employment status on leadership practices in a comprehensive, multi-regional perspective.

While the results indicate a discernible trend, generalizing these findings to the broader part-time teacher communities in each respective region may require a more substantial sample size. Future research would benefit from engaging a larger cohort of part-time teachers across these regions to ensure more robust and generalizable insights.

Chapter Summary

Chapter Four investigated how K-12 teachers in Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions respond to change initiatives led by school principals. The study's survey data tested hypotheses concerning teacher demographics and their leadership perceptions. The findings indicated that Egyptian teachers generally have more favorable views of their principals than their Canadian counterparts including Alberta, with teacher gender not significantly impacting these ratings. Teachers with fewer years of experience were more positive about leadership, implying they may be less resistant to change. The educational level taught by the teachers did not significantly influence their perceptions. Notably, part-time teachers viewed principal leadership more positively than those full-time, suggesting that part-time teachers are less inclined to resist the change vision of their school principals.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Implications

Introduction

Chapter Five commences with a discussion of the research findings in the context of the initial hypotheses and the broader academic literature. This chapter endeavors to synthesize the principal outcomes from the study, illuminating connections to established theories and previous investigations. The chapter then delves into the nuanced implications these outcomes bear on school leadership, change management, and teacher resistance, especially considering the distinct cultural milieus. In doing so, it accentuates the broader implications for leadership practices and teacher dynamics within K-12 education. The ensuing discussion revolves around teachers' collective resistance, contextualized through the lens of Social Movement Theory. With an intent to bridge the chasm between theory and pragmatic application, the chapter contemplates actionable insights that may engender efficacious leadership and cultivate harmonious teacher-leader relationships. The chapter's discourse concludes by postulating potential avenues for future research and offers a summarization of the critical points discussed.

Study Overview

Amidst the intricate tapestry of educational reform and adaptation, the study embarked on an empirical exploration of teachers' resistance to leadership vision in K-12 settings. This quantitative investigation analyzed the nuanced perceptions and behaviours of teachers in relation to school leadership practices. Employing the rigorously validated Leadership Practices Inventory-Observer (LPI) as its primary instrument, the research probed into five delineated hypotheses. These hypotheses navigated the realms of regional differentiations, gender

distinctions, accumulated years of pedagogical experience, specific educational levels of instruction, and distinctions in employment status. The data, aggregated from online survey instruments disseminated via Facebook, illuminated the multifaceted dimensions of teachers' perceptions and potential resistance mechanisms to leadership paradigms. The resultant findings, grounded in a robust analytical framework, not only contribute to the academic discourse on teacher-leader dynamics but also proffer pivotal implications for the evolution of leadership strategies that harmonize with the variegated fabric of teacher demographics.

The literature review in Chapter Two delved into the multifaceted nature of workplace resistance, predominantly from the vantage point of subordinates. Hodson (1995) posited that resistance was an inherent workplace phenomenon, though its recognition could be complex, often requiring acknowledgment from multiple stakeholders. Various definitions in the literature highlighted resistance's deliberate elements, objectives, and the solidarity among resisters. Drawing from Marxist ideologies, the text underscored the significance of collective resistance aimed at achieving a more equitable world. Foucault (1995) emphasized the intertwined nature of resistance and power, suggesting that while power sought to discipline, resistance emerged as a countermeasure to perceived inequities. The chapter also touched upon the inherent political dynamics within workplaces, where power was a social construct, and coalitions formed based on shared interests, as did resistance movements.

Chapter Three outlined the study design to investigate the relationship between school leaders' visions and workplace resistance in K-12 schools. The study's primary objective was to understand teachers' perspectives on change and the factors that caused them to resist change in their workplace. The research employed a quantitative approach, utilizing a cross-sectional

design. The survey, answered by K-12 teachers from various jurisdictions, both within and outside Canada, comprised three main sections. The first section addressed forms of resistance expressed by teachers. The second section incorporated the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)-Observer (2017) to gauge teachers' views about their school principals. The LPI assessed five exemplary leadership practices, namely: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act, and Encourage the Heart. The LPI instrument was validated in the field of education across various jurisdictions globally.

The study's population consisted of K-12 teachers, primarily recruited through Facebook advertisements. The sampling technique employed was convenience sampling, focusing on regions with statistically significant participation, such as Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt through a Facebook advertisement. The survey instrument, presented in both English and Arabic, consisted of 44 questions. The LPI, adapted for the study, was used with permission from its authors. The research aimed to provide insights into the dynamics between school leaders' visions and teachers' resistance, emphasizing the pivotal role educators played in the change process.

The study employed an online survey to gather insights from K-12 teachers about workplace resistance and their school principals' vision of change. This survey was disseminated via a Facebook advertisement, reaching over 4.6 million users, with 591 teachers completing it. Comprising 44 questions in both English and Arabic, the survey had two main sections: one addressing forms of resistance and the other utilizing the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)-Observer to evaluate school leaders' practices. The LPI, adapted for this research and utilized with the authors' permission, evaluated five fundamental leadership practices. Scores in the LPI

section of the survey ranged from 30 to 150. In this study, the statistical analysis treated the five LPI practices as a single entity.

As discussed in Chapters Three and Four, a non-parametric One-way ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis test) was employed for data analysis. This statistical technique was chosen due to its suitability for comparing more than two independent groups when the dependent variable is ordinal or continuous, but not normally distributed. The Kruskal-Wallis test was particularly used to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between the means of three or more independent groups. In the context of this study, the One-way ANOVA was applied to assess the differences in teachers' perspectives across various demographic categories, such as years of teaching experience, school category, and educational stage. The results from this analysis provided insights into how different groups of teachers perceived leadership practices and workplace resistance.

Conclusions of the Study

The study primarily focused on exploring teachers' resistance to leadership vision within K-12 educational settings and the dynamics between leadership practices and teacher perceptions across different jurisdictions. Chapter Three detailed the research methodology employed, outlining the design, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, and analytical procedures. It provided a comprehensive framework for understanding how the study was structured and executed. Chapter Four, on the other hand, presented the results derived from the data analysis. It systematically unpacked the findings, segmenting them based on the formulated hypotheses, and provided a comparative analysis across the different jurisdictions.

