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## An investigation of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa

Marcus J. Haack  
*University of Northern Iowa*

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**Haack, Marcus J., Ed.D.**

**University of Northern Iowa, 1991**

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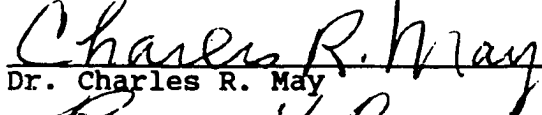
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A Dissertation  
Submitted  
In Partial Fulfillment  
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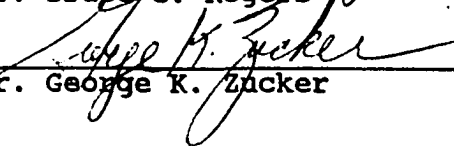
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December 1991

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**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT  
BEHAVIORS OF PRINCIPALS IN MID-SIZED  
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS IN IOWA**

**An Abstract of a Dissertation  
Submitted  
In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education**

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## ABSTRACT

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa when applied to 10 job functions of instructional management behavior. The study utilized the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) instrument, developed by Dr. Philip J. Hallinger, to assess perceptions of instructional management behaviors of principals.

A total of 165 individual assessments were included in the analysis. Completed survey instruments were received from 55 superintendents, 55 high school principals, and 55 high school teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa.

Data collected were analyzed using the Pearson correlation analysis to determine relationships among the perceptions of the three sub-groups. In addition, the data were paired as follows: superintendents' perceptions/principals' self-perceptions, principals' self-perceptions/teachers' perceptions, and superintendents' perceptions/teachers' perceptions. A paired  $t$  test design was utilized to analyze the data in each pairing at the .05 level of significance for each of the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior included in the PIMRS instrument.

Significant relationships were identified between superintendents' and principals' perceptions on 4 of the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior.

Significant relationships were also identified between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions on 5 of the 10 job functions. No significant relationships were observed, however, between principals' and teachers' perceptions.

Although the data revealed that superintendents, principals, and teachers generally perceive principals as demonstrating specific instructional management behaviors within the 10 job functions included in the PIMRS instrument, significant differences were evident between superintendents' and principals' perceptions on 1 of the 10 job functions, while significant differences were evident between principals' and teachers' perceptions on 6 of the 10 job functions. Significant differences were also noted on the same six job functions in a comparison of superintendents' and teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional management behaviors.

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CHAPTER I  
INTRODUCTION

During the past 3 decades numerous studies of the school principalship have been conducted. While the range of research topics related to the role of the principal has been wide and varied, many recent studies have focused on the instructional leadership role of the principal as it relates to effective instructional practice and the academic achievement of students. Research on the characteristics of effective schools indicates that one of the most important aspects of school effectiveness is the principal (Hallinger & McCary, 1990; Smith & Piele, 1989). Directly or indirectly, most factors which are consistently identified as characteristic of effective schools relate to principal effectiveness (Manasse, 1982).

A review of findings from studies on effective schools indicates that successful schools are characterized by strong principal leadership; strong principal participation in the classroom instructional program and in teaching; high principal expectations of student and teacher performance; and principals who have more control over the functioning of the school, curriculum, program, and staff (Austin, 1979). Research studies further indicate that the successful principal is a major force in school effectiveness and

school improvement through the role of instructional leader of the school.

Keedy (1987) stated:

The current reform movement demands that good principals be both "efficient" and "effective." Good principals traditionally have been "efficient" principals. They have run tight ships. Their students were well-behaved, and they kept bus and class schedules running smoothly. "Effective" principals are instructional leaders. They contribute to school improvement, and more specifically, in the 1980's, to improvement in measurable student achievement. (p. 3)

Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982) stated that principals in high achieving schools tend to emphasize achievement, exert more power in curriculum and instruction decision-making, and tend to devote more time to coordination and control of instruction. These principals conduct more observations of teachers' work, discuss more problems with teachers, are more supportive of teachers' efforts to improve, and are more active in setting up teacher and program evaluation procedures. In addition, these principals recognize the unique styles and needs of teachers and acknowledge and encourage good work.

While there is general agreement regarding the importance of the instructional management role of the principal, studies of effective principals have limited generalizability as a result of three main factors (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). First, much of the research on instructional leadership has concentrated on urban schools

serving children living in poverty. Second, a majority of studies have focused on elementary schools whose school mission, organizational structure, curricular content, instructional organization, student body characteristics, and school size differ from secondary schools. Third, student achievement tests of basic skills in reading and math are most often used as criterion for school effectiveness.

Few studies have been conducted which examine the instructional management behaviors of principals at the high school level. At a time when there is growing lack of confidence in the ability of public schools to provide quality educational programs through which students can acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to contribute to society and become life-long learners, it is important to further examine the instructional management role of the school principal, the behaviors associated with instructional management, and the perceptions of those who work with the principal relative to principals' instructional management skills.

#### Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. This

study utilized the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) instrument to assess the perceptions of each of the three sub-groups. The instrument assesses perceptions in 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors (Hallinger, 1983).

Specifically the study addressed the following questions:

1. What are superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa?

2. What relationships exist among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa?

#### Research Hypothesis

The following research hypothesis was tested in this study:

There are positive relationships among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional management behaviors in the job functions of Framing Goals, Communicating Goals, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility,

Providing Incentives for Teachers, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learners, as measured on the PIMRS instrument.

#### Importance of the Study

Effective schools research indicates that the principal is a key figure in the success of a school. Studies conducted during the 1970s and the 1980s identified the importance of effective principal leadership in efforts to improve the quality of schools.

Purkey and Smith (1983) stated:

Though we are suspicious of the "great principal" theory, it seems clear that leadership is necessary to initiate and maintain the improvement process. The principal is uniquely positioned to fill this role, and certainly his or her support is essential very early on. (p. 443)

One of the most important aspects of the principal's role is that of instructional leadership. Edmonds (1979) noted a clear difference in the principal's role in improving and declining schools. Edmonds found that principals in improving schools were more likely to be instructional leaders rather than building managers. Hallinger, Murphy, Weil, Mesa, and Mitman (1983) also indicated that principals in effective schools were perceived to be strong instructional leaders. However, it is not known whether this perception of leadership is a result of school effectiveness or whether it is an antecedent of school effectiveness.

Bossert et al. (1982) stated that principals in successful schools who were perceived to be strong instructional leaders provided coherence to the schools' instructional programs. Effective principals conceptualized instructional goals, set high academic standards, stayed informed of policies and teachers' problems, made frequent classroom visits, created incentives for learning, and maintained student discipline.

Although the importance of the principal's instructional leadership role has been recognized in school effectiveness and school improvement efforts, there are still certain limitations within the current body of research. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) noted that existing research lacks behavioral indicators of leadership. Concerns also exist related to generalizability within the research since many of the studies on instructional leadership have taken place either in urban schools serving poor children or in elementary schools. In addition, most have used criteria for effectiveness based upon standardized student achievement tests in math or reading instead of a broadly defined conceptualization of effectiveness.

Ginsberg (1988) concurred with Hallinger's and Murphy's findings regarding the lack of behavioral indicators of instructional leadership. He stated that "while the idea of strong instructional leadership is intuitively comfortable,

and as a result quite popular, it remains unclear as to what an instructional leader should do" (p. 276).

Hallinger and Murphy (1987b) noted four additional limitations of the research base. First, research designs haven't allowed for specifications of causal relationships between principal leadership and school outcomes. Second, almost all studies have investigated schools at a single point in time. Third, almost all effective school studies have investigated poor, urban elementary schools using student achievement as the sole criterion of effectiveness. Fourth, instructional leadership is seldom defined in the research in concrete terms.

Ginsberg (1988) identified several problems with effectiveness research and its relationship to instructional leadership, stating that specific methodologies and research designs do not allow for any causal inferences to be drawn. He also reported that most studies have been correlated in a small number of elementary schools. Definitions of effectiveness have been limited, with many relying solely on student test scores to define effectiveness. In addition, relatively few of the studies have been longitudinal and the research has lacked a broad focus.

Further complicating the issue of instructional leadership is the changing role of the principal. This has been particularly true during the past decade during which

time schools attempted to respond to a number of improvement initiatives which were precipitated by the publication of A Nation At Risk in 1983. Throughout much of the 1980s many states, including Iowa, adopted new state educational standards which were designed to improve the quality of educational opportunities for students, as well as to increase academic achievement.

In Iowa, a new set of educational standards for public schools became effective on July 1, 1989. These standards mandated additional course offerings in schools with increased emphasis in the areas of global education, technology, health education, programming for students-at-risk, programming for talented and gifted students, curriculum evaluation, curriculum development, curriculum revision, staff development, longer school calendars for teachers, and goal setting designed to increase student academic achievement.

At a time when Iowa schools are involved in implementing the new educational standards, it is becoming increasingly clear that school principals are being required to assume greater responsibility for infusing new standards into schools' academic programs. The extent to which principals are able to maintain an active role in providing instructional leadership while still carrying out other job-related responsibilities is not clear. It is important,



therefore, to investigate the current instructional management practices of principals in public high schools in Iowa.

#### Limitations of the Study

The population for this study was limited to superintendents, high school principals, and randomly selected teachers in each of the 117 public school districts in Iowa classified as 1-A for boys' basketball competition by the Iowa High School Athletic Association (IHSAA) for the 1989-90 school year. No attempt was made to include superintendents, principals, or teachers from school districts either larger or smaller than those designated as 1-A schools, nor did the study include private or parochial 1-A schools in Iowa. The study was limited to instructional management behaviors of building level administrators whose responsibility included grades 9-12 or grades 10-12.

The instrument utilized in this study was the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). Since the PIMRS instrument measures the perceptions of the individual completing the assessment, the study relied on the accuracy of responses provided to the researcher.

#### Definition of Terms

##### Instructional Management

This term refers to the role of the building principal which is comprised of three dimensions of instructional

leadership activity: (a) Defining the School Mission, including the job functions of Framing Goals and Communicating Goals, (b) Managing the Instructional Program, including the job functions of Coordinating the Curriculum, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, and Monitoring Student Progress, and (c) Promoting the School Learning Climate, including the job functions of Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learning (Hallinger, 1983).

#### High School Principal

For the purpose of this study, the term refers to those building level administrators who carry the title of principal and have administrative responsibility for grades 9-12 or 10-12.

#### Mid-Sized High School

For the purpose of this study, this term indicates a high school composed of grades 9-12 or grades 10-12 which was classified as 1-A for boys' basketball competition by the Iowa High School Athletic Association during the 1989-90 school year. Classification of high schools in Iowa is based on the enrollment in grades 10-12.

During the 1989-90 school year there were 431 school districts in Iowa; however due to shared high school programs, only 379 school districts offered high school

programs. The largest 64 high schools, based upon enrollment in grades 10-12 were classified as 3-A; the next 96 in size were classified as 2-A; the next 117 in size were classified 1-A; and the remaining 102 schools were classified as A. Class 1-A high schools in Iowa had an enrollment in grades 10-12 ranging from 107 to 178 students during the 1989-90 school year.

#### Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) is an instrument developed by Philip J. Hallinger in 1983 for the purpose of assessing the instructional management behaviors of principals (Hallinger, 1983).

#### Perceptions

This term refers to the understandings, opinions, and beliefs of the participants in the study as expressed on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS).

## CHAPTER II

## REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Definitions of Instructional Leadership

During the past decade researchers in the area of school and principal effectiveness have had difficulty reaching consensus on a precise definition of the term "instructional leadership." Ginsberg (1988) indicated that the importance of instructional leadership for principals probably stems from a long-held tradition in education that someone should oversee the instructional component of schooling. However, he observed that definitional inadequacies constitute a major obstacle in the implementation of effective plans of action for principals. Because explanations have been vague and broad, principals associating administrative practices with the concept of instructional leadership have little confidence that the practices are actually effective.

In spite of reservations regarding a working definition of instructional leadership, Ginsberg (1988) reported that the understanding of the principal as instructional leader is a relatively new construct and that time and further study would probably reduce the uncertainty of the definition; he stated that it is impossible to find complete precision in a definition, but suggested the

continued pursuit of more specificity and agreement among scholars regarding a definition.

While it is accepted that there are definitional inadequacies regarding the concept of instructional leadership, several researchers in the field have provided working definitions. Greenfield (1987b) indicated that instructional leadership "refers to actions undertaken to develop a productive and satisfying work environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children" (p. 56). While such leadership could come from teachers or district level administrators, the general view is that instructional leadership is a special responsibility of the school principal.

DeBevoise (1984) defined instructional leadership as "those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning" (p. 15). Keefe and Jenkins (1984) provided a similar definition, indicating that instructional leadership aimed at providing direction, resources, and support to teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school is the principal's role.

A broader definition was proposed by Acheson and Smith (1986). Instructional leadership encompasses those actions which are directly related to the processes of instruction in which teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact.

In providing instructional leadership, the principal deals with supervision, evaluation, staff development, in-service training, instructional content, materials selection, scope and sequence of curriculum, unit construction, and design of learning activities.

In the book, School Leadership: Handbook for Excellence, Weber (1989) concluded that instructional leadership, when viewed from the various perspectives of researchers in the field, is a dynamic process. He defined instructional leadership as:

. . . long-term dedication to instructional excellence, not a one-time resolution to "get more involved in instruction." It includes both instructional and school management issues: evaluation of teachers and students, school climate, curriculum, discipline, material resources for teaching, community support, staffing, decision-making methods at the department and administrative levels, short- and long-term goals for instruction, personal interaction between administrators and teachers, and so forth. (p. 192)

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) described an instructional leader as "someone who has a significant impact, for better or worse, on student opportunities to learn in the classroom" (p. 20). Meanwhile, Avila (1990) viewed instructional leadership as situational in nature. According to this view, instructional leadership definitions may vary to allow principals to meet demands associated with particular contexts of the principal's role. Due to the situational nature of instructional leadership, principals

need to select a personal definition of instructional leadership suited to the existing situation and circumstances. Avila suggested this can be accomplished by reading the instructional leadership literature, discussing the nature of instructional leadership with superiors, talking about instructional leadership with peers, and asking staff members for input. Once instructional leadership is situationally defined, the principal has the obligation to effectively communicate the definition to staff and superiors so that all concerned are operating from a common knowledge of the principal's instructional leadership style.

Duke (1982) also explored the situational nature of instructional leadership and asserted that "no single leadership skill or set of skills is presumed to be appropriate for all schools or all instructional situations in a school" (p. 2). In order to maximize instructional leadership potential, principals must acquire a repertoire of leadership skills from which those most appropriate to a given situation can be selected.

Hallinger and Murphy (1987b) expressed concern over the general agreement among researchers regarding the definition of instructional leadership in spite of the fact that few studies have investigated what principals do to manage curriculum and instruction. According to their definition,

instructional leadership involves the principal's role in three dimensions of instructional leadership activity: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting the school learning climate.

In summary, a precise definition of instructional leadership does not emerge in a review of the literature. Working definitions which do exist typically refer to those actions taken by the principal which enhance learning opportunities for students. In addition, several researchers have identified the situational nature of instructional leadership, indicating that a variety of approaches to instructional leadership must be utilized by the principal.