Research Question: How do teachers resist the leader’s vision?

Region and Resistance

The first hypothesis, where the null hypothesis was rejected, sought to discern the influence of regional differences on K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and their subsequent resistance to the leader's vision. The data, as presented in Tables 17 through 20, revealed that Egyptian teachers generally rated their school principals' leadership practices more favourably than their Canadian counterparts. Specifically, the mean LPI score for all participants was moderately high at 3.16, suggesting a generally positive perception of leadership practices across regions. However, when delving deeper into regional differences, Egyptian teachers exhibited the highest mean rank, indicating a more favourable view of their principals' leadership practices compared to teachers from Alberta and other Canadian regions. Notably, while there was a significant difference in perceptions between Egyptian teachers and those from other Canadian regions, no significant differences were observed between Albertan teachers and their counterparts from other parts of Canada or Egypt. This suggests that while cultural context may play a role in shaping teachers’ perceptions, other factors could be at play in Alberta, making Alberta teachers’ views more aligned with those of Egyptian teachers. In conclusion, regional differences significantly influenced teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership practices, with Egyptian teachers being less likely to resist their school principals' vision of change compared to their Canadian counterparts, except for those in Alberta.

In summary, compared to their Canadian counterparts, Egyptian teachers have a more positive view of their school principals' leadership. Among Canadian teachers, those from

Alberta have opinions that are closer to the Egyptian teachers' views. These differences between regions suggest that cultural and other contextual factors significantly influence how teachers perceive their principals' leadership, which in turn may affect their willingness to embrace or to resist these practices.

Educational Systems and Policies

One possible explanation for the observed differences in perceptions may lie in the distinct educational systems and policies prevalent in Egypt and Canada. The structure of school leadership, the role of principals, and the expectations from teachers could vary significantly between these regions. Such systemic differences are likely to influence how leadership is perceived and evaluated by teachers. For instance, if the Egyptian educational system places a different emphasis on the role of principals compared to the Canadian system, this could account for the variance in perceptions among teachers.

Socio-Cultural and Economic Factors

Moreover, socio-cultural factors, including societal values, norms, and beliefs about education and leadership, may play a crucial role in shaping teachers' perceptions. Egyptian teachers, for instance, may have cultural predispositions that favour a certain style of leadership, which is reflected in their higher ratings. Additionally, economic conditions such as funding levels for schools and teachers' salaries may indirectly affect perceptions of leadership. Teachers in better-funded educational environments may exhibit varying levels of receptiveness to their principals' visions, potentially influencing their overall perception of leadership effectiveness.

Professional Development, Communication, and Expectations

The level and nature of professional development opportunities available to teachers in these regions could also influence their perceptions. If Egyptian teachers receive more training

focused on collaborative and supportive leadership, this may explain their more favourable views. Furthermore, differences in communication styles between the regions could be a factor. For example, if Egyptian principals typically use more direct or hierarchical communication, which aligns with local cultural norms, this may lead to higher approval ratings. Additionally, the discrepancy may also be rooted in different expectations. Teachers in Canada may have different expectations from their school principals compared to their Egyptian counterparts, affecting their perception and likelihood of resistance.

Historical, Political, and Global Influences

Last, the historical and political backdrop of each region could shape teachers' attitudes towards authority and leadership. For instance, historical experiences in Egypt may have influenced teachers to view their principals' leadership more favourably. Teachers in different regions may also be exposed to varying global influences, including educational trends and leadership models, which could shape their perceptions and expectations. This global perspective may offer insights into why Albertan teachers' views align more closely with those of Egyptian educators, suggesting a convergence of educational ideologies across diverse geographical contexts.

Gender and Resistance

The second hypothesis, where the null hypothesis was accepted, posited that gender influences K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance, with differences expected between male and female teachers. The study found that teachers’ genders do not influence K-12 teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices and forms of resistance, with differences between male and female teachers. Within individual regions, gender differences in perceptions were minimal. However, when

comparing male teachers across jurisdictions, Egyptian teachers rated their school principals significantly higher than their Albertan counterparts. This suggests that while gender is not a significant determinant in how teachers perceive the practices of their school leaders. Regional and cultural differences, however, play an important role in shaping male teachers' perceptions of leadership practices, especially between Egypt and Alberta.

Influence of Societal Norms and Gender Roles

While the study found minimal gender differences within individual regions, the notable variance in perceptions between male teachers in Egypt and Alberta suggests that societal norms and traditional gender roles may influence these perceptions. In societies where traditional gender roles are more pronounced, male teachers may perceive leadership differently. For instance, in cultures where certain leadership traits or practices are highly valued, male teachers may be more inclined to view their school principals favourably and hence be less resistant to the school principal’s vision for change if the leaders exhibit these traits. This perspective may explain, in part, the higher ratings by male teachers in certain regions, reflecting a congruence between the valued leadership traits in their cultural context and the practices exhibited by their school principals. In general, the comparatively higher ratings from Egyptian male teachers, as opposed to their Albertan and other Canadian counterparts, could be indicative of differing societal norms and expectations around leadership and gender roles. One limitation of this study is being unable to explain the nuanced reasons why Egyptian male teachers tend to rate their school principals higher on the LPI scale.

Complex Interplay of Factors

In conclusion, the study's findings suggest a complex interplay of factors influencing male teachers' perceptions of their school principals' leadership practices. While gender alone

does not appear to be a significant determinant, the interplay of cultural norms, professional expectations, and regional differences creates a nuanced landscape. This complexity underscores the importance of considering both regional and cultural contexts when examining gender dynamics in educational leadership perceptions.

Teachers' Experience and Resistance

Hypothesis Three, where the null hypothesis was rejected, posited that the duration of K-12 teachers' years of experience significantly influence their perceptions of school leadership and their propensity for resistance. The Kruskal-Wallis test initially suggested variations in leadership perceptions based on years of experience. However, the Mann-Whitney pairwise comparisons provided a more nuanced understanding. Significant differences in perceptions were observed between teachers with ≤ 5 years of experience when compared to those with 6-10 years, 11-15 years, and ≥ 21 years of experience. In contrast, other group comparisons, such as between teachers with 6-10 years and 11-15 years of experience, did not yield significant differences. These findings confirm that teachers' years of experience correlate with their views on principal leadership effectiveness and their inclination towards workplace resistance. Notably, less experienced teachers generally held their school principals in higher regard, suggesting they may be less resistant to leadership-driven changes.