#### The Context of Instructional Leadership

A number of studies during the past decade have examined the characteristics of effective schools. Many of these studies have identified the key role played by the building principal. Ploghoft and Perkins (1988) stated:

The fact remains that (for at least 25 years), there has been a general recognition of the importance of the principal as an instructional leader. Recent studies of school effectiveness have not altered these views, although the task appears to have become more complex. (p. 23)

Albrecht (1988) noted that "the only legitimate goal of administrators is to help the organization work in desirable ways" (p. 29). The administrator's goal is to help students learn, and it is toward this goal that principal leadership



initiatives are to be directed. Others agree that building principals play an important role in school success, especially through the demonstration of strong instructional leadership (Acheson & Smith, 1986; Austin, 1979; Avila, 1990; Bossert, et al., 1982; DeBevoise, 1984; Donmoyer & Wagstaff, 1990; Duke, 1982; Keedy, 1987; Ginsberg, 1988; Weber, 1989).

Greenfield (1987b) identified moral imagination and interpersonal competence as the cornerstones of effective instructional leadership. A principal with moral imagination possesses the ability to see discrepancies between how things are and how they might be. This vision is based upon a framework of what is possible rather than an unattainable ideal. Interpersonal competence combines the knowledge and skills which enable an individual to focus the response obtained from others.

In a study of 1,127 members of the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals, Krajewski (1978) found that instructional supervision was ideally the most important function of the principal's job. Ranking second was curriculum supervision. In practice, however, the Texas principals identified school program administration and student discipline as ranking first and second relative to the amount of time spent on these activities. Instructional supervision ranked fifth and curriculum supervision ranked

eighth in actual practice. The principals recognized the importance of the role of instructional and curricular supervisors; however due to the multi-faceted nature of the principal's job, a greater amount of time was spent in administrative areas which were actually perceived to be of less importance.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) also noted a discrepancy between principals' beliefs and actual practices. Principals indicated a belief that they should be highly involved in instruction, spending large portions of time in classrooms working with students, and observing students' actual behaviors. However, according to Hallinger and Murphy, school principals actually spend the greatest amount of time on managerial tasks not related to instruction.

While a number of researchers have pointed out the problematic nature of discussing instructional leadership in the absence of behavioral indicators, others have noted that certain principal characteristics and/or behaviors are associated with effective instructional leadership. Brandt (1987) identified three categories of schools and observed the instructional leadership of principals in each category. High profile schools had principals who, in the perception of teachers, were strong instructional leaders. The principals had high expectations, frequently monitored

student progress, maintained a positive learning climate, and clearly communicated goals. Low profile schools were defined as those in which teachers reported these factors were not present, and average schools were somewhere in between.

Brandt (1987) noted significant differences in achievement among students in high, average, and low profile schools. In high profile schools (those with strong instructional leaders), individual student scores improved over time. Teachers who had positive perceptions of the quality of the workplace and the instructional leadership role of the principal were more productive than teachers who had less positive perceptions. An incremental growth in student achievement was noted among students who had teachers expressing positive perceptions of the principal's instructional leadership.

Edmonds (1979) found that inner-city schools which were identified as effective had administrative teams that provided an appropriate balance between management and instructional skills. Likewise, in a Maryland study which reviewed the literature on instructional leadership in elementary schools identified as being effective, Austin (1979) concluded that effective schools were characterized by strong instructional leadership as provided by the principal.

A case studies review by Purkey and Smith (1982) identified strong leadership by the principal as one of the common elements of a successful and effective school. High expectations for student achievement, emphasis on clear goals, school-wide effective staff training programs, and a system for monitoring student progress were found to be essential components associated with strong instructional leadership.

Rosenholtz (1985) stated that effective principals "convey certainty that teachers can improve student performance and that students themselves are capable of learning" (p. 360). Effective principals typically place goals of high achievement at the forefront of planning and action. Operational goals related to student performance are established, and these goals are clearly communicated to the teaching staff.

In addition, Rosenholtz's review of literature (1985) suggested that effective principals consistently press for greater commitment on the part of teachers and hold teachers accountable for student achievement. Effective principals communicate high expectations to teachers regarding student achievement in the classroom. High expectations are not reserved for capable students, however. Low achievers are expected to acquire basic skills along with the rest of the

student population, and students are held accountable for attaining defined academic standards.

A 1979 review of 59 case studies of exceptionally successful schools by Benjamin (1981) identified six commonalities of the schools' principals. These principals took strong initiatives in identifying and articulating goals and setting priorities. They thoroughly understood instructional programs and practiced a philosophy of instructional leadership rather than administrative management. High visibility characterized the principals' presence in the school with approximately half of the school day spent in hallways and classrooms. Academic programs and progress were viewed as being more important than human relations by the successful principals. The principals were also actively involved in selecting instructional staff and worked at maintaining a tone of high expectations for staff and students.

A review of over 75 research studies on effective principals by Persell and Cookson (1982) identified nine recurrent behaviors of good principals: (a) demonstrating a commitment to academic goals, (b) creating a climate of high expectations, (c) functioning as an instructional leader, (d) being a forceful and dynamic leader, (e) consulting effectively with others, (f) creating order and discipline,

(g) marshalling resources, (h) using time well, and (i) evaluating results.

Rutherford (1985) identified five leadership qualities which distinguished more effective principals from less effective ones. Principals who were more effective had a vision and clear goals, were able to translate vision into action, created an environment supportive of efforts to achieve the school's goals, knew what was occurring in school, and acted upon this knowledge.

Eight qualities of effective leadership were identified by Greenfield (1987b): (a) high goal orientation, (b) high degree of personal security, (c) high tolerance for ambiguity, (d) analytical perspective toward problem solving, (e) proactive leadership style, (f) high need to control situations combined with a low need to be controlled by others, (g) high need to express warmth and affection toward others and to receive it from others, and (h) high need to include others in problem-solving.

Manasse (1984) described "purposing behavior," that is the behavior of effective principals which is purposely identified and intentionally practiced. These purposing behaviors were categorized in five behavioral areas. Effective principals had a personal vision of what schools should be, which prompted them to develop an agenda and action plan toward implementation of that vision. A

goal-setting process designed to generate a commitment to the principals' vision was developed. The effective principals possessed expert information sensing and analysis skills which were used to develop agendas, monitor programs and behaviors, and provide feedback. In addition, timely use was made of conflict management and problem-solving skills as dictated by information sensing activities. In essence, effective principals held a clear vision of what schools should be and of the principal's role in making that vision a reality.

In summary, the principalship has been the subject of numerous studies during the past decade. Much of the research has focused on the key role played by the principal in providing the instructional leadership necessary for successful schools and high student achievement. Some of the research has indicated that instructional leadership is truly situational in nature, requiring the principal to appropriately choose from a broad repertoire of instructional leadership skills and apply them within a given context.

Another body of research exists indicating attributes often associated with effective instructional leadership. However, a frequently mentioned concern in the literature is the lack of substantive data identifying specific behaviors

of principals which are critical to the delivery of effective instructional leadership.

#### Bureaucratic and Cultural Factors

Several studies of instructional leadership as a dimension of the building principal's role indicate that effective principal leadership is more complex than merely investigating behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional leadership. Hallinger and McCary (1990) expressed the view that instructional leadership is a complex role which is dependent upon personal, contextual, and organizational factors. These factors are often categorized as cultural and bureaucratic linkages within a school. Keedy (1987) viewed these linkages as process and product.

Manasse (1984) stated that excellent organizations have "simultaneous loose-tight properties" (p. 42). This refers to the ability of effective schools to maintain focus on clearly defined goals and accountability systems while at the same time allowing for flexibility, creativity, and entrepreneurship. Such systems have a climate which is conducive to experimentation and which encourages continual growth of individuals within the system, as well as growth of the system itself. In such a setting, individuals are able to strike a balance between meeting personal goals and



organizational goals established by the superintendent and/or board of education.

Three distinctive images of leadership found in the literature were identified by Burlingame (1987). First, the school principal is the key leadership figure in the school. This top-down structure is predicated on the principal's serving in a role that is seen as rational and pragmatic to the functioning of the organization. In this image, the principal is viewed as part of the hierarchical management of the system, reflecting the values and organizational norms established by the board of education, the superintendent, and other central office administrative staff.

The second image is the cultural nature of leadership in which rationality and pragmatism are given a cultural context. Through the cultural context, principals talk about goals and act in ways that represent the norms of the community in which the school is located. To a certain degree, the principal's leadership is thus constrained by the culture of the community (Burlingame, 1987).

The third image views instructional leadership somewhere between the hierarchical and the cultural factors. When viewed in this manner, leadership is perceived as effective only if consensus is created by a group, thereby

establishing a bottom-up approach to decision-making and school management (Burlingame, 1987).

Peterson (1987) identified six mechanisms of control influence which were placed into two categories: hierarchical and non-hierarchical. Hierarchical mechanisms included supervision, input controls, behavior controls and output controls. These correspond closely to bureaucratic linkages and are often imposed by the system itself, as embodied in the school's board of education and central office administrative staff. The non-hierarchical mechanisms, which correspond to cultural linkages, include selection/socialization factors and environmental controls.

The control mechanisms existing in school systems can affect instructional leadership in several ways. They can be directive by detailing what it is the principal is to do; they can be restrictive to the degree limits are set on resources, time, decisions, and actions; or they can be formative by shaping norms, attitudes, values, and affecting the motivational structure of the principal (Peterson, 1987).

Kanpol and Weisz (1990) stated that effective leadership practices lead to institutional and cultural empowerment, which in turn should encourage and promote instructional change. Such empowerment involves trust, open dialogue, and collaborative support systems (p. 17).

Purkey and Smith (1982) also recognized the value of positive school culture and its relationship to student achievement. Schools cannot rely on easy solutions in building effective schools, nor can fundamental change be imposed through top-down management styles. Instead, schools need to be viewed as "functioning social systems with distinctive cultures in which the improvement effort is directed toward incremental, long-term cultural change" (p. 68). The academically effective school was viewed as being distinguished by a culture comprised of a structure, process, and climate of values and norms that lead all staff and students toward success in teaching and learning.

Firestone and Wilson (1985) focused on the area of bureaucratic and cultural linkages in schools. The term "linkages" is used to define mechanisms within schools which serve to coordinate the work of people (staff and students) within the organization.

Bureaucratic linkages are the structured, formal, and on-going arrangements within the school which allow the school to operate. They control the behavior of all the organizational members through rules, role definition, procedures, and the relationships among the members. Five bureaucratic mechanisms are typically found in schools: hierarchical referral and supervision, rules and procedures, plans and schedules, staffing, and vertical information

systems. Firestone and Wilson noted, however, that while most of these mechanisms are present in schools, supervision is an over-rated activity which doesn't frequently occur (Firestone & Wilson, 1985).

Cultural linkages, on the other hand, are the publicly accepted meanings for activities undertaken by those in the organization. The cultural meanings are shared by most, if not all, of the organizational members. Symbols, stories, and rituals are relied upon which help keep the culture alive, and these influence the principal in building and maintaining a communication network. Innovative schools were observed to have cultures which emphasized diversity in services they delivered, stressed improved instructional service over bureaucratic concerns, opened boundaries to the environment, and assumed norms of mutual trust and encouragement for risk-taking (Firestone & Wilson, 1985).

There are several ways in which principals can more effectively provide instructional leadership through cultural linkages. Information management and the creation and manipulation of the symbols and rituals which exist in the school setting are strategies which were found to be effective. Principals can also actively communicate the school's culture by being highly visible, demonstrating high energy levels and demonstrating a high regard for influencing the school culture (Firestone & Wilson, 1985).

Firestone and Wilson (1985) contended that the principal's task was to "develop a clear vision of the purposes of the school that gives primacy to instruction and to carry it through consistently" (p. 22). In so doing, the principal manipulates the bureaucratic linkages in such a way that the linkages help create a common vision and mode of operation focused upon that vision. At the same time, cultural linkages are used to communicate the vision so that it becomes a natural part of the school's way of doing business.

In a later work, Wilson and Firestone (1987) more closely examined bureaucratic and cultural linkages and their effect on principals' instructional leadership practices. Several ways in which bureaucratic linkages could positively influence instruction were noted. The principal was identified as a key agent in controlling the amount of time students spend on instructional activities. The principal also influenced the work patterns of teachers by arranging physical space and free time in order to promote norms of collegiality and experimentation. In some cases, the principal had at least some degree of control over discretionary resources, such as money, released time, and materials, which enhanced innovative instructional practices and activities. Staff development programs for teaching staff were arranged by the principal in order to

strengthen unused or underused skills. In addition, the principal was responsible for determining class size and grouping patterns in such a way that academic achievement was promoted.

Cultural linkages in schools were controlled by the principal in a way that built commitment to the school's vision and defined standards of achievement for staff and students. The primacy of instruction was viewed as central to the principal's vision which was then clearly communicated to all organizational members (Firestone & Wilson, 1987).

#### Instructional Leadership Functions

Although several working definitions for the concept of instructional leadership exist, a question remaining to be answered is: What principal behaviors are specifically associated with effective instructional leadership?

Ginsberg (1988) stated that it remains unclear as to what function an instructional leader should perform.

Some researchers believe that instructional leadership is best provided by a principal through careful attention to daily managerial tasks. Thoms (1986) indicated there is no single, simple formula for successfully carrying out instructional leadership activities since the nature of the principal's activities is largely determined by the context of the job, namely, the needs of students, the pressures and

opportunities emanating from the central office and the community, and the principal's own belief system and experiences. Within this context, instructional leadership is manifested "through the performance of routine activities that are connected to the principals' overarching perspectives of their organizations and of their students' needs" (p. 199).

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) concurred with Thoms in the belief that the easiest and most direct way for school principals to exercise instructional leadership is through daily managerial tasks. Rogus (1988) also viewed routine activities as the basis for providing instructional leadership. Principals interested in effective instructional leadership need to provide direct assistance to faculty members by formally setting aside time for supervision and staff development. Another method of addressing instructional leadership is to lead informally while carrying out day-to-day administrative activities, many of which are only superficially related to instruction.

In addition, Rogus (1988) identified three commitments which are prerequisites to providing effective, informal, day-to-day instructional leadership. The principal must first establish instructional leadership as a priority function for the administrative team. A set of daily activities which can help address the instructional

leadership priority needs be identified. The principal must adopt a mindset of patience and persistence which suggests that on each day something will be done to strengthen the quality of instructional leadership in the school.

Other researchers have attempted to specify principal behaviors and/or attributes which contribute to effective instructional leadership. Five basic assumptions regarding instructional leadership were posed by Little and Bird (1987). First, successful schools are characterized by certain workplace habits and perspectives that are profoundly influenced by leaders. Second, the test of instructional leadership is its influence on classroom teaching. Third, central patterns of instructional leadership can be described at the levels of principle and practice. These patterns can be learned, taught, and organized in such a way that they can be made part of principal training programs. Fourth, the most difficult area for providing effective instructional leadership is at the secondary level. Fifth, classroom observations and feedback to teachers provide the most promise for promoting instructional improvement.