Influence of Professional Development and Adaptability

The observed differences in perceptions based on years of experience may be influenced by the varying levels of professional development and adaptability among teachers. Teachers with fewer years of experience, typically having more recent training, may be more open to new educational trends and leadership styles. This recent exposure to contemporary educational philosophies could make them more receptive to leadership-driven changes, as they are still

shaping their teaching philosophies and practices. In contrast, teachers with more years of experience may have established views and practices, making them less adaptable to new leadership approaches.

Impact of Generational Perspectives and Technological Adaptation

One aspect to consider is the impact of generational perspectives. Younger teachers, or those with fewer years of experience, may belong to a generation more accustomed to rapid changes and technological advancements. This generational trait could translate into a greater acceptance of innovative leadership practices and changes introduced by school principals. On the other hand, more experienced teachers, who may not have grown up with the same level of technological immersion, may find it challenging to adapt to new methods and leadership styles that heavily rely on technology.

Another aspect to understand the differences between teachers of different years of experience in rating the practices of their school principals is that newly appointed teachers may exhibit a greater propensity for exploring their classroom environments, given their recent entry into this professional setting. Their limited tenure affords them little opportunity to participate in the school's political dynamics, including acts of resistance. With their attention primarily directed towards classroom management and student engagement, these educators may be less inclined to partake in resistant behaviours.

Role of Mentorship and Support Systems

The study’s findings also suggest that the role of mentorship and support systems in schools could be a significant factor. Less experienced teachers, often being mentees, may receive more guidance and support from their principals, leading to a more favourable perception of their leadership. This support could also reduce their resistance to changes proposed by these

leaders. Conversely, teachers with more experience, who may be in mentorship roles themselves, could have different expectations from their school principals, influencing their perceptions and resistance levels.

Dynamic Interplay of Experience and Perception

In conclusion, the study highlights a dynamic interplay between teachers' years of experience and their perceptions of principal leadership effectiveness. While less experienced teachers generally view their school principals more favourably and are less resistant to changes, various factors such as professional development, generational perspectives, and the presence of mentorship and support systems contribute to these perceptions. Understanding these nuances is crucial for school leaders in tailoring their approach to effectively engage and lead teachers with diverse levels of experience.

Educational Level Taught and Resistance

Hypothesis Four, which was retained, explored the potential variations in teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership behaviours across the educational level they teach. The LPI data, spanning from Egypt, Alberta, and other Canadian regions, was analyzed using the Kruskal-Wallis test. In Egypt, junior high teachers appeared to perceive their principals' leadership differently than their elementary and high school counterparts. However, the statistical analysis revealed no significant difference in their perceptions. Similarly, in Canada, excluding Alberta, junior high teachers seemed to have a more favourable view of their principals, but the differences were not statistically significant. In Alberta, teachers across all grade levels held consistent views on their principals' leadership. Overall, the results from all regions indicated that teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership and resistance strategies did not significantly differ based on the grade level they taught.

Influence of Curriculum and Student Age Group

While the study found no significant differences in perceptions based on the educational level taught, it is worth considering how the curriculum and the age group of students may subtly influence teachers' perceptions of leadership. Teachers teaching different educational levels deal with varying curricular demands and student developmental stages. For instance, junior high teachers, dealing with adolescents undergoing significant developmental changes, may have unique expectations from their principals in terms of support and leadership style. These nuanced needs, while not statistically significant in this study, could still influence their perceptions of effective leadership.

Impact of School Structure and Teacher Autonomy

Another aspect to consider is the impact of school structure and the level of autonomy granted to teachers at different educational levels. In some educational systems, elementary teachers may experience a more collaborative environment, while high school teachers may have more autonomy due to the specialized nature of their subjects. These structural differences could influence how teachers perceive and interact with their principals, potentially affecting their views on leadership effectiveness and their openness to leadership-driven changes

Role of Professional Development and Teacher Collaboration

The study's findings also suggest exploring the role of professional development and teacher collaboration across different educational levels. Teachers at various grade levels may have access to different professional development opportunities, which could shape their expectations and perceptions of leadership. Additionally, the degree of collaboration among teachers within a school may vary by grade level, influencing how they perceive the

effectiveness of their principal's leadership in fostering a collaborative and supportive environment.

Subtle Influences Beyond Statistical Significance

In conclusion, while the study did not find statistically significant differences in perceptions based on the educational level taught, there are subtle influences that may still play a role. Factors such as curriculum demands, school structure, teacher autonomy, professional development opportunities, and the nature of teacher collaboration could all contribute to shaping teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership. Understanding these subtleties is important for principals in tailoring their leadership approach to effectively address the unique needs and expectations of teachers at different educational levels.

Employment Status and Resistance

Hypothesis Five, which was rejected, delved into the influence of teachers' employment status on their perceptions of school principals' leadership practices. Analyzing data from Alberta, other Canadian regions, and Egypt, the results indicated that part-time teachers generally rated their principals more favourably than full-time teachers. In Egypt, this difference was statistically significant, suggesting distinct perceptions between the two groups. However, in Alberta and other Canadian regions, the limited sample size of part-time teachers posed challenges in generalizing the findings. Despite these limitations, the overall trend suggests that employment status does play a role in shaping teachers' views on leadership. In summary, part-time teachers across the regions seemed to perceive their school principals' leadership practices more positively than their full-time counterparts, implying varied experiences or expectations based on employment tenure.

Impact of Workload and School Involvement

The observed trend where part-time teachers generally rated their principals more favourably than full-time teachers may be influenced by differences in workload and level of involvement in school affairs. Part-time teachers, with potentially lighter workloads and less daily immersion in school dynamics, may have a different perspective on leadership practices. Their interactions with school principals could be less frequent or more focused, possibly leading to more positive perceptions. Additionally, part-time teachers may have less vested interest in the leadership decisions within the school or feel less interested in leadership decisions at the school due to their employment status. In contrast, full-time teachers, deeply involved in the day-to-day operations of the school, may have more opportunities to observe and critique leadership practices, leading to a more critical view.

Perceptions Shaped by Employment Expectations

Another aspect to consider is how employment expectations may shape perceptions. Part-time teachers may have different expectations from their school principals compared to full-time teachers. For instance, they may prioritize support and flexibility in their roles, and if these needs are met, they may view their principals more favourably. Full-time teachers, on the other hand, may expect more in terms of leadership, resources, and professional development, influencing their perceptions differently.

Influence of School Culture and Teacher Engagement

The study's findings also suggest exploring the influence of school culture and teacher engagement. Part-time teachers rate their school principals higher can be justified by various reasons. For instance, part-time teachers spend less time in the school environment hence having fewer interactions with their school principal by comparison with full-time counterparts, which

could explain why part-time teachers may rate their school leaders higher on LPI. A more supportive and inclusive school culture may also explain why part-time teachers rate their school principals higher on LPI. Conversely, in environments where part-time teachers feel marginalized, this could negatively impact their views. The level of engagement and inclusion of part-time teachers in school activities, decision-making processes, and professional development opportunities could significantly influence their perceptions of their principals' leadership.

Nuanced Understanding of Employment Status

In conclusion, while the study found that part-time teachers across the three regions seemed to perceive their school principals' leadership practices more positively than full-time teachers, this trend is influenced by a complex interplay of factors. Workload, personal goals, level of school involvement, employment expectations, school culture, and teacher engagement may all contribute to shaping these perceptions. Understanding these nuances is crucial for school leaders to effectively address the diverse needs and expectations of both part-time and full-time teachers.

In summary, these analyses across various dimensions – including regional and cultural contexts, gender, years of experience, educational levels taught, and employment status – reveals a multifaceted landscape of teachers' perceptions towards school principals' leadership practices and their resistance to change. While regional and cultural differences significantly influence these perceptions, highlighting the impact of societal norms and expectations, gender does not emerge as a predominant factor. Teachers' years of experience have a significant impact on their perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Notably, teachers with fewer years in the profession are generally more receptive to their school principals' proposed changes, thereby exhibiting a lower propensity for resistance. Educational levels taught do not show significant variance in

perceptions, suggesting that factors beyond grade levels shape teachers' views. Last, employment status plays a role, with part-time teachers often perceiving leadership more favourably than full-time teachers, possibly due to differences in workload, expectations, and school involvement. Collectively, these findings underscore the complexity of educational leadership dynamics, emphasizing the need for nuanced, context-sensitive approaches in educational administration and policymaking.

Teachers, Culture, and Resistance

The exploration of various factors influencing teachers' perceptions of school leadership, as discussed in the preceding sections, culminates in a nuanced understanding of the interplay between teachers, culture, and resistance. This study demonstrated that teachers' perceptions and resistance to school leadership are not monolithic but are instead shaped by a confluence of diverse factors including regional and cultural contexts, teachers' experience, and employment status among other factors.

Culturally, the findings highlight the profound impact of regional differences, underscoring how societal norms and values can shape teachers' attitudes towards leadership. This cultural dimension is critical in understanding the varying degrees of resistance or acceptance of leadership practices. For instance, the alignment or misalignment of leadership styles with culturally ingrained expectations can either facilitate or hinder the acceptance of leadership-driven changes.

In essence, this thesis underscores the complexity of the relationship between teachers and school leadership. It reveals that resistance to leadership is not merely a matter of personal disposition but is deeply embedded in a web of cultural, experiential, and institutional factors. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for educational leaders and policymakers who aim to

foster effective leadership practices that are sensitive to the diverse contexts and needs of teachers. This understanding is key to developing leadership strategies that minimize resistance and promote a collaborative, inclusive, and adaptive educational environment.

Discussion

Teachers' Resistance: Beyond School Principal Relations to Systemic Educational Challenges

Tables 8, 9, and 10 illustrate that teachers from the three regions generally assign their school principals an above-average rating on the LPI. This trend suggests that, on a broader scale, teachers do not usually tend to resist their immediate school leaders. Consequently, a critical question emerges: If teachers are not predisposed to resist their immediate leaders, then who is the target of teachers' resistance? Instead, teachers' resistance appears to be a reaction to more extensive institutional challenges. Dyke and Bates (2019) and Quinlan (2018) propose that teachers' resistance movements primarily challenge systemic educational issues rather than opposing individual school principals.

One of the most famous teachers' strikes in Canada occurred in Nova Scotia during the 2016-2017 school year (Frost, 2017). During this unprecedented strike, teachers demanded a better wage package, the reinstatement of the longstanding service award, additional resources for their students, and greater professional autonomy.

Starting on February 3rd, 2019, the Elementary Teachers Federation of Ontario (ETFO) initiated a weekly provincewide strike. In this strike, teachers expressed concerns about increasing classroom sizes, emphasizing the need for a manageable teacher-student ratio (Jones,

2020). Additionally, there was a strong call for enhanced resources and support for students with special needs. The protection of full-day kindergarten programs also became a focal point, with teachers advocating for its continuation without reductions. Financially, while the teachers sought a wage increase of around two per cent to align with inflation, they faced opposition from the government's legislation that limited wage hikes to one per cent for public sector workers over three years. This cap was contested in court by the teachers' unions, who believed it violated their collective bargaining rights.

In February 2002, after nearly three weeks of strikes, 20,000 Albertan public-school teachers resumed classes after a famous strike at that that. In this resistance movement, teachers demanded better pay and a reduction in the number of students per classroom. Egyptian teachers echoed these demands in their strike years later. In September 2011, teachers in Egypt embarked on a historic strike, the first of its kind since 1951 (Raslan, 2011). While salary hikes were among their demands, the teachers primarily sought better learning environments and greater respect for their profession.