Little and Bird (1987) suggested the principal has a choice from among three options in order to assure that instructional leadership takes place in a school. Principals can tap instructional expertise from outside the



local school setting by acquiring the services of external specialists who can be brought into the school to work with staff. However, if a principal possesses the skills, both as an instructional leader and as a staff development trainer, the principal can supply instructional leadership directly. Another alternative can be used in settings where a high level of instructional leadership skills are demonstrated by members of the school's teaching staff. In these situations teachers can be organized to provide instructional leadership for each other.

A novel approach to describing instructional leadership activities of principals was utilized by Phelps (1990). Phelps drew a parallel between activities of principals and the work of physicians. Just as physicians need to encourage patients to describe physical symptoms, principals must respect teacher autonomy and encourage the expression of feelings. Such a relationship fosters trust and enhances the likelihood of a proper diagnosis of problems.

A good physician assists the patient in the development of self-monitoring behaviors in order to improve early detection of physical abnormalities. Likewise, principals need to educate teachers in self-monitoring skills, and greater attention to seeking second opinions must be generated. Other parallels with medical practice include the principal's need to use research wisely, gather thorough

data, provide follow-up contacts, reinforce teachers' efforts and achievements, and assess personal strengths and weaknesses (Phelps, 1990).

Bossert et al. (1982) stated that the instructional management role of principals included activities related to instructional organization, school climate, and management actions and behaviors. The principal has a major impact on instructional organization by controlling instructional time, class size and composition, and decisions related to grouping of students. School climate encompasses all those principal activities which emphasize interpersonal relations, high expectations related to student achievement, and an orderly environment. Management behavior is manifested in the applied power and authority that is inherent in the position of the principal. From that authority base, the principal is able to exert considerable influence on the instructional program of the school.

Rallis and Highsmith (1986) maintained that effective instructional leaders are visionary. The encouragement of risk-taking, communication of the need to move ahead, provision of a focus for problem-solving, and the modeling of effective teaching techniques were also identified with effective instructional leadership.

While addressing the need for performance assessment of principals, Heffner (1984) identified 10 recurrent

characteristics which relate either directly or indirectly to instructional leadership. The list included: (a) developing goals, policies, and direction for the building; (b) organizing the school and designing programs to accomplish the school's goals; (c) monitoring teacher and student progress toward achievement of the stated academic objectives; (d) anticipating problems and solving them before they become significant; (e) maintaining an orderly, yet non-repressive school climate; (f) procuring, managing, and allocating resources to facilitate instruction; (g) creating a climate for the faculty's personal and professional growth; (h) stressing basic skills achievement; (i) being forceful, dynamic, and aggressive leaders who proactively seek to realize their conceptions of schooling; and (j) understanding the power structure of the school and community.

In a review of research on the effective principal, Persell and Cookson (1982) found three roles which directly relate to the instructional leadership function. First, the principals demonstrated a commitment to academic goals along with a clear vision of the long-term goals for the schools which included a strong emphasis on student achievement. Second, strong instructional leaders created a climate of high expectations. In the high achieving schools, principals who were strong instructional leaders did not

allow teachers to "write-off" any students as non-learners. Third, principals functioned as instructional leaders by becoming actively involved in establishing instructional policy.

A comparative field study of principals was conducted by Dwyer (1986). The basic question addressed in the study was: If successful principals are those who create schools where the climate is safe and orderly, where basic skills are emphasized, and where instructional programs are tied closely to carefully monitored objectives, what do principals do to institute and maintain those conditions?

The field study, consisting of 32 interviews with principals, concluded that principals who successfully demonstrated a high degree of instructional leadership acted with purpose, had a multi-faceted image of their schools, and used routine behaviors in order to achieve identified goals. The routine behaviors of the principals varied according to the context and purpose in given situations. Principals needed to continuously monitor leadership behaviors and adapt them to the needs of students and community in order to improve conditions for student achievement (Dwyer, 1986).

In a study of 10 elementary principals in a single school district, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) attempted to describe instructional management behavior of the principals

in terms of specific job behaviors. At the same time, an appraisal instrument which could be used to assess instructional management was developed.

The data from Hallinger and Murphy (1985) revealed that principals were generally more active in managing curriculum and instruction than the literature had suggested. The principals evaluated and supervised instruction more closely than had been reported in previous studies. The principals who were highly ranked across 11 job functions on the assessment instrument also tended to maintain close contact with students.

While there are relatively few studies of the instructional leadership behaviors of principals in secondary schools, elementary studies have provided information on specific instructional leadership behaviors. Patterson (1977) conducted a study of 261 teachers and 62 principals to investigate the extent to which agreement existed among and between elementary teachers and principals on specific instructional leadership activities. Perceptions were obtained regarding the extent to which elementary principals were performing specific relevant tasks and whether the principal should perform those tasks.

Patterson (1977) reported that principals were perceived as routinely performing instructional leadership activities. The study further indicated principal-teacher

agreement that principals were the appropriate individuals to perform those activities. The size of the school, the level of teaching experience of the faculty, the extent of teaching responsibilities of the principal, and the length of time the principal had been in the position did not appear to be related to teachers' perceptions of whether the principal routinely performed instructional leadership activities. Gender, age, and tenure of the principal had little influence on teacher perceptions of whether the principal actually performed instructional leadership activities.

Anderson and Nicholson (1987) studied instructional leadership in eight comprehensive high schools. The investigation suggested that scarcity of research in the area of instructional leadership was due largely to an absence of valid and easily administered instruments designed to measure specific instructional leadership behaviors and skills. This study was designed to investigate whether valid distinctions could be made between schools, roles, and departments in the way instructional leadership was provided.

Anderson and Nicholson (1987) concluded that the most important functions for principals tended to be those involving supervision and authorization, such as evaluation, personnel hiring, and approval of programs. Other essential

functions involved setting the tone for the school and communicating the school's orientation and values to teachers, parents and students. The least important functions were those involving direct interaction with teachers, encouragement of peer observation, and coordination of instruction.

Gallagher, Riley, and Murphy (1986) conducted a 3-year study in a large urban high school using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) to determine the role of the principal in instructional leadership. Contrary to similar studies conducted at the elementary level, the researchers noted the high school principal is not the lone leadership figure in improving learning and teaching. The principal was found to have instructional management responsibility for communicating school goals, protecting instructional time, and promoting incentives to improve teaching. Other instructional leadership functions were divided among different individuals or groups, such as the assistant principal, the administrative team, the local curriculum council, and other administrators and supervisors.

Ward and Hildebrand (1988) reported the Illinois state legislature, as part of its education reform package of 1985, passed legislation which mandated that school principals spend a majority of working time in instructional

leadership. While the intent of the bill was to promote effective instructional leadership practices of Illinois principals, it did not specifically define instructional leadership, nor did it explain how the mandate would be implemented. A lack of behavioral indicators of instructional leadership made it difficult to gauge the extent to which principals were in compliance with the legislation.

In order to examine principals' beliefs about instructional leadership as required by Illinois statute, Ward and Hildebrand (1988) surveyed 17 school administrators in northern Illinois. Sixty percent of the principals viewed instructional leadership as the ability to provide staff supervision and evaluation. Twenty-five percent indicated that instructional leadership was related to principals' ability to provide staff development and in-service training. Also identified as being important were the communicating of class goals and objectives, providing staff support, and setting a positive school climate.

A 1984 study conducted by Worner and Stokes (1987) in Virginia attempted to identify activities which could be used to define the instructional leadership responsibility of principals, to determine whether each activity was being carried out, and to identify who was actually responsible



for each activity. The researchers concluded that, with only four exceptions, each of the 38 instructional leadership functions listed on the survey instrument was carried out in 90% or more of Virginia's senior high schools.

Principals who participated in the study indicated that 14 of the functions listed on the instructional leadership survey were actually assigned to the principals as part of the principals' job description. The participants in the study believed that in actual practice however, principals had primary responsibility for 32 of the 38 leadership functions, even though those functions were not specifically spelled out in principals' job descriptions. The highest ranking areas of responsibility for principals included the recommendation of personnel for re-employment, promotion, and/or dismissal and assigning or reassigning personnel within the school to maximize conditions for learning. The lowest ranking areas of responsibility included gathering data concerning former students (graduate follow-ups), and directing the development of instructional materials (Worner & Stokes, 1987).

Worner and Stokes (1987) concluded that responsibility for instructional leadership in Virginia's secondary schools was a shared responsibility and stated:

Research studies and inquiries that presume the principal's total (or even primary) responsibility

for many of these activities as a precondition to evaluating their effectiveness may be flawed. Rather than concluding that principals are ineffective as instructional leaders, perhaps we should look more closely at their role and function in planning, organizing, directing, and evaluating those instructional leadership activities that are currently (and appropriately) being carried out by others in their buildings and under their direction. (p. 56)

A study of 150 teachers in 50 schools was conducted by Elzie and Burch (1978) to identify characteristics of principals who were regarded as strong instructional leaders. It was concluded that principals who made regular classroom visits, provided worthwhile in-service opportunities for staff, supported new instructional ideas, assisted teachers with problems, managed time well, scheduled time for direct contact with teachers, shared ideas and concerns with teachers, were organized and efficient, and involved teachers in decision-making were more highly regarded as instructional leaders than were principals who did not demonstrate these behaviors.

There is evidence in the literature on instructional leadership indicating the way a principal thinks and conceptualizes the role of the principalship contributes to being an effective leader. Hallinger and McCary (1990) suggested that researchers during the past 15 years have made notable progress in identifying those functions and tasks constituting the instructional leadership role of the principal. Principals who make a difference through their

instructional leadership efforts are adept at thinking strategically. This strategic behavior involves "skillful planning and management; it implies forethought, and understanding of the interdependence of actions within a social system, and a purposeful coordination of resources" (p. 91).

Leithwood and Stager (1986) found that principals of instructionally effective schools are more knowledgeable about school improvement and effective teaching practices than principals in less successful schools. The principals of instructionally effective schools use a problem-solving orientation based upon a working knowledge of school improvement research. The researchers suggested that a principal's ability to exercise effective leadership is related to the purposeful quality of thought that guides administrative action.

While the body of research identifying specific instructional leadership behaviors of principals is small, there is evidence that certain roles assumed by principals are associated with effective leadership. The following sections present an overview of that research.

#### Curriculum Coordination

The importance of curriculum coordination and development has been identified as one of the major instructional leadership roles of the principal (Peterson,

1987; Ploghoft & Perkins, 1988). Fullan (1981) stated that effective principals become either directly or indirectly involved in instructional policy. Time is taken to sit down and meet with teachers about instructional and curricular issues. Hallinger, et al. (1983) identified four functions of effective instructional leadership related to the management of curriculum and instruction: knowledge of curriculum and effective instruction, supervision and evaluation of instruction, curricular coordination, and monitoring student performance.

Keedy (1987) suggested that effective principals, "at the very least, are involved in instructional or quality decisions" (p. 5). Effective principals understand that curriculum must be approached systematically, and must consist of functional and measurable objectives. Such an approach transcends the traditional autonomy of teachers in the classroom. It requires the leadership of a principal who demonstrates interest in, and the importance of, instructional leadership.

Several major roles emerge from principals' activities and processes of curriculum supervision (Hill, 1990). The principal serves as a curriculum monitor since no one else in the school has access to all the parts and levels of curriculum. Nor does anyone else have the same overall perspective of the curricular program as the principal.

The principal also serves as the "curriculum standard bearer" by setting clear goals, focusing on curriculum, establishing high expectations of teachers and students, and communicating a vision for the school. The principal is the first teacher among professional peers by virtue of the principal's role, perspective, attitude, information, and one-to-one access to each person in the school. By modeling, conversing, questioning, encouraging, and resourcing, the principal serves as a teacher to other professional staff in the building (Hill, 1990).

Kanpol and Weisz (1990) stated that the effective principal needs to realize there is more to a curriculum than merely preparing a document. Instructional leadership requires attention to the subtleties of classroom life which are commonly referred to as the "hidden curriculum". This is accomplished by working with teachers to gain an understanding of the types of curriculum passed on to students. It involves continual reflection and dialogue about hidden messages in the curriculum as well as discussion of perceived curriculum difficulties noted by teachers. Principal-faculty dialogue also serves to identify curricular conflicts and propose possible resolutions to those conflicts.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) noted that in effective schools, school curriculum objectives were closely aligned

with both the content taught in classes and with achievement tests. A high degree of continuity in the curriculum across grade levels was also reported in effective schools.

Murphy (1990) indicated that the principal must address several curricular issues in the role of instructional leader. These issues include: (a) amount of curriculum, (b) academic focus of coursework, (c) focus and sequence to coursework, (d) breadth versus depth of content, (e) differential access to knowledge, (f) homework, (g) curricular alignment, and (h) quality of course objectives.

In considering the amount of content, the principal's concern must extend beyond current high school graduation requirements since one of the goals of schools should be the preparation of life-long learners. In addition, the principal should analyze the distribution of coursework across grades in order to determine sequence, overlaps, and gaps in the program (Murphy, 1990).

By addressing the issues of focus and sequence to coursework, the principal is able to call attention to the cohesiveness of student course selection patterns. Academic focus on coursework requires an analysis designed to determine where basic skills can be infused into all subjects. This information can help ensure that the curricular program itself is cohesive. In addition, it

provides the necessary information for the principal and teaching staff to actively shape student course selection (Murphy, 1990).

An analysis of the breadth and depth of content permits the principal to identify course sequencing, as well as the interconnectedness of course objectives throughout the school's curricular program. In order to acquire an accurate assessment of curriculum content, the principal needs to examine student work, the interdisciplinary nature of courses and course objectives, and the measures used to determine levels of student performance (Murphy, 1990).

Differential access to knowledge ensures that all students have access to all aspects of the curriculum. Analysis of this dimension of the curricular program is necessitated by the trend of females, vocational education students, and minorities to enroll in fewer total courses, to cover less academic material, and to be assigned more poorly focused and sequenced homework than other students. In addition, these groups of students have often been allowed to meet less strenuous objectives than academic students, with less focus on higher order thinking skills in a curricular program that is often poorly designed (Murphy, 1990).

In view of the discrepancies between academic and non-academic programs, it is important for the principal to work

with the teaching staff in order to develop school-wide homework policies. Such policies should be designed to assure that homework is taken seriously. In order to support these policies, school-wide mechanisms (such as homework hotlines) need to be established. The principal also has the responsibility to monitor adopted homework policies to make sure they are being implemented by the teaching staff (Murphy, 1990).

A study of curricular alignment will give the principal an indication of the links which exist among curriculum content, teaching materials, teaching strategies, and assessment instruments. In addition, the connections between special education and regular education can be studied and addressed (Murphy, 1990).

The education students receive is only as strong as the quality of course content. Therefore, the principal should analyze the quality of course objectives to assure that course content adheres to quality standards. This analysis permits the principal to determine whether course objectives are directed toward higher order thinking skills or whether the objectives are limited to minute and discrete pieces of information (Murphy, 1990).