Teachers' resistance, as evidenced by various strikes and movements in countries ranging from Canada to Egypt, predominantly stems from systemic educational issues rather than personal relationships with school principals. Across these regions, teachers consistently voice concerns about inadequate pay, classroom conditions, sufficient resources for their students, and improving the learning environment. Such movements highlight the teachers' drive to challenge broader institutional problems and advocate for systemic educational reforms. This resistance underscores their collective commitment to enhancing educational environments, with a primary focus on the well-being of their students, their profession, and themselves.

This acknowledgment does not negate the possibility that a particular group of teachers may sometimes resist their school principal's vision of change in isolation from other schools and cohorts. In fact, teachers may still resist the practices of their immediate leaders if they encounter unique challenges or issues confined to their school, which may not impact colleagues in the same region or cultural context. When the reasons for resistance extend beyond a single school, the solidarity and collective action facilitated by teachers' unions play a crucial role in fostering a resistance movement with a broader scope. Consequently, the focus and nature of teachers' resistance are subject to change, influenced by the specific circumstances of the dissent, the contextual factors at play, and the evolving dynamics of the resistance movement.

Levels of Resistance

Workplace resistance, as previously discussed, manifests as a refusal to the practice of power by those higher in the educational hierarchy. This study posits that resistance operates on two levels: individual and collective. Initially, resistance is personal, where a teacher perceives a disconnect between the educational leader's exercise of power and what the teacher considers ethically or professionally appropriate or feasible. This phase involves significant introspection, where the teacher weighs the moral and/or professional implications and potential consequences of his or her dissent.

The individual resister then aims to discern if other colleagues share similar reservations about the leadership's exercise of power. This exploration often involves nuanced observations and discreet conversations, gauging the collective sentiment. If the resister perceives colleagues as indifferent or exhibiting less passion, their resistance often becomes a solitary endeavor, manifesting in discrete and typically understated actions. This could involve behaviors such as

awaiting the advent of new initiatives or maintaining a low profile within the confines of the classroom until such changes occur.

Conversely, if the resister discovers a shared sentiment of refusal and a collective eagerness for change, the resistance escalates to a collective level. This shift marks a significant change in dynamics, where resistance becomes more organized and strategic, involving a range of collective actions and roles. The collective resistance can lead to various outcomes, from transformative changes in leadership practices to alterations in the school's cultural dynamics, though it also carries the risk of potential backlash against the resisters.

Teachers' Collective Workplace Resistance: A Perspective from the Social Movement Theory

Social Movement Theory is an interdisciplinary study that seeks to explain why social mobilization occurs, the forms under which it manifests, and the potential outcomes of such movements. Rooted in sociology, political science, and psychology, Social Movement Theory examines the dynamics of protest movements, the motivations behind collective action, and the organisational structures that facilitate or hinder social change. Key concepts within the theory include political opportunity structures, resource mobilization, and framing processes. Scholars such as Tarrow (2011), McAdam (1982), and Snow et al. (1986) significantly contributed to the development and understanding of these concepts, emphasizing the interplay between political contexts, available resources, and the interpretive work done by movement actors to mobilize supporters.

Social Movement Theory provides a lens through which collective actions and movements can be understood. At its core, Social Movement Theory examines the reasons why

social mobilization occurs, the structures and resources that facilitate such mobilization, and the strategies that movements adopt (Tarrow, 2011). In the context of teachers' collective workplace resistance and the functions of teachers' unions, Social Movement Theory provides deep insights into the dynamics of resistance movement progression from individual to various collective levels.

Is Workplace Resistance a Social or a Marxist Phenomenon?

Workplace resistance is intrinsically linked to the exercise of power by leaders, the subordinates' perceptions of this power, and the dynamics governing the relationships within the organizational structure. This study posits that workplace resistance is a natural human response to power dynamics within an organizational setting. It has existed and will persist across diverse cultures and ideologies in human societies. Although philosophers such as Karl Marx have sought to elucidate group dynamics and resistance movements, the essence of resistance transcends any single philosophical doctrine.

Contrary to Marx's argument that resistance primarily operates at a collective level, culminating in revolutionary change, this study contends that resistance in the workplace manifests in various forms and seldom progresses to revolutionary movements. Marx conceptualized resistance as inherently antagonistic to the prevailing political system, aiming to transform political and social realities. This study, however, suggests that workplace resistance among workers often does not conform to this characterization. Even when labor unions intensify their resistance against certain government decisions as discussed earlier in this chapter, many ultimately negotiate and reach a settlement with the authorities they challenge.

This study posits that organisational conflict is bound by specific constraints, within which the opposing parties—the resisters and the resisted—implicitly agree on the conflict's

parameters. Hence, the concept of resistance cannot be confined to a singular philosophical perspective. For instance, the teacher strikes detailed earlier in this chapter took place in countries where neither socialist nor Marxist are prevalent ideologies. These acts of collective teacher resistance were characterized by particular demands, methods of resistance, escalation strategies, and concluded promptly once the teachers' unions reached agreeable terms with the respective governments.

Collective Identity and Teachers' Resistance

Central to Social Movement Theory is the concept of collective identity, which refers to individuals' sense of belonging to a larger group with shared interests and grievances (Polletta & Jasper, 2001). Teachers, facing common challenges such as unfavourable working conditions, curriculum changes, or inadequate pay, often develop a shared identity. This collective identity becomes a catalyst for mobilization and resistance. For instance, in the U.S., widespread teacher strikes in 2018 and 2019, often termed the 'Red for Ed' movement, showcased teachers' collective identity and their shared grievances against underfunding in education (Szolowicz & Wisman, 2021).

Role of Teachers' Unions

Teachers' unions play a pivotal role in channeling this collective identity into an organised resistance. As posited by McAdam's (1982) Political Process Model, a subset of Social Movement Theory, the existence of organized institutions, such as workers' unions, can facilitate the emergence and sustainability of social movements. Unions provide the necessary resources - be it in the form of financial support, organisational structure, or strategic guidance - that amplify teachers' voices and actions.

Recent research underscores the significance of teachers' unions in advocating for educational reforms and teachers' rights. For instance, a study by Grissom and Keiser (2011) found that strong teachers' unions can influence educational policy by shaping school board decisions. Furthermore, unions often act as a bridge between teachers and policymakers, ensuring that teachers' concerns are adequately represented in educational reforms.

Framing and Teachers' Resistance

Another crucial component of Social Movement Theory is framing, which refers to the ways movements present their issues to garner support (Benford & Snow, 2000). Teachers' unions often employ specific frames to highlight injustices in the educational system. For example, by framing issues around the theme of "students' futures" or "quality education," unions can resonate with a broader audience, including parents and the public.

During the 2019 strike in Los Angeles, teachers' unions effectively utilized framing to emphasize their cause as a broader push to improve public education, rather than just seeking pay raises (Thomson, 2019). This approach resonated with the public, as it highlighted issues such as overcrowded classrooms, inadequate supplies, and the overall austerity measures undermining public education. The framing strategy was not only about personal gains for teachers but also about the broader well-being of students and the quality of education. This narrative was instrumental in garnering public support, as it showcased the challenges faced by teachers and students alike. The strike resulted in promises for smaller class sizes and the hiring of more nurses and counselors, benefiting students directly.

External Allies and Support

Social Movement Theory also emphasizes the importance of external allies in bolstering a movement's strength (Tilly, 2004). Teachers' unions often collaborate with parent associations,

student groups, and other community organisations. Such alliances not only augment the movement's resources but also enhance its legitimacy in the eyes of policymakers and the public.

For instance, a study by Uetricht and Eidlin (2019) on the Chicago Teachers Union strike of 2012 highlighted how the union's alliance with community groups played a crucial role in its success. The union's collaboration with parents and community organisations ensured a more holistic representation of grievances, making the movement more formidable.

Challenges and Counter-movements

While teachers' collective resistance and unions have made significant strides, they also face challenges. Counter-movements, often backed by policymakers or interest groups opposing teachers' demands, can hinder the progress of teachers' movements (Meyer & Staggenborg, 1996). For example, the rise of charter schools and voucher programs in the U.S., often supported by certain political factions, can be seen as counter-movements challenging teachers' unions' traditional stances (Moe, 2011).

In the light of the Social Movement Theory, teachers' collective workplace resistance and the roles of teachers' unions can be understood as a dynamic interplay of collective identity, organisational support, strategic framing, and external alliances. While challenges persist, the collective power of teachers, facilitated by unions, remains a potent force in shaping educational landscapes.

Workplace Resistance in Education: Catalyst for Change or Barrier to Progress?

Workplace resistance in educational settings, a central theme in this study, presents a complex phenomenon that defies a binary classification of being purely beneficial or detrimental. This intricate dynamic, examined through the lens of teachers' interactions with school

leadership, reveals that the essence of resistance lies not in its mere existence, but in the motivations driving it and the context in which it manifests.

Resistance, however, can be a harbinger of positive change. It often emerges from a deep-seated commitment to educational values and a desire to enhance the learning environment. When teachers resist, it may signal a misalignment between the school's direction and its core educational ethos. In such instances, resistance serves as a crucial feedback mechanism, prompting introspection and reassessment within the school's leadership. Workplace resistance can catalyze reforms and fosters an environment where innovation and diverse perspectives are valued.

Conversely, resistance can also be a source of discord and stagnation. When rooted in personal grievances, resistance to change, or misinformation, it can impede progress and create a fractious atmosphere. Such resistance, especially when it escalates to collective dissent without a constructive outlet, can hinder the implementation of necessary reforms and negatively impact the overall school climate.

The findings of this study underscore that the impact of workplace resistance is heavily contingent on how it is managed and addressed. Leadership that is responsive, empathetic, and adaptive can transform resistance into a constructive dialogue, harnessing it as a force for positive change. Conversely, a dismissive or authoritarian response can exacerbate tensions, deepening and entrenching resistance.

In conclusion, workplace resistance in educational settings is neither inherently good nor bad. It is a multifaceted and a complex phenomenon that, depending on its origin, management,

and objectives can either be a catalyst for beneficial change or a barrier to progress. The nuanced understanding of this dynamic is essential for effective educational leadership and the creation of a thriving workplace environment.

Implications of the Study

The study highlighted distinct regional variations in teachers' perceptions, with Egyptian teachers, for instance, having a different perception compared to their counterparts in Alberta and other Canadian regions. This suggests leadership practices and their effectiveness may be influenced by regional or cultural nuances. Educational leaders should be aware of these variations and tailor their approaches accordingly. The cultural differences can play a pivotal role in the uniqueness of change initiatives hence the policymakers should consider the local culture when designing a change initiative.

The study findings indicated that gender did not significantly influence perceptions within regions. Yet, distinct regional variations were especially evident among male teachers. This observation suggests that teachers' perceptions of a leader's vision of change and their subsequent workplace resistance transcend mere gender differences. The study postulates that both individual and collective levels of resistance are present within school environments. The study also presupposes that teachers tend to engage in collective resistance in ways that do not undermine their dedication to students or breach their ethical duties at work. Under this premise, gender is found to have a negligible impact on the dynamics of collective resistance movements.

Given this context, a pressing question emerges: If teachers opt for collective resistance against their school leader's practices, how may they navigate the ensuing conflict? This conflict arises from the juxtaposition of power exercised by school leaders and the counteractive power exerted through teachers' resistance. It is essential to consider that teachers typically possess a

profound sense of responsibility towards their profession and students. Furthermore, how do school leaders, who share the same sense of responsibility towards their profession and students, respond to such resistance? Exploring the dynamics and parameters that shape potential conflicts between teachers and educational leaders becomes crucial.

The varying perceptions based on years of experience, as observed in both Egypt and Alberta, indicate that teachers at different stages of their careers may have different expectations or experiences with leadership practices. Leaders should be cognizant of this and adapt their strategies to cater to both experienced teachers and newer entrants.

In summary, the findings of this study suggest that change initiatives are more likely to succeed when they are tailored in partnership with teachers. By collaborating closely with teachers, policymakers and school leaders can ensure that reform is not only theoretically sound but also practically feasible. Moreover, it is imperative to consider the unique context and needs of different educational settings. A one-size-fits-all approach may not be effective, as each educational environment has its own set of challenges and opportunities. By recognizing and addressing these nuances, change initiatives can be more targeted, relevant, and ultimately, more impactful.