#### Supervision and Evaluation

Effective instructional leadership is closely associated with a program of quality teacher supervision and



evaluation. Bailey and Wicks (1990) noted that if principals wish to view classroom supervision as the foundation and springboard for school improvement, the principals "must integrate and align the core elements of instruction, curriculum development, classroom supervision, and staff development to achieve a well-balanced school improvement program" (p. 43).

Ploghoft and Perkins (1988) identified instructional supervision and evaluation of teacher performance as two of the most important jobs of the principalship. Peterson (1987) indicated that regularly observing teachers and providing feedback facilitated achievement-related behaviors in schools and classrooms. Quality and extended observation time in classrooms designed to learn more about the teachers' enacted curriculum is essential to effective instructional leadership (Kanpol & Weisz, 1990).

Direct observation of classroom practice is claimed to be one of the critical practices by which curriculum and instruction is influenced in the school (Little & Bird, 1987). The researchers suggested that observing and being observed, and giving and getting feedback about work in the classroom may be among the most powerful tools for instructional improvement and professional recognition (p. 122). Further, teachers tend to support rigorous observation procedures that can hold them accountable for

classroom practices, as long as those practices also support teachers and provide recognition for teachers' work.

Instructional leadership demands that principals develop theories of instruction and learning, according to Mendez (1986). By developing proficiency in classroom observation, the principal can assist, evaluate, and improve the learning environment of the school. A comprehensive program of classroom observation needs to be supplemented by a thorough communication program that explains criteria and administrative expectations if the program is to have a positive effect on instruction.

Brandt (1987) also identified the importance of performance evaluation in the principal's instructional leadership role. Brandt stated that the principal serves as an instructional provider by encouraging the use of different instructional strategies to teachers. Once perceived by the teachers as a key instructional resource, the principal will be sought out for assistance with instructional concerns and problems.

Supervision is the essence of instructional leadership (Bailey & Wicks, 1990). It requires a constant search for ways to integrate and align all core elements of school improvement: classroom instruction, curriculum development, classroom supervision, and staff development. Within the context of classroom observation, the principal needs to

focus on the key areas of basic instructional variables, curriculum alignment, and test context in relationship to curriculum materials. Effective supervision requires checking the alignment of teachers' lessons with the school district's curriculum materials.

While it is important for the principal to serve a key role in staff supervision and evaluation, effective instructional leaders look for other means of providing supervision and support for teachers. Principals concerned about the multi-faceted nature of supervision and evaluation should provide opportunities for peer observations as a means of improving and enhancing the instructional performance of teachers (Anderson & Pigford, 1987).

#### High Achievement Expectations

Research indicates that principal expectations for high student achievement are an important part of effective instructional leadership. Duke (1982) emphasized the need to communicate high expectations, while Peterson (1987) noted that principals needed to monitor student progress by reviewing test results with teachers and by communicating to teachers the responsibility for student achievement.

Keedy (1987) stated:

Effective principals as instructional leaders know what they want and manage to have this expressed in a system of goals and objectives which defines student achievement. Effective principals, having established student achievement as the priority for

their instructional programs, will subordinate smooth human relations to this priority. (pp. 4-5)

Persell and Cookson (1982) noted that principals in higher achieving schools did not let teachers "write-off" students as non-learners, particularly because of their race or social status. Block (1983) concurred, stating that effective principals exert pressure for high achievement, often assuming an assertive instructional leadership role. (p. 27)

The results of a study by Brandt (1987) indicated significant differences in student achievement in high, average, and low profile schools. High profile schools had principals who, in the perceptions of teachers, were strong instructional leaders. Principals in these schools had high student achievement expectations, frequently monitored student progress, established a positive learning climate, and developed clear goals for their schools. Low profile schools were those where teachers indicated these elements were not present. Average schools were those identified as being in between. In schools with strong instructional leadership, incremental growth in student scores was noted. Results were less consistent in the average profile schools, and were much less evident in low profile schools.

Rosenholtz (1985) also indicated the importance of establishing high student expectations. Effective principals convey certainty that teachers can improve

student performance and that students themselves are capable of learning. The goals of high student achievement were found to be at the forefront of principals' planning and actions. The principals set explicit operational goals regarding students' academic performance, which were then clearly communicated to the staff members.

In a 1984 study of the relationship between principal leadership and student academic achievement, Andrews and Soder (1987) reported significantly greater reading and total math scores on the California Achievement Tests in schools identified as having strong leaders than in schools rated as having average or weak leaders. The findings suggested that teacher perceptions of the principal as an instructional leader were critical to the reading and mathematics achievement of students, particularly among low-achieving students.

Rosenholtz (1985) noted that effective principals press for greater commitment on the part of teachers, hold teachers accountable, and communicate high expectations about the progress teachers are capable of making. Related to student achievement, principals perceived as effective insist that all students can learn and refuse to set aside basic skills acquisition, even for low achieving students.

### Vision

The vision a principal creates for the school has been identified as relating to the level of instructional leadership effectiveness (Greenfield, 1987b). Manasse (1984) stated that "effective principals have a vision of their schools and of their role in making that vision a reality" (p. 44).

Lightfoot (1983) stated that principals are the people most responsible for defining the school's vision and for articulating its ideological stance. Based upon that vision, principals are charged with inspiring commitment from teachers and respect from students and parents. The principal also faces the unique situation of sitting on the boundary between school and community. The vision of the principal must serve as a foundation for negotiating with the central office and school board, for protecting teachers from external intrusions, and for communicating with the public.

Vision provides the principal with a basis for effective problem identification and subsequent action according to Peterson (1986). Principals with vision engage in focused problem-finding, which in turn, assists in shaping organizational activities, teacher actions, and student learning.

The concept of "strategic leadership", as defined by Hallinger and McCary (1990), is characterized by clear vision and coordinated, consistent, and purposeful actions on the part of the principal. Successful principals plan administrative actions in light of their current understanding of the needs of the school. Strategic leadership responds to the changing nature of events, but is always purposeful when based upon the principal's vision for the school.

#### Goal-Setting

In order to provide effective instructional leadership, principals need to demonstrate a commitment to academic goals (Persell & Cookson, 1982). "Good principals had a clear vision of their long-term goals for their schools, including strong achievement goals" (p. 22).

Purkey and Smith (1982) identified the importance of clear school goals in a program evaluation study review. In order to articulate and promote the school's goals, clear leadership from the principal, or some other instructional figure, is necessary.

Effective instructional leaders need to define and interpret district goals to teachers (Mendez, 1986). In addition, principals have the responsibility to assist the teaching staff to meet goals by providing necessary personnel and budgetary resources.

Wilson (1982) pointed out that an effective principal leads the staff in accomplishing clearly defined major instructional goals. To assist in this process, the principal places an emphasis on recruiting teachers with goals similar to those adopted for the school.

#### Instructional Organization

Organization of the instructional program is a factor in the instructional leadership role of the principal. Specifically, Mendez (1986) identified the importance of curriculum planning and student scheduling in providing effective instructional management. Various aspects of instructional organization, including the principal's control of instructional time, class size, class composition, and student grouping, were associated with instructional leadership according to Bossert, et al. (1982).

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) also acknowledged the importance of scheduling. Instead of using the scheduling process as an opportunity to improve teaching and enhance learning, principals often treat scheduling in one of three ways. Sometimes scheduling is viewed as a technical process concerned with efficiency instead of maximizing educational effectiveness. Other times scheduling patterns are simply based upon traditional or political considerations. Scheduling is also viewed by some principals as an end in



itself; it is a function that occurs each year with a certain proportion of human resources and time committed to the process. Donmoyer and Wagstaff viewed each of these three approaches to scheduling as failing to meet identified educational criteria.

Hallinger and Murphy (1987b) discussed the roles of clarity and complexity of instructional technology in relationship to effective leadership. Clarity of instructional technology refers to the extent to which the instructional process is understood by the principal and the extent to which it can be specified. As clarity increases, the principal is better suited to providing close supervision to the instructional program, normally producing positive results. Highly directive instructional leadership by the principal is made possible to some degree by greater clarity.

The complexity of instructional technology refers to the degree to which instructional processes of the school require interdependence and coordination among the teaching staff. Increased complexity necessitates increased coordination on the part of the principal, which involves the principal's assuming a more active, central role in curriculum coordination, delegating authority to others, or offering additional opportunities for staff interaction in

professional activities, such as staff development and curriculum planning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987b).

Hallinger and Murphy (1987b) also discussed the district context of instructional technology. District support is often linked with successful efforts to implement innovations. The successful principal needs to work at changing district culture in order to make excellence in teaching a top priority. This is accomplished through the manipulation of formal and informal controls.

#### Staff Recruitment and Development

Several researchers have addressed the importance of staff recruitment and staff development efforts as related to the instructional leadership role of the principal. Duke (1982) stressed the importance of hiring competent teachers, while Mendez (1986) addressed the principal's responsibility for selecting and hiring the best people and the need to develop each to the utmost potential.

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) stated that the principal should take the hiring of teachers seriously, investing considerable time and energy in the process. Recruitment of talent requires the development of networks to identify where teacher talent can be found.

Principals' attitudes and actions related to staff development have an impact on instructional leadership. Principals can have a profound effect on instructional

management by supporting teachers' attendance at workshops or by actually conducting such workshops themselves (Persell & Cookson, 1982). Duke (1987) also identified the importance of staff development as one of the direct functions associated with the instructional leadership role. The principal plays a crucial role in teacher recruitment, in-service education, and staff motivation.

Kanpol and Weisz (1990) encouraged principals to provide staff development for all teachers, but especially for beginning teachers, regarding the nature of the enacted curriculum. Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) emphasized the principal's role in the allocation of resources, specifically time and dollars, so teachers themselves could lead staff development efforts in a "trainer of trainers" model.

Organizational attitudes play an important role in determining the type of staff development which needs to be implemented in a school (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987b). A number of factors affect attitudes of the teaching staff including age, educational level, teaching experience, staff stability, and over-all intelligence of the staff. In schools where there is low commitment to high expectations, more principal control over staff development efforts is required. However, in schools where there is high

commitment on the part of the faculty, more collaborative efforts are appropriate.

#### Other Characteristics Related to Instructional Leadership

In addition to those already mentioned, several other attributes of principals have been associated with effective instructional leadership. Brandt (1987) stated that the principal's visible presence in a school contributed to positive instructional leadership. A principal makes high visibility a priority by making frequent classroom observations, by being accessible to teachers to discuss matters related to instruction, by being an active participant in staff development programs, and by simply being seen throughout the building by both staff and students. Anderson and Pigford (1987) recommended that principals create an expectation of spending time in classrooms instead of in the office.

Bossert et al. (1982) found school climate to be an important factor related to instructional leadership. Effective schools were characterized by expectations and values emphasizing student achievement and an orderly, but not rigid, atmosphere. Positive school climate also related directly to interpersonal relations of staff and students. Relative to school climate, Duke (1982) indicated that an orderly learning environment was an essential aspect of instructional leadership.

Hallinger and Murphy (1983) discussed the importance of promoting a positive learning climate. The principal is able to directly affect the learning climate by establishing high expectations for student achievement and by establishing academic standards and incentives for learning. Also within the realm of the principal's role was the ability to protect instructional time and to promote instructional improvement and professional development.

Resource allocation is a function of the principal's role which relates to instructional leadership according to Duke (1982) and Brandt (1987). Duke identified resource acquisition and allocation as one of the direct functions of the principalship. Associated with this function were the acquisition of learning materials, provision of appropriate facilities, and provision of skilled support personnel. In addition, Duke cited the important role the principal has in providing adequate time to teachers for direct instruction.

Brandt (1987) viewed the principal as a resource provider who promoted staff development, maintained a knowledge base about instructional resources, and mobilized resources and district support to help achieve academic goals. The principal was considered the most important instructional resource person in the school.

Communication is mentioned in the literature as being critical to the effectiveness of principals' instructional

leadership (Brandt, 1987; Duke, 1982; Peterson, 1987). According to Brandt (1987) teacher discussions with the principal were a contributing factor in improved instructional practices. The principal was viewed as being in a position to lead formal discussions concerning instruction and student achievement and to clearly communicate criteria for assessing staff performance. In addition to communicating the criteria, the principal needed to effectively provide feedback to teachers regarding classroom performance. The principal was identified as the key individual for communicating a clear vision of what the school was about.

Peterson (1987) stated that the principal's communication was a key factor in facilitating student achievement. The principal needs to act as an instructional resource person by regularly discussing instructional matters with teachers.

Articulation of policies, rules and norms can influence classroom activities by assuring adequate time for teaching and learning and by symbolizing that academics are important (Donmoyer & Wagstaff, 1990). The principal is in a unique position to develop and enforce policies, rules, and norms which ensure high levels of instructional leadership. Chief among these are elimination of unnecessary class interruptions. Duke (1982) also recognized the importance

of instructional support through the establishment of procedures and policies designed to protect instructional time, promote accurate record keeping, establish classroom control, and promote student attendance.

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) noted the importance of pupil services coordination in the principal's instructional leadership role. They remarked that the principal must closely monitor, and constantly ask questions about, the intended and the unintended consequences of the educational program. In order to maximize student learning, pupil services need to be coordinated with school goals related to high expectations and student achievement.

#### Alternatives to Present Practice

While much study and discussion has taken place regarding the key role played by the principal in providing instructional leadership, some researchers are questioning whether a single individual is capable of providing an adequate level of instructional leadership in the modern school setting. New paradigms in the area of professional preparation of principals and alternative ways in which instructional leadership can be provided to schools are being demonstrated in some settings.

Several obstacles which seriously constrain principals from exercising strong instructional leadership were identified by Hallinger and Murphy (1987b). Principals lack

adequate knowledge about curriculum and instructional issues and practices. In addition, principals lack a clear definition of the role of an instructional leader. Professional norms about the principalship negate the instructional leadership dimensions of a principal's role in favor of managerial tasks. Often these norms are reinforced by district office expectations of principals which place a high priority on efficiently managed buildings. In addition, the role diversity of the principalship precludes allowing adequate time for instructional leadership activities.

Anderson and Pigford (1987) also questioned the feasibility and practicality of applying the concept of instructional leadership on a grand scale to a large number of school principals due, in part, to the fact that the actual role and responsibilities of building principals are often unclear. Principals often tend to be activity oriented rather than goal oriented, and some simply do not possess the knowledge and skills necessary to function as instructional leaders.

Greenfield (1987b) suggested that the idea of instructional leadership, as currently conceived, has actually provided little guidance to principals due to its multiple and ambiguous meanings. One of the problems associated with the concept is that educators have had



difficulties explaining or enacting its meaning in concrete terms. Therefore the very idea of instructional leadership remains muddled.

In a critical review of instructional leadership literature, Ginsberg (1988) suggested that more time is needed to study and better understand instructional leadership for principals. Instructional leadership research is actually effective schools research, in which the unplanned discovery of the importance of the principal leads to overdrawn inferences about instructional leadership. Schools might be better served if someone other than the principal were to assume the responsibility for instructional leadership. Ginsberg further stated:

The research on effective schools has uncovered a potentially important area for school improvement. The principal or some leadership figure is meaningful in any school. But the present shortcomings of the research on school effectiveness and instructional leadership, the problems with defining the concept, and the constraints of the principal's job as it is typically practiced, all combine to minimize the potential impact of efforts to implement this popular panacea. Sadly enough, unless we display the patience necessary to learn more about it, instructional leadership for principals will not enhance teaching and learning. (p. 290)

Another suggestion that the principal cannot be the sole provider of instructional leadership was presented by Rallis and Highsmith (1986). School management and instructional leadership were identified as two separate tasks which cannot realistically be performed by a single

individual. Keedy (1987) stated that time restraints, policy requirements, and the unpredictable, fragmented nature of the principal's day make instructional leadership all but impossible.

Burlingame (1987) also expressed caution in examining the instructional leadership role of principals. Burlingame noted that most reviews of the literature in the field of instructional leadership stress the importance of administrative leadership. However, the reviewer's preconceptions often dictate the findings rather than the evidence uncovered in the research. Ginsberg's assessment of the literature (1988) indicated the importance of cultural context as it relates to instructional leadership, as well as the important role played by others in the school.

A reconceptualization of the role of the principal was suggested by Cunard (1990) since the day-to-day realities of the principalship in the modern school prevent principals from adequately providing instructional leadership. Instructional leadership functions require a major time commitment, and if practiced adequately, would leave no time for other important functions in the operation of a comprehensive secondary school. Cunard suggested a shared conceptualization of instructional leadership in which

teachers become more directly responsible for instructional and curricular decisions.

A body of literature exists suggesting that lack of pre-service training for principals is a major reason for low levels of competence in the area of instructional leadership. Carter and Klotz (1990) stated that principal preparation programs need to be improved since many currently practicing principals are not adequately prepared for instructional leadership roles. In the meantime, while such changes are made at the pre-service level, principals need support, guidance and direction in order to assume the instructional leadership role through the establishment of a school-wide expectation and accountability plan based upon the premise that students can learn and teachers can and should help students learn.

Rallis and Highsmith (1986) also identified the lack of adequate training for principals as a contributing factor for inadequate instructional leadership skills. Most principals hold degrees in administration rather than in teaching or curriculum, and therefore the principals' role is approached from a management perspective rather than meeting schools' needs through instructional leadership.

There are several ways in which school districts can assist principals in becoming stronger instructional leaders. Hallinger and Murphy (1987a) suggested addressing

barriers to effective instructional leadership through policies and staff development training. The instructional leadership role needs to be clearly defined within the context of each particular school so that principals fully understand what is expected of them. In addition, schools need to develop and utilize assessment systems aimed at professional improvement which provide valid and reliable data on principal instructional leadership.

#### Summary

Numerous studies of effective schools have identified the importance of the principal as the key figure in school success, especially in the area of instructional leadership. However, in spite of the general acceptance of instructional leadership as a prerequisite to successful schools, there is no general consensus regarding a definition of instructional leadership.

Some researchers view instructional leadership as an activity which changes in relationship to varying situations and circumstances. However, the predominant theory in the literature describes instructional leadership in terms of broadly defined sets of principal behaviors which, when effectively employed, have a strong influence on teacher's behaviors in the classroom.

One of the limitations of the existing research base is a lack of specific behavioral indicators of instructional

leadership. Another limitation in the literature is the investigation of instructional leadership behaviors as they relate to the role of high school principals. A majority of instructional leadership studies have concentrated on principal behaviors in elementary schools.

The instructional leadership effectiveness of the principal is affected by bureaucratic and cultural factors within the school system. Bureaucratic factors serve as control mechanisms which detail what it is the principal is to do and how it is to be done. Often these factors are the result of board of education policies or superintendent directives. Cultural factors are those over which the principal has greater control, including environmental factors and interpersonal/socialization factors. Through these cultural factors, the principal influences the instructional practices of teachers, the manner in which the school's curriculum is implemented, and the climate of the school.

A small, but growing, body of literature questions whether a single individual is capable of providing effective instructional leadership within the modern school setting. The increasing demands upon the principal, both in the area of school management and in the area of instructional leadership, are perceived by some as distinct and exclusive behaviors which cannot realistically be

performed by one individual. Problems associated with this dual role of the principal lead to a reconceptualization of instructional leadership in which teachers become more directly responsible for instructional decisions.

### CHAPTER III

#### METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study investigated the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. Perceptions were obtained from responses by the three sub-groups on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) developed by Hallinger (1983).

##### Population for the Study

The population for this study consisted of the superintendent, the high school principal, and one randomly selected teacher in each mid-sized public Iowa high school classified as 1-A for boys' basketball competition by the Iowa High School Athletic Association during the 1989-90 school year. For the purpose of this study, high school principal was defined as the administrator of a high school consisting of grades 9-12 or 10-12.

Teacher participants in this study were randomly selected according to the classes they taught during the 1989-90 school year. A list of courses commonly included in the curriculum of mid-sized public high schools in Iowa was compiled from the Basic Educational Data Survey, a document completed annually by each school district in Iowa and submitted to the Iowa Department of Education (see Appendix

A for a complete list of courses). While the enrollments in these courses were not identical, they were deemed approximately equal for the purposes of this study.

The researcher randomly assigned one course from the list of courses to each of the 117 high schools in the population. In each high school, the teacher assigned to teach the randomly assigned course during the 1989-90 school year was the one selected to participate in the study.

Data were collected from each of the sub-groups (superintendents, principals, and teachers) using three parallel versions of the PIMRS. Superintendents and teachers were asked to provide perceptions of the high school principal with whom they were currently working relative to 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors included in the PIMRS instrument. Principals were asked to provide self-perceptions regarding the 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors included in the PIMRS instrument. All responses remained anonymous.

#### Instrumentation

The data for this study were collected using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) developed by Philip Hallinger as a part of a doctoral dissertation at Stanford University in 1983. The primary goal of Hallinger's research was to describe the instructional management behaviors of principals in terms of



specific on-the-job practices and behaviors. A secondary goal was to identify factors which might explain a pattern variation in the instructional management behavior of school principals (Hallinger, 1983).

Specifically, the objectives of the study by Hallinger were: (a) to provide measurable, research-based definitions of the principal's role as an instructional manager; (b) to develop a questionnaire designed to measure the instructional management of principals; (c) to describe the instructional management behavior of elementary principals in a single school district, both individually and as a group; and (d) to identify patterns of variation in instructional management behaviors.

The development of the PIMRS followed steps prescribed by Latham and Wexley in 1981 for constructing behaviorally anchored rating scales. The scales rely on descriptions of critical job-related behaviors for the development of scale items. The items are "behaviorally anchored" in the sense that they are statements of critical job-related behaviors on which raters can base their appraisal of an individual's performance within a given dimension of a job (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The PIMRS contains 50 statements about principal instructional management behaviors, divided into 10 behavioral job functions. Each job function contains a

representative sample of critical instructional management behaviors based on research. Respondents to the PIMRS indicate the degree to which they perceive the principal has performed a particular behavior over the prior school year by responding to a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "1" (Almost Never) to "5" (Almost Always). The end points were the only two points defined on the scale.

The 10 behavioral job functions on the PIMRS can be classified in three dimensions of principal instructional management behavior. These three dimensions are: Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate.

The first dimension, Defining the School Mission, includes the principal's behaviors related to Framing School Goals and Communicating the School Goals to the school community. The job function, Framing School Goals, refers to the principal's role in determining the areas in which school staff will focus attention and resources during a given school year. Research indicates that instructionally effective schools often have clearly defined goals which focus on student achievement. The principal who provides effective instructional leadership will utilize a systematic method for securing staff input on goal development and will also use data from student academic performance in the development process. The goals should be easily translated

into classroom objectives and should be framed in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them.

Communicating School Goals addresses ways in which the principal communicates the school's goals to the school and community. Included in this job function are the need to discuss goals regularly at faculty meetings and to refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions. The importance of communicating the school's goals to students is demonstrated by behaviors which promote the goals in highly visible displays and in student assemblies.

The second dimension of principal behaviors included on the PIMRS, Managing the Instructional Program, includes the job functions of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, and Monitoring Student Progress. Supervising and Evaluating Instruction addresses a central task of the principal: assuring that school goals are translated into classroom practice. Through the process of supervision and evaluation the principal coordinates the classroom objectives of teachers with those of the school, provides instructional support to teachers, and monitors classroom instruction through numerous classroom visits. The principal also has a responsibility to point out specific strengths and

weaknesses in teacher instructional practices during post-observation conferences.

Coordinating the Curriculum allows the principal to assure that the school's curricular objectives are closely aligned with both the content taught and with achievement tests. In this area, the principal also has a responsibility for participating in the review of the school's curricular materials.

In the job function, Monitoring Student Progress, effective principals provide test results to teachers, discuss the results with the staff, and provide interpretive analyses which describe test data in concise form. Principals utilize test results for setting goals, assessing curriculum, evaluating instruction and measuring progress made toward achieving school goals.

The third dimension of principal behavior contained in the PIMRS instrument, Promoting a Positive School Climate, includes five behavioral job functions: Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learners.

Protecting Instructional Time addresses ways in which the principal provides teachers with blocks of uninterrupted instructional time through enforcement of policies regarding public address announcements, tardy and truant students,

extra- and co-curricular activities, and requests from the office. It also includes behaviors utilized by the principal to encourage teachers in the effective use of instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills.

The job function, Promoting Professional Development, refers to the ways in which principals inform teachers of opportunities for staff development and lead in-service programs. It also includes principal behaviors which assure that staff development activities are closely linked to school goals and that skills learned during staff development programs are integrated and implemented in instructional practice.

The job function, Maintaining High Visibility, focuses on how the principal utilizes time, with an emphasis on frequent interactions between the principal and students. Also included in this job function are frequent interactions between the principal and teachers. These interactions are manifested in informal discussions with students and staff, classroom visitations, attendance at extra- and co-curricular activities, and direct instruction or tutoring of students.

Providing Incentives for Teachers involves setting up work structures that reward and recognize teachers for their efforts, including praise, public recognitions, and formal honors and awards. Superior performance can be rewarded in

staff meetings, through memos, and in newsletters. Special memos for inclusion in personnel files also provide teacher incentives for instructional excellence.

Providing Incentives for Learning focuses on principal behaviors related to rewarding and recognizing student achievement and improvement. It also includes behaviors designed to communicate improved or exemplary student performance to parents and support for teachers providing recognition and rewards for student performance.

Three parallel versions of the PIMRS instrument were used in this study. The parallel versions were designed to be completed by the principal, the principal's supervisor, and teachers. For the purposes of this study, the supervisor was defined as the school district superintendent.

In addition to the 50 statements related to instructional management behaviors of principals, the PIMRS instrument contains a section designed to obtain data regarding the administrative experience and teaching experience of participants. This section requests information indicating the length of time superintendents and teachers had worked with the current high school principal and the number of visits of 20 minutes or more that superintendents had made to the principals' schools during the school year. Information from this

section of the instrument was utilized in augmenting the discussion of data.

Hallinger (1983) reported that validity and reliability of the PIMRS instrument had been established in several ways. The first method was through empirical grounding which examined the strength of the conceptualization of each of the subscales and was determined by assessing the strength of the research findings upon which the subscale was based. Through this analysis, the following ratings were assigned to each subscale: Framing School Goals (strong), Communicating School Goals (strong), Supervising and Evaluating Instruction (moderate), Coordinating the Curriculum (strong), Monitoring Student Progress (strong), Protecting Instructional Time (moderate), Maintaining High Visibility (moderate), Providing Incentives for Teachers (weak), Providing for Professional Development (moderate), and Providing Incentives for Learners (moderate).

Content validity of the PIMRS addressed the degree to which items on the subscales were appropriate measures of the 10 job functions of principals' instructional management behavior. Persons knowledgeable in instructional management assigned potential items from randomly ordered lists into functional categories. Each subscale was rated as having 80% agreement or higher among the "experts" (Hallinger, 1983).

The reliability of the PIMRS, based upon an analysis of internal consistency, indicated a reliability range from .78 to .90 using Cronbach's alpha. For the purposes of the study, .70 was set as the minimum for establishing reliability. This analysis determined the degree to which responses which are grouped conceptually as subscales correlate to each other (Hallinger, 1983).

In order to establish validity of the PIMRS, an analysis of variance was utilized to determine discrimination among performances of the persons being rated. A comparison of "in-school" ratings with "between school" ratings resulted in nine of the instrument's job functions measuring greater "between school" variance than "in-school" variance at the .05 level.

Construct validity or subscale intercorrelation, provided an assessment of the degree to which persons being rated on the PIMRS possessed some quality or construct presumed to be reflected in the performance instrument. The analysis compared intercorrelation between each pair of subscales with each scale's reliability coefficient. All intercorrelation coefficients were statistically significant at the .01 level indicating that correlations were unlikely to have resulted from chance. The analysis confirmed that items on the various subscales belong together and that they measure different job functions. Other forms of construct



validity involved conceptual-empirical linkages, which compared empirical results of the analysis with the conceptualization of the subscales, as well as school document analysis (Hallinger, 1983).

While originally designed as an instrument to be utilized in the analysis of instructional management behaviors of principals in elementary schools, the PIMRS has also been found to be a reliable and valid instrument in secondary school settings (Gallagher, et al., 1986; Jones, 1988). In a study of Canadian secondary schools, Jones (1988) assessed interrater reliability and deemed all job function subscales to be adequate. The lowest reliability coefficient was .70 on the job function, Providing Incentives for Learners, and the highest was .90 on the job function, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction.

Jones (1988) also provided evidence which demonstrated moderate validity of the PIMRS instrument when used at the secondary school level. She stated that items within each job function subscale correlated more strongly with one another than with groups of items forming other job function subscales. Jones concluded that hypothesized relationships were not due to chance ( $p < .05$ ). Since the correlational relationships were in the expected direction, there was moderate support for the construct validity of the PIMRS instrument. Based upon the analysis, Jones concluded that

the evidence for validation of the PIMRS instrument was appropriate for research purposes.

In summary, the PIMRS instrument was developed to provide measurable, research-based descriptors of the principal's role as an instructional leader. It contains 50 statements describing principal's instructional management behaviors in specific terms. The 50 statements are grouped in 10 behavioral job functions based upon instructional leadership characteristics found in the literature.

#### Procedures for the Study

A potential population of 117 mid-sized Iowa high schools was identified by selecting schools classified by the Iowa High School Athletic Association as 1-A in boys' basketball competition for the 1989-90 school year. A packet of material was sent to each of the 117 superintendents which included an explanation of the study (see Appendix B); an Informed Consent Form for each participant (see Appendix C); and parallel versions of the PIMRS for superintendents, principals and randomly selected teachers (see Appendixes D, E, and F).