Recommendations for Future Research

Subsequent studies may consider broadening their recruitment avenues, utilizing various platforms and techniques to achieve a more diverse and thorough sample. To enhance the scope and generalizability of findings, it would be beneficial for subsequent studies to include a broader range of regions and other demographic factors, ensuring adequate representation and sample sizes for each.

Incorporating a mixed-methods approach, which combines both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, can provide a more holistic understanding. Qualitative methods, such as interviews or focus groups, can delve deeper into teachers' perceptions, capturing the intricacies that quantitative data may miss. Longitudinal studies could offer insights into the evolving nature of teachers' perceptions over time, shedding light on the dynamic interplay of factors influencing these perceptions.

Last, based on the insights gleaned from this study, researchers may design and implement interventions aimed at enhancing leadership practices or addressing areas of resistance. Evaluating the effectiveness of these interventions would further contribute to the field, offering actionable strategies for educational leaders and policymakers.

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Appendix A: SURVEY QUESTIONS of the STUDY

Table 1

Part 1: Teachers' forms of resistance

Let's say you do not appreciate for your principal's vision of change, and you decided to oppose it. Which the following statements best describes what you would do? You would:

Statements	Ratings				
	1 never	2 once in a while	3 sometimes	4 usually	5 almost always
1.1 reduce communication with him/her as much as it is possible.					
1.2 intentionally not submit paperwork and administrative matters by the deadline.					
1.3 not attend a social gathering with him/her, for example.					
1.4 excuse yourself from attending staff meetings.					
1.5 tell a joke about the principal or about his/her vision of change.					
1.6 be absent or late to arrive at school.					

Table 2

Part 2: Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2017)

To what extent does your school principal engage in the following behaviours? He or She:

Statements	Ratings				
	1 never	2 once in a while	3 sometimes	4 usually	5 almost always
2.1 sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others.					
2.2 talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.					
2.3 seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities.					
2.4 develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with.					
2.5 praises people for a job well done.					
2.6 makes certain that people adhere to the principles and standards that have been agreed upon.					
2.7 describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.					
2.8 challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.					
2.9 actively listens to diverse points of view.					
2.10 makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.					

2.11 follows through on the promises and commitments that he/she makes.

2.12 appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.

2.13 actively searches for innovative ways to improve what we do.

2.14 treats others with dignity and respect.

2.15 makes sure that people are creatively recognized for their contributions to the success of our project.

2.16 asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance.

2.17 shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.

2.18 asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.

2.19 involves people in the decisions that directly impact their job performance.

2.20 publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.

2.21 builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organisation.

2.22 paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.

2.23 identifies measurable milestones that keep projects moving forward.

2.24 gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.

2.25 tells stories of encouragement about the good work of others.

2.26 is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership.

2.27 speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.

2.28 takes initiative in anticipating and responding to change.

2.29 ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

2.30 gets personally involved in recognizing people and celebrating accomplishments.

Part 3: Demographic Characteristics:

3.1 What is your gender?

a. female

b. male

c. non-binary

d. prefer not to say

3.2 How long have you been working as a teacher?

a. 5 years or less

b. 6 to 10 years

c. 11 to 15 years

d. 16 to 20 years

e. 21 years or more

3.3 What category is your school?

a. Public schools

b. Private schools (not faith- oriented)

c. Catholic schools

d. other faith-oriented schools

e. Charter schools

3.4 What level of learners do you mostly teach?

a. elementary school

b. junior high

c. high school

3.5 What educational program do you teach?

a. main program

b. gifted students stream i.e., Cogito, Challenge, etc.

c. immersion program i.e., French immersion

d. International Baccalaureate

e. special education

f. International General Certificate of Secondary Education

g. General Certificate of Secondary Education

h. other programs

3.6 What is the status of your employment?

a. part-time

b. full-time

c. substitute teacher

3.7 What municipality do you teach in Alberta?

a. rural

b. urban

Please be aware that this is the last chance to withdraw the data as the data will be anonymous and cannot be deleted.

Appendix B: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Title of the study:

Teachers as Partners in Organisational Change in K-12 Schools

Principal Investigator: Sherif Khater
Master's Candidate
Faculty of Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, AB
skhater@ualberta.ca

Supervisor: Dr. Darryl Hunter
Associate Professor
Faculty of Education
University of Alberta
Edmonton, AB
dhunter2@ualberta.ca

Invitation to Participate:

As a practicing teacher in K-12 school settings, you are invited to participate in this online survey about the relationship between workplace resistance to change and leadership vision. This study is a great opportunity to hear from teachers about implementing school reform, referred to in the study as "change".

Purpose of the study:

From this research we wish to better understand teachers' perspectives of change and if there is a correlation with the school leader's vision. It is also looking to understand dynamics of teachers' workplace resistance.

Participation:

I am looking for recruiting 1,000 practitioner teachers who work various types of schools. If you wish to participate in this study, please complete the attached survey. This survey should take you approximately 20-25 minutes to complete. This study, including this survey, is for my master's thesis. You do not have to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. We appreciate receiving it before April *16th, 2023*.

Benefits:

Your participation will enable academia, school leaders, and educational experts to get a better picture of teachers' perspectives about change and teachers' position as the

practitioners who work on implementing change. Understanding teachers' perspectives will help school leaders and educational experts design better change plans in partnership with teachers, and it will also help design more effective professional development programs for teachers.

Risks:

It is possible that some of the questions may address some topics that some participants may not be willing to answer.

Confidentiality and Anonymity:

The information that you will share will remain strictly confidential and will be used solely for the purposes of this research. The only people who will have access to the research data are Sherif Khater and Dr. Darryl Hunter.

In order to minimize the risk of security breaches and to help ensure your confidentiality we recommend that you use standard safety measures such as signing out of your account, closing your browser and locking your screen or device when you are no longer using them / when you have completed the study.