A cover letter asked the superintendent to distribute the appropriate version of the PIMRS instrument to the high school principal and the teacher assigned to teach a randomly selected course during the 1989-90 school year. Accompanying letters directed each participant

(superintendent, principal, and teacher) to complete the PIMRS instrument based upon perceptions of the principal's instructional management behaviors. Each respondent was further directed to place the completed survey instrument in a sealed envelope prior to returning the instrument to the superintendent who then returned the completed packet of survey instruments to the researcher.

For each of the 50 survey questions included in the PIMRS instrument, superintendents were asked to indicate perceptions regarding how consistently the high school principal in that school district demonstrated the specified behavior. For example, superintendents were asked the question, "To what extent does the principal develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals?" If the superintendent perceived that the principal almost never demonstrated that behavior, the appropriate response would have been (1) "Almost Never". If the superintendent perceived that the principal almost always demonstrated that behavior, the appropriate response would have been (5) "Almost Always".

Using the same 5-point scale, principals were asked to describe their instructional management behaviors. Likewise, teachers were asked to describe the principals' instructional management behaviors using the same procedures.

Four weeks after mailing the original packet of materials, a follow-up letter was sent to the superintendents of schools who had not yet returned completed surveys (see Appendix G). A second follow-up letter was mailed at the beginning of the 1990-91 school year in order to solicit the highest number of responses possible (see Appendixes H and I).

Initial requests for participation, including the first follow-up letter, resulted in 44 completed packets from the original population of 117 schools. A second follow-up letter in the fall of 1990 generated 11 additional completed packets for a total of 55 complete sets of data involving 165 individual responses. This represented 47.01% of the potential population.

In addition, 15 schools (12.82%) returned partially completed packets. Eleven of these schools returned superintendents' and principals' packets only; three schools only returned completed superintendents' packets; and one school only submitted a completed principal's packet.

Eleven schools (9.40%) responded to the initial request but declined to participate in the study. Thirty-six schools (30.77%) failed to respond to the initial request or either of the two follow-up requests.

### Data Analysis

Instructional management ratings for each of the sub-groups (superintendents, principals, and teachers) were compiled using sum scores on each of the 10 sections of the PIMRS describing the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior. Mean scores and standard deviations for each of the 10 job functions were calculated for each of the sub-groups participating in the study (superintendents, high school principals, and high school teachers). Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated for each job function were utilized in the data analysis to determine whether relationships existed among the sub-groups' perceptions.

In addition, a comparison of responses was made between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions, principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions, and superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions using paired  $t$  tests. Within each of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior, differences were examined between superintendents, principals, and teachers to determine where significant differences in perceptions existed. The .05 level of significance was utilized for this study.

## CHAPTER IV

## PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The major purpose of this study was to investigate perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. The superintendent, the principal, and a randomly selected high school teacher in each school within the defined population were asked to complete the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). A comparison was made of the superintendents', principals' and teachers' perceptions to determine relationships among perceptions and to determine if any differences in perceptions were statistically significant.

The research sample for this study included respondents (superintendents, principals, and teachers) from 55 mid-sized public high schools in Iowa out of a potential population of 117 high schools. This represented 47.01% of the potential population. Schools which did not submit PIMRS instruments for each of the three sub-groups (superintendents, principals, and teachers) were not included in the data analysis.

Professional Experience of Respondents

Of the schools which returned PIMRS instruments for each of the three sub-groups, a total of 55 superintendents,

55 principals, and 53 teachers completed the professional experience section of the PIMRS instrument. These data are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Professional Experience of Respondents

Variable	Number	Percentage
<u>Superintendents (N = 55)</u>		
<u>Number of Years Worked with Principal</u>		
1 year	11	20.00
2 - 4 years	15	27.27
5 - 9 years	16	29.09
10 -15 years	6	10.91
15+ years	7	12.73
<u>Number of Visits Greater than 20 Minutes in Length to Principal's School During School Year</u>		
0 - 1 visit	0	0.00
2 - 4 visits	0	0.00
5 - 9 visits	3	5.45
10 -15 visits	6	10.91
15+ visits	46	83.64

(table continues)

Variable	Number	Percentage
<u>Principals (N = 55)</u>		
<u>Years of Experience as a Principal</u>		
1 year	7	12.73
2 - 4 years	6	10.91
5 - 9 years	13	23.64
10 -15 years	6	10.91
15+ years	23	41.82
<u>Years of Experience as Principal at Current School</u>		
1 year	9	16.36
2 - 4 years	15	27.27
5 - 9 years	11	20.00
10+ years	20	36.36
<u>Years of Experience as a Teacher</u>		
1 year	0	0.00
2 - 4 years	3	5.45
5 - 9 years	28	50.91
10 -15 years	16	29.09
15+ years	8	14.55

(table continues)



Variable	Number	Percentage
<u>Professional Experience of Teachers (N = 53)</u>		
<u>Years Working with Current Principal</u>		
1 year	10	18.87
2 - 4 years	16	30.19
5 - 9 years	11	20.75
10 -15 years	9	16.98
15+ years	7	13.21
<u>Years Experience as a Teacher</u>		
1 year	2	3.77
2 - 4 years	6	11.32
5 - 9 years	8	15.09
10 -15 years	12	22.64
15+ years	25	47.17

The professional experience data revealed that 13 (23.64%) of the superintendents reported having worked with the principals for 10 years or more. Sixteen (29.09%) of the superintendents had worked with the high school principals involved in the study for 5 to 9 years, while 15 (27.27%) of the superintendents had worked with the principals for 2 to 4 years, and 11 (20.00%) of the

superintendents reported having worked with the principals for only 1 year.

Superintendents were asked to indicate the number of visits greater than 20 minutes in length to the principal's school during the school year. Forty-six (83.64%) reported more than 15 such visits. Six superintendents (10.91%) indicated having made 10 to 15 visits, and three superintendents (5.45%) indicated five to nine visits.

A majority of principals (52.73%) reported having served as a principal for 10 years or more, with 36.36% indicating at least 10 years experience in the building where the principals were currently serving. Nearly 24% reported 5 to 9 years of principal experience, 10.91% reported 2 to 4 years of experience, and 12.73% indicated only 1 year of experience.

Over 43% of the principals participating in the study indicated they had 10 years of teaching experience or more. Approximately half (50.91%) of the principals indicated 5 to 9 years of teaching experience, and 5.45% had taught 2 to 4 years.

Over two-thirds of the teachers participating in the study reported 10 or more years of teaching experience. Slightly more than half of the teachers (50.94%) had worked with the current principal at least 5 years.

### Research Questions

1. What are superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa?

2. What relationships exist among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa?

### Statistical Hypothesis

Corresponding to the research hypothesis in Chapter I, the following statistical hypothesis was tested:

There are no significant relationships among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional management behaviors in the job functions of Framing Goals, Communicating Goals, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learners as measured on the PIMRS instrument.

### Analysis of the Data

In order to test relationships, a Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated among superintendents',

principals', and teachers' perceptions on each of the 10 job functions contained in the PIMRS instrument. In addition, paired  $t$  tests were conducted to determine significant differences in reported perceptions on each of the 10 job functions among the three sub-groups. Results of the Pearson data analyses are contained in Tables 2-11.

#### Framing Goals

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Framing Goals as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Framing Goals are presented in Table 2.

On the job function, Framing Goals, the means for superintendents and principals were identical ( $M = 3.76$ ), while the mean for teachers was 3.64. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Framing Goals.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant positive relationship among the three sub-groups, with all three correlation coefficients below

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Framing Goals" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	3.76	3.76	3.64
<u>SD</u>	.74	.57	.87

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Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.17	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.22	.21

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.01	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.83	.90

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

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the critical value of  $r$  (.23). Likewise, the results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences among the three sub-groups. In each case the  $t$  value was less than the critical value used in this study ( $t = 2.01$ ).

#### Communicating Goals

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Communicating Goals as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Communicating Goals are presented in Table 3.

On the job function, Communicating Goals, means were highest for superintendents ( $M = 3.72$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.45$ ). The mean for principals was 3.54, which represented the lowest principal mean of all 10 job functions. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Communicating Goals.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant positive relationship among the three sub-groups, with all three correlation coefficients below

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Communicating Goals"  
(N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	3.72	3.54	3.45
<u>SD</u>	.68	.59	.96

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Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.15	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.22	.03

p < .05                      Critical Value of r = .23                      df = 54

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	1.59	---
<u>Teacher</u>	1.86	.56

p < .05                      Critical Value of t = 2.01                      df = 54

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the critical value of  $t$  (.23). Likewise, the results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences among the three sub-groups. In each case the  $t$  value was less than the critical value used in this study ( $t = 2.01$ ).

#### Supervising and Evaluating Instruction

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Supervising and Evaluating Instruction are presented in Table 4.

On the job function, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, means were highest for superintendents ( $M = 4.16$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.67$ ). The mean for principals was 4.05. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Supervising and Evaluating Instruction.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between superintendents'



Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers' Perceptions on the Job Function "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" (N = 55)

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	4.16	4.05	3.67
<u>SD</u>	.56	.47	.89

<u>Pearson Correlation Matrix</u>		
	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.17	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.30	.05

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

<u>Paired t test: t Values</u>		
	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	1.25	----
<u>Teacher</u>	4.10	2.89

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

and principals' perceptions or between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was indicated between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $r = .30$ ).

The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences between superintendents' and principals' perceptions. However, significant differences were noted between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and between principals' and teachers' perceptions. The  $t$  values of 4.01 for differences between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and 2.89 for differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions exceeded 2.01, which was the critical value of  $t$  for this study.

#### Coordinating the Curriculum

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Coordinating the Curriculum as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Coordinating the Curriculum are presented in Table 5.

On the job function, Coordinating the Curriculum, means were highest for principals ( $M = 3.72$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.53$ ). The mean for superintendents was 3.69. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Coordinating the  
Curriculum" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	3.69	3.72	3.53
<u>SD</u>	.70	.66	.85

---

Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	-.11	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.35	.20

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	-.27	---
<u>Teacher</u>	1.31	1.48

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

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the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Coordinating the Curriculum.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between superintendents' and principals' perceptions or between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was found between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $r = .35$ ).

The paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences among the three sub-groups. The  $t$  value for each pairing resulted in a critical value which was less than the critical value used in this study ( $t = 2.01$ ).

#### Monitoring Student Progress

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Monitoring Student Progress as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Monitoring Student Progress are presented in Table 6.

On the job function, Monitoring Student Progress, means were highest for principals ( $M = 3.67$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.27$ ). The mean for superintendents was 3.66.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Monitoring Student  
Progress" (N = 55)

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	3.66	3.67	3.27
<u>SD</u>	.37	.72	.99

<u>Pearson Correlation Matrix</u>		
	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.29	---
<u>Teacher</u>	-.01	.17

p < .05                      Critical Value of  $r = .23$                       df = 54

<u>Paired t test: t Values</u>		
	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	-.09	----
<u>Teacher</u>	2.35	2.68

p < .05                      Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                       df = 54

The means for superintendents and teachers represented the lowest means for each sub-group in all 10 job functions. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Monitoring Student Progress.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions or between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was found between superintendents' and principals' perceptions ( $r = .29$ ).

The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences between superintendents' and principals' perceptions. However, significant differences were noted between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and between principals' and teachers' perceptions. The  $t$  values of 2.35 for differences between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and 2.68 for differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions exceeded 2.01, which was the critical value of  $t$  for this study.

### Protecting Instructional Time

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Protecting Instructional Time as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Protecting Instructional Time are presented in Table 7.

On the job function, Protecting Instructional Time, means were highest for principals ( $\bar{M} = 4.17$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $\bar{M} = 3.88$ ), with the principals' mean representing the highest principal mean of all 10 job functions. The mean for superintendents was 3.16. Means for all three subgroups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Protecting Instructional Time.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was indicated between superintendents' and principals' perceptions ( $r = .37$ ) and between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $r = .31$ ).

Table 7

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers' Perceptions on the Job Function "Protecting Instructional Time" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	4.16	4.17	3.88
<u>SD</u>	.63	.61	.82

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Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.37	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.31	.04

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	-.12	----
<u>Teacher</u>	2.43	2.18

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

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The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences between superintendents' and principals' perceptions. However, significant differences were noted between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and between principals' and teachers' perceptions. The  $t$  values of 2.43 for differences between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and 2.18 for differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions exceeded 2.01, which was the critical value of  $t$  for this study.

#### Maintaining High Visibility

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Maintaining High Visibility as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Maintaining High Visibility are presented in Table 8.

On the job function, Maintaining High Visibility, the mean was highest for superintendents ( $M = 4.25$ ), which represented the highest superintendent mean of all 10 job functions. The teachers had the lowest mean ( $M = 3.75$ ), and the principals mean was 4.06. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point

Table 8

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Maintaining High  
Visibility" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	4.25	4.06	3.75
<u>SD</u>	.53	.55	.84

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Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.25	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.35	.22

$p < .05$       Critical Value of  $r = .23$        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	2.16	----
<u>Teacher</u>	4.49	2.52

$p < .05$       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$        $df = 54$

---

indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Maintaining High Visibility.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was indicated between superintendents' and principals' perceptions ( $r = .25$ ) and between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $r = .35$ ).

The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in significant differences between each of the three pairings: superintendents' and principals' perceptions ( $t = 2.16$ ), principals' and teachers' perceptions ( $t = 2.52$ ), and superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $t = 4.49$ ).

#### Providing Incentives for Teachers

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Providing Incentives for Teachers as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Providing Incentives for Teachers are presented in Table 9.

On the job function, Providing Incentives for Teachers, the mean was highest for superintendents ( $M = 3.91$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.34$ ). Means for all three

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers' Perceptions on the Job Function "Providing Incentives for Teachers" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	3.91	3.84	3.34
<u>SD</u>	.74	.52	.92

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Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.16	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.36	.14

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.56	----
<u>Teacher</u>	4.44	3.78

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

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sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Providing Incentives for Teachers.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between superintendents' and principals' perceptions or between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was indicated between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions ( $r = .36$ ).

The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences between superintendents' and principals' perceptions. However, significant differences were noted between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and between principals' and teachers' perceptions. The  $t$  values of 4.44 for differences between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and 3.78 for differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions exceeded 2.01, which was the critical value of  $t$  for this study.

#### Promoting Professional Development

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions,

principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Promoting Professional Development as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Promoting Professional Development are presented in Table 10.

On the job function, Promoting Professional Development, the mean was highest for principals ( $\bar{M} = 4.16$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $\bar{M} = 4.01$ ). The mean for superintendents was 4.15. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Promoting Professional Development.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions or between principals' and teachers' perceptions. However, a significant relationship was indicated between superintendents' and principals' perceptions ( $r = .30$ ).

The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences in any of the three pairings: superintendents' and principals' perceptions, principals' and teachers' perceptions, and superintendents'

Table 10

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test  
Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers'  
Perceptions on the Job Function "Promoting Professional  
Development" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	4.15	4.16	4.01
<u>SD</u>	.60	.56	.71

---

Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.30	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.15	.07

$p < .05$       Critical Value of  $r = .23$        $df = 54$

---

Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	-.04	----
<u>Teacher</u>	1.22	1.23

$p < .05$       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$        $df = 54$

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and teachers' perceptions. In each case the  $t$  value was less than the critical  $t$  value of 2.01 used in this study.