Results will be published in pooled (aggregate) format. Anonymity is guaranteed since you are not being asked to provide your name or any personal information. In addition, the survey will not collect data about the name of your school, or your name.

Data Storage:

Electronic copies of the survey will be encrypted and stored on the researcher's password protected computer for 5 years. After the required period of five years, then the data will be appropriately destroyed.

Voluntary Participation:

You are under no obligation to participate and if you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer questions that you do not want to answer. Should you choose to withdraw midway through the electronic survey simply close the link and no responses will be included. Given the anonymous nature of the survey, once you have submitted your responses it will no longer be possible to withdraw them from the study.

Information about the Study Results:

The research findings. will be available when the dissertation is published through the University of Alberta libraries.

Contact Information: If you have any questions or require more information about the study itself, you may contact the researcher or his supervisor at the numbers mentioned in this document.

If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant or how the research is being conducted, you may contact the Research Ethics Office at reoffice@ualberta.ca or call +1780-492-2615. The University of Alberta Ethics file ID for this study is Pro00123825.

Please save and download this form for your records.

Completion and submission of the survey means your consent to participate. This is the last chance to withdraw the data as the collected data will be anonymous and cannot be deleted.

Appendix C: PUBLISHER PERMISSION TO USE LPI in THE STUDY

WILEY

October 10/22/2021

Dear Sherif Khater:

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® (the "LPI") in your research. This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observer/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research Subject to your payment of a $100 fee, a discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Gabriel Sims (Gsims@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions. You shall have access to the LPI for 1 year and will receive a copy of the LPI Observer form and/or Self form.

Permission to use either the written or electronic versions is contingent upon the following:

(1) The LPI may be used only for research purposes and may not be sold or used in conjunction with any compensated activities;
(2) Copyright in the LPI, and all derivative works based on the LPI, is retained by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The following copyright statement must be included on all reproduced copies of the instrument(s); "Copyright © 2013 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved. Used with permission";
(3) One (1) **electronic** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data must be sent **promptly** to my attention at the address below;
(4) We have the right to include the results of your research in publication, promotion, distribution and sale of the LPI and all related products; You shall provide us with a copy of your dissertation and a specific abstract that you have prepared that addresses of the use of the LPI in your research as well as the outcomes, following the template attached hereto as Exhibit A;

(5) Wiley shall be permitted to reprint the abstract and excerpts of your dissertation so long as we give you credit. Wiley may edit the abstract or dissertation as long as we do not changing the substance;

(6) You shall not make any changes to the Items in the LPI in the course of your research or in your dissertation;

(7) If you wish to post any materials from the LPI in a third party survey provider, you shall give us notice beforehand of your intentions and the platform in which you intend to use as well as the start and end date of the post; and

(8) You may not distribute any photocopies of the LPI except for specific research purposes and in those cases you must reach out for permission to reproduce.

Permission is limited to the rights granted in this letter and does not include the right to grant others permission to reproduce the instrument(s) except for versions made by nonprofit organizations for visually or physically handicapped persons. No additions or changes may be made without our prior written consent. You understand that your use of the

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WILEY

LPI shall in no way place the LPI in the public domain or in any way compromise our copyright in the LPI. This license is nontransferable. We reserve the right to revoke this permission at any time, effective upon written notice to you, in the event we conclude, in our reasonable judgment, that your use of the LPI is compromising our proprietary rights in the LPI.

Best wishes for every success with your research project.
Cordially,

Gabriel Sims

10475 Crosspoint Blvd., Suite 100 • Indianapolis, IN 46256 • Main Office: (317) 572-3010

Appendix D: REASEARCH ETHICS BOARD APPROVAL TO COLLECT DATA

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RESEARCH ETHICS OFFICE

2-01 North Power Plant (NPP)
11312 - 89 Ave NW
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada T6G 2N2
Tel: 780.492.0459
www.uab.ca/reo

Notification of Approval - Amendment

Date:	Wednesday, February 15, 2023
Amendment ID:	Pro00123825_AME4
Principal Investigator:	Sherif Khater
Study ID:	Pro00123825
Study Title:	Teachers as Partners in Organizational Change in K-12 Schools
Supervisor:	Darryl Hunter
Approval Expiry Date:	Monday, October 16, 2023

Thank you for submitting an amendment request to the Research Ethics Board 2. This amendment has been reviewed and approved on behalf of the committee.

Approval by the REB does not constitute authorization to initiate the conduct of this research. The Principal Investigator is responsible for ensuring required approvals from other involved organizations (e.g., Alberta Health Services, Covenant Health, community organizations, school boards) are obtained, before the research begins.

Sincerely,

Claire Trottier, REB Specialist, on behalf of

Dr. Ubaka Ogbogu, LLB, BL, LLM, SJD
Chair, Research Ethics Board 2

Note: This correspondence includes an electronic signature (validation and approval via an online system).

Appendix E: FACEBOOK ADVERTISEMENT TO RECRUIT PARTICIPANTS

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Title of the study: Teachers as Partners in Organisational Change in K-12 Schools

Place of posting the study ad: Facebook.

Facebook ad

Ad name: Inviting Edmonton teachers to participate in a study about change

Primary text: Are you an Edmonton teacher and ready for change?
Find out more by going to the study survey.

Headline: Join the research study and share your views.

Description: your participation will help explore a more effective partnership between teachers and educational leaders.

Pictures:

Link to click: https://forms.gle/x1fN7r6N2nrYVLGN9

Principal investigator: Sherif Khater
email address: skhater@ualberta.ca

The University of Alberta Ethics file ID of this study is Pro00123825.
The survey is expected to take 20 to 25 minutes to answer.

Facebook Ad Settings:

Ad Set Name: teachers in Edmonton
Location: Greater Edmonton
Age: 21-years old to 65-yearsold teachers

Genders: all genders
Detailed Targeting: teachers
Audience: teachers from Edmonton
Optimization for Ad Delivery: Link Clicks
Schedules: one month
Tracking: all tracking will be disabled

Appendix F: RECTRUITING MATERIAL

Ethics file ID of this study is Pro00123825.
version of March 13, 2023