#### Providing Incentives for Learners

The statistical hypothesis stated there was no significant relationship among superintendents' perceptions, principals' self-perceptions, and teachers' perceptions on the job function of Providing Incentives for Learners as measured on the PIMRS instrument. Results of the data analysis on Providing Incentives for Learners are presented in Table 11.

On the job function, Providing Incentives for Learners, the mean was highest for superintendents ( $M = 4.20$ ) and lowest for teachers ( $M = 3.81$ ). The mean for principals was 4.10. Means for all three sub-groups were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with Providing Incentives for Learners.

Results of the correlational analysis failed to indicate a significant relationship among any of the three sub-groups. In each case, the correlation coefficient was less than the critical value used in this study ( $r = .23$ ).



Table 11

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Paired t Test Analyses of Superintendents', Principals', and Teachers' Perceptions on the Job Function "Providing Incentives for Learners" (N = 55)

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	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>	<u>Teacher</u>
<u>M</u>	4.20	4.10	3.81
<u>SD</u>	.57	.56	.81

---

Pearson Correlation Matrix

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.17	---
<u>Teacher</u>	.16	.21

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $r = .23$                        $df = 54$

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Paired t test: t Values

	<u>Superintendent</u>	<u>Principal</u>
<u>Principal</u>	.97	----
<u>Teacher</u>	3.11	2.39

$p < .05$                       Critical Value of  $t = 2.01$                        $df = 54$

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The results of the paired  $t$  test analysis resulted in no significant differences between superintendents' and principals' perceptions. However, significant differences were noted between principals' and teachers' perceptions and between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions. The  $t$  values of 3.11 for differences between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions and 2.39 for differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions exceeded 2.01, which was the critical value of  $t$  for this study.

#### Summary of Data Analysis

Professional experience data indicated over half of the superintendents involved in the study (52.72%) had worked with the principal whose instructional management behaviors were being assessed for a minimum of five years. Likewise, slightly over half of the teachers involved in the study (50.94%) had worked with the principal at least five years. A majority of the principals (56.36%) in the study had worked at least five years as a principal in the school where they were employed during the 1989-90 school year.

Superintendents indicated they made frequent visits to the principals' schools, with 83.64% stating that they made more than 15 visits greater than 20 minutes in length to the schools during the school year. All of the superintendents had visited the principals' schools at least five times during the previous 12 months.

Analysis of the perceptual data on the PIMRS instrument indicated a perception that principals were demonstrating the instructional management behaviors included in the 10 job functions measured in the PIMRS instrument. Means for all three sub-groups on each of the 10 job functions were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with each of the 10 job functions. The range of superintendents' mean scores was 3.66 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.25 (Maintaining High Visibility). Principals' mean scores ranged from 3.54 (Communicating Goals) to 4.17 (Protecting Instructional Time). Teachers' mean scores ranged from 3.27 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.01 (Promoting Professional Development).

The Pearson correlation analysis revealed there were statistically significant relationships between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on 4 of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behaviors included in the PIMRS instrument. The job functions on which there were significant relationships were: Monitoring Student

Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, and Promoting Professional Development.

In the analysis of the relationships between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional management behaviors, none of the 10 job functions produced statistically significant relationships. However, the analysis of the relationships between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions identified five job functions in which there were significant relationships: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, and Providing Incentives for Teachers.

The paired  $t$  test analysis revealed there were no statistically significant differences in superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on 9 of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behaviors included in the PIMRS survey. However, the analysis of the job function, Maintaining High Visibility, resulted in a difference at the .05 level.

The analysis of differences between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions identified 6 of the 10 job functions which were significant at the .05 level. They were: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time,

Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning. In each of the six job functions principals' self-perceptions were more favorable than perceptions of teachers.

The analysis of differences between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions also identified 6 of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior which had a significance level below .05. These job functions were identical to those identified in the analysis of differences between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions. They were: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learners. In each of the six job functions superintendents had more favorable perceptions of principal behaviors than did teachers.

Based upon the data analysis, the statistical hypothesis was partially rejected to the extent that significant relationships were observed between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on four of the job functions, and between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions on five of the job functions. The statistical hypothesis was also partially rejected to the extent that significant

differences were observed between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions on six of the job functions. The analysis of differences between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions revealed significant differences on the same six job functions.

To the extent that no significant relationships were noted between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on six of the job functions, the data analysis failed to reject the statistical hypothesis. In addition, the statistical hypothesis was not rejected to the extent that no significant relationships were noted between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions on five of the job functions included in the PIMRS instrument.

## CHAPTER V

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. The study included a self-assessment of individual instructional management behaviors by each participating high school principal as well as assessments of the principal by the superintendent and a randomly selected high school teacher. A comparison was made of superintendents', principals', and teachers' perceptions of principal instructional management behaviors in each of the 10 job functions of behavior categories contained in the PIMRS instrument to determine if any relationships and/or differences in perception were significant.

Summary

During the past 30 years numerous studies have been conducted indicating that the principal is a key figure in providing instructional leadership in the school. Either directly or indirectly one of the most important components of effective schools is the effectiveness of the principal (Manasse, 1982). Edmonds (1979) and Bossert et al. (1982) indicated principals in successful schools were perceived to be strong instructional leaders.

Although there is general acceptance of the importance of the principal in providing instructional leadership, there is no generally agreed upon definition of instructional leadership. There is evidence in the literature indicating that instructional leadership encompasses those activities directly related to the promotion of student achievement (DeBevoise, 1984; Greenfield, 1987b).

Some researchers provide broad definitions of instructional leadership. Acheson and Smith (1986) and Weber (1989) view instructional leadership as a dynamic process which encompasses a number of actions including instructional and school management, evaluation of teachers and students, school climate, curriculum development, staff development, instructional content, materials selection, student discipline, goal setting, and personal interactions between administrators and teachers.

A third view addresses the situational nature of instructional leadership (Avila, 1990; Duke, 1982). Principals employing situational leadership styles need to create a personal definition of instructional leadership and develop a repertoire of skills from which to select in a variety of settings and circumstances.

Research indicates that principals generally view instructional leadership as an important function in the



role of a principal, yet in practice the principals' time is often spent in activities not related to instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Krajewski, 1978). A related concern is the lack of specific behavioral indicators of effective instructional leadership (Dwyer, 1986; Ginsberg, 1988; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Thoms, 1986).

Several studies of instructional leadership indicated that effective principal leadership is a complex process which is closely related to bureaucratic and cultural linkages existing in the school (Burlingame, 1987; Firestone & Wilson, 1985; Hallinger & McCary, 1990; Kanpol & Weisz, 1990; Keedy, 1987; Manasse, 1984; Peterson, 1987; Purkey & Smith, 1982; Wilson & Firestone, 1987). Bureaucratic linkages are the structured, formal, on-going arrangements in the school which allow the school to operate, and are characterized by rules, role definition, and procedures. Cultural linkages are the publicly accepted meanings for activities undertaken by those in the organization, the symbols, stories, and rituals which keep the culture alive. Principals utilize both the bureaucratic and the cultural linkages in order to provide effective instructional leadership.

Although the literature lacks a comprehensive body of research suggesting specific behaviors which principals

carry out in the role of instructional leader, a number of broad indicators of instructional leadership have been identified. Among these indicators are curriculum coordination, goal setting, instructional organization, high visibility, monitoring of student and teacher progress, problem-solving skills, school climate, resource allocation, professional growth, staff development, and high student expectations. Attempts have been made to identify specific instructional leadership behaviors which contribute to the broad indicators of instructional leadership (Anderson & Nicholson, 1987; Hallinger, 1983; Patterson, 1977) and to develop instruments which measure specific behaviors.

Analysis of the perceptual data on the PIMRS instrument indicated a perception that principals were demonstrating the instructional management behaviors included in the 10 job functions measured in the PIMRS instrument. Means for all three sub-groups on each of the 10 job functions were above the mid-point of the scale of "1" (almost never demonstrates the behavior) to "5" (almost always demonstrates the behavior). Means above the mid-point indicated that principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the instructional management behaviors associated with each of the 10 job functions. The range of superintendents' mean scores was 3.66 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.25 (Maintaining High Visibility).

Principals' mean scores ranged from 3.54 (Communicating Goals) to 4.17 (Protecting Instructional Time). Teachers' mean scores ranged from 3.27 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.01 (Promoting Professional Development).

Hallinger (1983) developed the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) which identifies 10 job functions of instructional leadership behavior, each supported by five specific principal behaviors. The 10 job functions of principal behaviors are: (a) Framing the School Goals, (b) Communicating the School Goals, (c) Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, (d) Coordinating the Curriculum, (e) Monitoring Student Progress, (f) Protecting Instructional Time, (g) Maintaining High Visibility, (h) Providing Incentives for Teachers, (i) Promoting Professional Development, and (j) Providing Incentives for Learning.

Data were analyzed based upon survey instruments returned from 55 of the 117 schools in the identified population. Mean ratings and standard deviations were determined for each group of respondents (superintendents, principals, and teachers) for each of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior included in the PIMRS instrument. Relationships were determined by using the Pearson Correlation analysis, and differences in

perceptions were determined by employing a paired t test design.

On each of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior included in this study, principals were perceived as regularly demonstrating the specific instructional management behaviors associated with the job functions. Mean scores, based upon a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "1" (the principal almost never demonstrates this behavior) to "5" (the principal almost always demonstrates this behavior), ranged from 3.27 to 4.25.

The range of superintendents' mean scores was 3.66 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.25 (Maintaining High Visibility). Principals' mean scores ranged from 3.54 (Communicating Goals) to 4.17 (Protecting Instructional Time). Teachers' mean scores ranged from 3.27 (Monitoring Student Progress) to 4.01 (Promoting Professional Development).

Statistically significant relationships were noted between superintendents' and principals' perceptions on 4 of the 10 job functions. Significant relationships in perceptions between superintendents and teachers were noted on 5 of the 10 job functions; however no significant relationships were identified between principals' and teachers' perceptions.

The paired  $t$  test analysis revealed only one job function in which there was a significant difference between superintendents' and principals' perceptions (Maintaining High Visibility). The analysis of differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions identified six job functions in which there were significance at the .05 level (Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learners). The same six job functions were significantly different in the analysis of superintendents' and teachers' perceptions.

#### Conclusions

This study utilized the Pearson Correlation analysis and paired  $t$  tests to determine if significant relationships and/or differences existed among the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa as measured by the PIMRS instrument. Based upon the data gathered from superintendents, principals, and teachers in 55 mid-sized public high schools in Iowa, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Superintendents, principals, and teachers generally perceive principals as demonstrating specific instructional

management behaviors within 10 job functions included in the PIMRS instrument.

2. Significant relationships were identified between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on 4 of the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior. The four job functions were: Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, and Promoting Professional Development.

3. Significant relationships were identified between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions on 5 of the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior. The five job functions were: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, and Providing Incentives for Teachers.

4. No significant relationships were identified between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions on the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior.

5. No significant differences were observed between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions of principal performance on 9 of the 10 job functions of instructional management behavior. The nine job functions were: Framing Goals, Communicating Goals,

Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Providing Incentives for Teachers, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learning.

6. A significant difference was identified between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions of principal performance on 6 of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior investigated in this study. Differences were noted on the job functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning.

7. A significant difference was identified between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of principal performance on 6 of the 10 job functions of principal instructional management behavior investigated in this study. Differences were noted on the job functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning. In each case the principals' self perceptions were higher than the teachers' perceptions.

8. In general it appears that communication between superintendents and principals is quite effective. Superintendents in Class 1-A public high schools in Iowa spend considerable time meeting with principals as indicated by 83.64% of the superintendents making fifteen or more site-based visits to the principals' schools.

9. A strong indicator of similar perceptions between superintendents and principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa emerges in the comparison of principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions and the comparison of superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions. The six areas of significant difference were the same in both comparison groups, as were the four areas in which no significance was found.

#### Discussion

Recent studies in the area of school and principal effectiveness have focused on the key role played by the principal in providing instructional leadership. While the body of research in the area is extensive, many studies have concentrated on broadly defined indicators of instructional leadership rather than on the identification of specific behavioral indicators of instructional leadership as practiced by principals.

Analysis of the perceptions of principals and teachers, as well as the perceptions of superintendents and teachers,



indicated large discrepancies as evidenced by significant differences in perceptions on 6 of the 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors measured by the PIMRS instrument. Significant relationships were observed between superintendents' and teachers' perceptions on 5 of the 10 job functions, while significant relationships were observed between superintendents' perceptions and principals' self-perceptions on 4 of the 10 job functions. No significant relationships were observed between principals' and teachers' perceptions, however.

It is particularly noteworthy that the six job functions in which discrepancies were found were the same in the analysis of principals' self perceptions and teachers' perceptions as well as in the analysis of superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions. In each case differences were noted on the following job functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning.

The 10 job functions included in the PIMRS instrument can be further grouped within three dimensions of instructional management behavior (Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate). The data analysis revealed no significant

relationships or significant differences in perceptions among the three sub-groups in the dimension Defining the School Mission, which includes the job functions of Framing Goals and Communicating Goals. In this dimension, no evidence existed for rejecting the statistical hypothesis. However, in the other two dimensions, Managing the Instructional Program and Promoting School Climate, no clear pattern of relationships emerged.

The pattern of perceptual differences indicated no significant differences between perceptions of school administrators in central office and building level administrative roles. It also indicated large discrepancies between teachers and school administrators, including central office and building level administrators. These perceptual patterns could have implications for teacher-administrator relationships as well as pre-service and in-service training programs. The patterns noted in this study may be attributed to a variety of factors including, but not limited to, the following possibilities:

1. Most superintendents have served as principals prior to assuming central office positions. Therefore, superintendents are familiar with the day-to-day demands on principals' time as well as the importance of providing instructional leadership. Superintendents may be more attuned to the specific behavioral indicators of

instructional leadership than are teachers, who have not generally had building-level administrative experience.

2. Pre-service training programs for school administrators may provide both superintendents and principals with a common language and understanding of instructional leadership behaviors which, in turn, contribute to a greater sensitivity in the identification of effective instructional leadership behaviors.

3. Perceptual similarities between superintendents and principals may indicate a special camaraderie or esprit de corps among administrators. This could be attributed to a labor-management relationship between administrators and teachers which is sometimes characterized by polarization relative to roles, attitudes, and perceptions.

4. Discrepancies between teachers' perceptions and administrators' perceptions of the principals' instructional management behaviors may indicate a lack of role clarification relative to instructional leadership. In certain cases instructional leadership may be provided by someone other than the principal. In addition, teachers may not believe the principal should be responsible for all of the behavioral indicators of instructional leadership included in the PIMRS instrument. Teachers may view some of the behaviors as being more closely associated with the teachers' role than the principals' role. This factor could

be more pronounced in schools where teachers have a strong commitment to models of shared decision making.

5. It appears there is a need to more closely examine the understandings of superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding instructional management behaviors. The importance of role clarification and the communication of instructional leadership expectations also need to be addressed in order to provide superintendents, principals, and teachers with a common vocabulary and a common understanding of the role of instructional leadership in the school.

6. Pre-service programs for teachers, principals, and superintendents may need to identify common understandings and agreed upon definitions of instructional leadership. In-service programs may also need to be designed for administrators and teachers which address the indicators of instructional leadership, the clarification of instructional leadership roles, and the administrative behaviors perceived by teachers as necessary for the support of teachers' instructional efforts.

#### Recommendations

1. While this study identified only one job function in which there was a significant difference between the perceptions of superintendents and the self-perceptions of principals regarding principals' instructional management

behavior, considerable discrepancy was noted between superintendents' perceptions and teachers' perceptions, with similar discrepancies between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions. In order to determine the knowledge base possessed by teachers regarding instructional management behaviors, an investigation should be conducted of teachers' understandings and familiarity with the job functions of instructional management and the specific behaviors which characterize those job functions.

2. This study was limited to the perceptions of teachers, principals, and superintendents in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. In order to determine whether school size is related to perceptions of principal instructional management effectiveness, there is a need to compare the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in small, rural high schools; mid-sized high schools; suburban high schools; and large, urban high schools regarding principals' instructional management behaviors.

3. Although this study did not attempt to identify effective versus less effective schools, there appears to be a need to investigate the 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors in schools perceived as exemplary, as opposed to those schools not perceived as exemplary.

4. Much of the literature identifies the key role held by the principal as an instructional leader in the school. Recently, however, some schools are beginning to explore the possible benefits of shared decision-making and site-based management. An investigation should be conducted of the 10 job functions of instructional management behaviors in schools which employ shared decision-making and site-based management as compared to schools which employ centralized decision-making and centralized management models.

5. Although the literature indicates the principal is a key person in providing instructional leadership, many school districts now employ curriculum directors who are charged with managing the school's curriculum. Investigation needs to be conducted to determine differences in perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers on the 10 job functions of principals' instructional management behaviors in schools which employ curriculum directors and schools which do not employ curriculum directors.

6. Additional research needs to be conducted to further define and identify specific behavioral indicators of effective instructional leadership. As schools become more involved in efforts to restructure and transform the educational system, changes may be occurring in the indicators of effective instructional leadership.

7. This study did not analyze the effects of length of service for any of the three sub-groups and the possible effect on perceptions of instructional leadership. There is a need to examine the possible relationships between length of service, instructional leadership practices, and perceptions.

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**APPENDICES**

APPENDIX A

List of Courses Taught in Mid-Sized  
Public High Schools in Iowa

List of Courses Taught in Mid-Sized  
Public High Schools in Iowa

Teacher participants in this study were randomly selected according to the classes they taught during the 1989-90 school year. These courses included:

Algebra	Home Economics
Art	Industrial Technology
Biology	Mathematics (General)
Chemistry	Mathematics (Senior)
English (Grade 9)	Music (Instrumental)
English (Grade 10)	Music (Vocal)
English (Composition)	Physical Education
English (Literature)	Physical Science
Foreign Language	Physics
History (United States)	Psychology
Geometry	Sociology
Government	Typing/Keyboarding

APPENDIX B

Introductory Letters

# HUDSON COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

245 South Washington

Hudson, Iowa 50643

An NCA Accredited School

Marcus J. Haack  
Superintendent  
(319) 988-3233

Darrell D. Druvenga, Ed. D.  
Jr./Sr. High School Principal  
(319) 988-4137

Dean G. Stooak  
Elementary Principal  
(319) 988-3239

Jason F. Church  
Program Coordinator  
(319) 988-4137

April 14, 1990

Dear Superintendent:

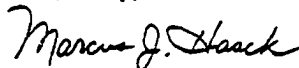
As part of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, I am conducting a study to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. I am asking for your help in obtaining the data I need for this project.

If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

1. Forward the envelope marked "Principal" to the high school principal in your school district.
2. Forward the envelope marked "Teacher" to the high school teacher in your school district who teaches \_\_\_\_\_.
3. Read the Informed Consent Form on the back side of this letter and return it with your completed survey.
4. Complete the copy of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale with the yellow cover. DO NOT include the name of the principal for Item C, Part I of the survey.
5. Collect the completed surveys from the high school principal and the designated teacher in your school district.
6. Return all three completed surveys and signed Informed Consent Forms in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided for your use.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are collected and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack  
Superintendent

"Opening the Doors to the Future"

## HUDSON COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

245 South Washington

Hudson, Iowa 50643

*An NCA Accredited School*

Marcus J. Haack  
Superintendent  
(319) 988-3233

Darrel D. Druvenga, Ed. D.  
Jr./Sr. High School Principal  
(319) 988-4137

Dean G. Stoack  
Elementary Principal  
(319) 988-3239

Jason F. Church  
Program Coordinator  
(319) 988-4137

April 14, 1990

Dear Principal:

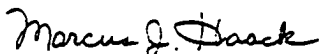
As part of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, I am conducting a study to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. I am asking for your help in obtaining the data I need for this project.

If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

1. Read the Informed Consent Form on the back side of this letter and return it with your completed survey.
2. Complete your copy of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. DO NOT include your name for item C, Part I of the survey.
3. Place your completed survey in the white envelope along with your signed Informed Consent Form, seal the envelope, and return it to your superintendent.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are gathered and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack, Superintendent  
Hudson Community School District  
245 S. Washington Street  
Hudson, Iowa 50643

*"Opening the Doors to the Future"*

# HUDSON COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

245 South Washington

Hudson, Iowa 50643

An NCA Accredited School

Marcus J. Haack  
Superintendent  
(319) 988-3233

Darrell D. Druvenga, Ed. D.  
Jr./Sr. High School Principal  
(319) 988-4137

Dean G. Stoack  
Elementary Principal  
(319) 988-3239

Jason F. Church  
Program Coordinator  
(319) 988-4137

April 14, 1990

Dear Teacher:

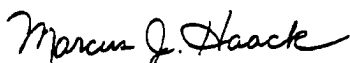
As part of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, I am conducting a study to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. I am asking for your help in obtaining the data I need for this project.

If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

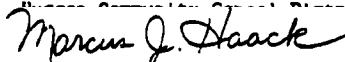
1. Read the Informed Consent Form on the back of this letter and return it with your completed survey.
2. Complete your copy of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. DO NOT include your principal's name for Item C, Part I of the survey.
3. Place your completed survey in the white envelope along with your signed Informed Consent Form, seal the envelope, and return it to your superintendent.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are gathered and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack, Superintendent  
Hudson Community School District



*"Opening the Doors to the Future"*



APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Form

## INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of Study: An Investigation of the Instructional Management Behaviors of Principals in Mid-Sized Public High Schools in Iowa

Researcher: Marcus J. Haack  
716 SE Richland Court  
Ankeny, Iowa 50021  
515-964-8783 (Home)  
515-281-8141 (Office)

As part of my doctoral program at the University of Northern Iowa, this study is being conducted to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. Participants are asked to complete a rating scale (The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale - PIMRS) consisting of 50 Likert Scale items which describe principal job practices and behaviors.

Data gathered in this study will provide an overview of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. In addition, the results will identify areas in which there is agreement and/or disagreement among superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding principals' instructional management behaviors.

Participation in this study is strictly voluntary and participants may elect to discontinue participation at any time without penalty. All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are collected and analyzed.

If you have questions regarding this research project or your rights as a research subject, please contact the Graduate College, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa 50614, (319) 273-2748, or Dr. Greg Stefanich, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Education Center #618, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, Iowa 50614, (319) 273-2167.

-----  
I am fully aware of the nature and extent of my participation in this project as stated above and the possible risks arising from it. I hereby agree to participate in this project. I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this consent statement.

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signature of Research Subject)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Date)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Printed Name of Research Subject)

\_\_\_\_\_  
(Signature of Researcher)

APPENDIX D

Principal Instructional Management

Rating Scale

(Superintendent Form)

**PLEASE NOTE**

**Copyrighted materials in this document have not been filmed at the request of the author. They are available for consultation, however, in the author's university library.**

**156-161, 163-168, 170-175**

**University Microfilms International**

APPENDIX E

Principal Instructional Management

Rating Scale

(Principal Form)

APPENDIX F

Principal Instructional Management

Rating Scale

(Teacher Form)

APPENDIX G

Follow-Up Letter to Superintendents

# HUDSON COMMUNITY SCHOOL DISTRICT

245 South Washington

Hudson, Iowa 50643

An NCA Accredited School

Marcus J. Haack  
Superintendent  
(319) 988-3233

Darrel D. Druvenga, Ed. D.  
Jr./Sr. High School Principal  
(319) 988-4137

Dean G. Stoack  
Elementary Principal  
(319) 988-3239

Jason F. Church  
Program Coordinator  
(319) 988-4137

May 19, 1990

Dear Superintendent:

Last month I sent a packet of material to you as part of a study I am conducting for my doctoral degree in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Northern Iowa. The packet consisted of three parallel forms of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). One form was to be completed by a randomly selected teacher, one by the high school principal, and one by the superintendent.

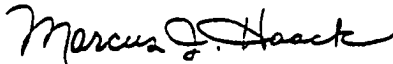
Data gathered in this study will provide an overview of the instructional management behaviors of principals in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa. In addition, the results will identify areas in which there is agreement and/or disagreement among superintendents, principals, and teachers regarding principals' instructional management behaviors.

According to my records, I have not received all three of the forms from your school district. If you, your high school principal, and the selected teacher have recently sent your responses, please ignore this letter and accept my apology for troubling you again. If you have not returned the forms, your prompt cooperation would be greatly appreciated. As you know, the greater the response that I generate for my study, the more valid the results. Your assistance is greatly needed and appreciated!

Please return the PIMRS forms by June 1, 1990. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at (319) 988-3233 during regular office hours or at (319) 988-3993 during the evening or on weekends.

Again, thank you for your cooperation and assistance!

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack, Superintendent  
Hudson Community School District  
245 S. Washington Street  
Hudson, Iowa 50643

*"Opening the Doors to the Future"*



APPENDIX H

Follow-Up Letter II

September 24, 1990

Dear Superintendent:


Last spring I sent a packet of material to you as part of a study I am conducting for my doctoral degree in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Northern Iowa. The study is designed to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. The packet you received consisted of three parallel forms of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), one for a randomly selected teacher, one for the high school principal, and one for the district superintendent.

According to my records, I have not received a response from your district. In order to complete my collection of data, I am sending you another complete packet of materials and asking that you assist me in this project. If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

1. Distribute the appropriate forms to your high school principal and the designated teacher.
2. Read and sign the enclosed Informed Consent Form.
3. Complete the supervisor's form of the PIMRS. (Please DO NOT identify the high school principal by name.)
4. Collect the completed PIMRS forms and the Informed Consent forms from the high school principal.
5. Return all three sets of the completed materials in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided for your use. I would appreciate receiving all completed materials by Friday, October 19, 1990.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential, and individual responses will be destroyed once data are collected and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack  
716 SE Richland Court  
Ankeny, Iowa 50021

APPENDIX I

Follow-Up Letters III

September 24, 1990

Dear Superintendent:

Last spring I sent a packet of material to you as part of a study I am conducting for my doctoral degree in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of Northern Iowa. The study is designed to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. The packet you received consisted of three parallel forms of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), one for a randomly selected teacher, one for the high school principal, and one for the district superintendent.

According to my records, I received a partially completed packet of material from your school district. In order to complete my collection of data, I am sending you copies of the PIMRS which were not returned with your original mailing last spring. In the space below I have indicated which forms still need to be collected from your district:

\_\_\_\_\_ Superintendent  
 \_\_\_\_\_ High School Principal  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Teacher\_\_\_\_\_

Please distribute the enclosed forms to the individuals indicated above. Once the forms are completed, they can be folded in half, stapled or taped, and returned to you. Completed forms (along with the signed Informed Consent Forms) can be returned to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope which is provided for your use.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential, and individual responses will be destroyed once data are collected and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting me with the completion of this project!

Sincerely,

Marcus J. Haack  
 716 Richland Court  
 Ankeny, Iowa 50021

September 24, 1990

Dear Principal:

As part of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, I am conducting a study to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. I am asking for your help in obtaining the data I need for this project.

If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

1. Read and sign the enclosed Informed Consent Form and return it with your completed survey.
2. Complete your copy of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale.
3. Fold and staple or tape your completed survey and return it along with your Informed Consent Form to your superintendent.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are gathered and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,



Marcus J. Haack

September 24, 1990

Dear Teacher:

As part of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, I am conducting a study to determine the perceptions of superintendents, principals, and teachers in mid-sized public high schools in Iowa regarding the behaviors of principals which contribute to instructional management. I am asking for your help in obtaining the data I need for this project.

If you choose to participate in this study, please do the following:

1. Read and sign the enclosed Informed Consent Form and return it with your completed survey.
2. Complete your copy of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. Please do not identify the name of your principal.
3. Fold and staple or tape your completed survey and return it along with your Informed Consent Form to your superintendent.

All information gathered in this study will remain confidential. Individual responses will be destroyed once data are gathered and analyzed. Thank you for your cooperation and time in assisting with this research project.

Sincerely,

  
Marcus J. Haack

Marcus J. Haack

APPENDIX J

Permission to Use PIMRS Instrument

*George Peabody College for Teachers*  
VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY



NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE 37203

TELEPHONE (615) 322-7311

*Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Leadership • Direct phone 343-7092*

September 18, 1989

Mr. Marcus Haack  
103 Stacey Circle  
Hudson  
Iowa 50643

Dear Mr. Haack:

Please find enclosed master copies of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. The PIMRS is a copyrighted test instrument. You have obtained the right to make unlimited copies of the PIMRS for your research and for this purpose only (the right to use the PIMRS for staff development purposes is provided under separate terms). The enclosed PIMRS Users Manual should be useful as you prepare to conduct your investigation. I will be in touch with you from time to time to provide you with updates on other PIMRS users' research.

I ask your consideration in remembering that a condition of your use of the PIMRS is that you forward a full copy of the study results to me upon completion. This makes it possible for me to share the results with other PIMRS users.

Feel free to call me at 1-800-288-3357 or 1-615-343-7092 if you have any questions. Good luck with your study.

Sincerely,

Philip Hallinger  
Director  
Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Leadership

Enclosure  
Pimr2.let



Peabody College

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY



NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE 37203

TELEPHONE (615) 322-7311

Center for Advanced Study of Educational Leadership • Direct phone 343-7092

October 9, 1991

To Whom It May Concern:

As holder of the copyright on the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)*, I, Philip Hallinger grant permission to Marcus J. Haack to include a copy of the PIMRS instrument in the Appendix section of his dissertation.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "Philip Hallinger", written in a cursive style.

Philip Hallinger  
Director, Center for the Advanced  
Study of Educational Leadership

PH/rj