Factors that Influence the Instructional Leadership of Principals and Assistant Principals in a Large Urban School District

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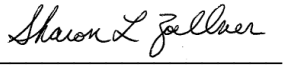

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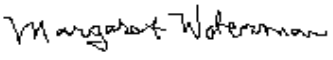

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Abstract

Instructional leadership is a term that was introduced in the 1970s, but the definition has remained somewhat uncertain for decades (Neumerski, 2013; Thompson, 2013). Using a sample of 98 building level administrators at a large urban school district in Kansas, this study sought to determine to what extent instructional leadership behaviors were affected by different factors. This quantitative study involved the use of purposive sampling of both elementary and secondary building administrators in a large urban south-central Kansas school district. The first purpose of this study was to identify the extent that instructional leadership behaviors were affected by the administrator type (principal and assistant principal). The second purpose was to determine the extent that instructional leadership behaviors were affected by the gender of the administrator (male or female). The third purpose of the study was to identify the extent that instructional leadership behaviors were affected by the school level of the administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The population included all principals and assistant principals in the elementary and secondary schools employed during the 2020-2021 school year. The results of the independent-samples *t* tests for differences based on administrator type (principal or assistant principal) revealed that principals exhibit instructional leadership behaviors defined by the PIMRS more than assistant principals for the instructional leadership behaviors of framing the school goals, and monitoring student progress. The results of the test for differences based on gender revealed no significant difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The results for the test of differences based on total years of experiences as a district administrator, level of administration (elementary, middle, high), and years of experience while at the same building revealed no significant

difference in instructional leadership behaviors. Additional analyses became necessary after hypothesis testing was reviewed. Additional analyses revealed the responses by the principals and assistant principals across the five items in each category were consistently higher than the test value and corresponded to ratings of frequently or almost always for the instructional leadership behaviors of framing the school goals, monitoring student progress, and promoting professional development. It is recommended that more research be conducted to further examine the impact on instructional leadership behaviors as they correlate to student success in secondary schools.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to the following individuals:

First, to the one person who has always supported all of my dreams, goals, and makes me a better person every single day, my wife: Krista M. Hutton. The fact that you were the very first person to ever support my desire to go into teaching and educational administration means the world to me. You push me to become the best possible version of myself! Thank you for all of the sacrifices you have made to help me reach my dreams. I love you with my whole heart!

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Third, to my brother: Ben M. Hutton. I have always looked up to you. Thank you for setting a great example for me, as well as for teaching me throughout my entire life. You have always supported me and provided me with encouragement and love. Thank you for putting up with all of my annoyances growing up. I am so thankful to call you my brother!

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In 2001, a federal mandate titled No Child left Behind (NCLB) was introduced to improve student outcomes and hold educators of all levels more accountable for student achievement. "Over the past years, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 has changed the way administrators, teachers, and state departments of education think about public schooling" (Meddaugh, 2014, p. 147). In 2012, Kew, Ivory, Muñiz, and Quiz argued that "NCLB is comprised of four pillars: stronger accountability for results, more freedom for states and communities, proven education methods, and more choice for parents" (p. 13). However, since the inception of NCLB in 2001, educational systems have seen meager gains in achievement (Townsend, Acker-Hocevar, Ballenger, & Place, 2013). For example, the nation's report card from the National Association of Elementary Principals (2009) indicated that 33% of fourth graders and 32% of eighth graders were proficient in reading by the end of the 2009 school year. Achievement in mathematics was similar with the report card showing 39% of fourth grade students and 34% of eighth grade student being proficient. The 2010 census data also supported these data points and revealed that there were approximately 49 million elementary and secondary students in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). "If these percentages were the same for all students, then nearly 33 million students were struggling for proficiency in all three areas" of reading, math, and science (Townsend et al., 2013, p. 45).

As a replacement of NCLB, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) 2008 standards have provided guidance and insight about the traits, functions,

and responsibilities expected of school and district level leadership across the nation (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2008). These ISLLC standards address the responsibilities that a principal would have within a school system, including roles as a visionary leader, instructional leader, building manager, community leader, as well as leader of inclusion, diversity, and ethics. More specifically, ISLLC Standard 2 addresses the principal's role as an instructional leader, stating "A school administrator is an educational leader who promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (p. 14).

Due to the increased accountability required by NCLB and the ISLLC standards, the importance of instructional leadership has gained the attention of educators. Furthermore, educational professionals across the United States have had a difficult time truly defining instructional leadership and have instead attempted to outline behaviors and actions that are encompassed by the term. In 1985, Hallinger and Murphy started research into instructional leadership. Consequently, Hallinger and Murphy developed the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) in an effort to measure dimensions of instructional leadership and discovered that over time, instructional leadership has become the preferred term over instructional management. The PIMRS assesses three dimensions of instructional leadership: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). These three dimensions of instructional leadership include the vital instructional leadership tasks of goal setting, supervision, evaluation, student progress, monitoring of instruction, high academic standards, and professional

development for staff. Table 1 illustrates the dimensions of instructional management as defined by the PIMRS, as well as the vital instructional leadership tasks under each dimension.

Table 1

Dimensions of Instructional Management and Vital Leadership Tasks

Defining the schools' mission	Managing the instructional program	Promoting a positive school learning program
Framing school goals	Supervising & evaluating instruction	Protecting instructional time
Communicating school goals	Coordinating curriculum	Promoting professional development
	Monitoring student progress	Maintaining high visibility
		Enforcing academic standards
		Providing incentives for students

Note. Adapted from "Assessing the Instructional Management Behaviors of Principals" by P. Hallinger & J. Murphy, 1985, *The Elementary School Journal, 86*(2), p. 221.

Background

Modern school leaders are expected to increase a schools' organizational capacity to prepare students to be college and career ready by developing twenty-first-century skills (Morgan, 2018). The modern concept of the principal, and in some cases assistant principal, is no longer that of an educational manager but rather a transformational leader who creates change in an educational system (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). With increased accountability as well as "traditions and beliefs surrounding leadership, we can easily make a case that leadership is vital to the effectiveness of the school" (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005, p. 4). With these increased expectations, school leadership is more critical today than ever before.

Research has shown that principal leadership is second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors that influence student outcomes (Leithwood et al., 2004). Terminology of this leadership has changed over the years, and research has been performed. Beginning in the 1980s, the concept of instructional leadership was introduced and discussed (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Since then, extensive research has been conducted showing that instructional leadership is a crucial educational leadership approach in the eyes of educational researchers, practitioners, and policy makers (Liu & Hallinger, 2018).

The large urban school district in which research was conducted is located in Sedgwick County, Kansas, covering approximately 150 square miles and operates 8 different comprehensive high schools, 11 middle schools, 5 particular purpose or magnet schools, and 36 elementary schools. In August 2019, the district had a total enrollment of 49,851 students as well as employed nearly 9000 full-time teachers and staff (Kansas State Department of Education, 2019). This includes 1 superintendent, and 4 assistant superintendents. Table 2 presents information on the number of building administrators at each level.

Table 2

District Certified Personnel by Building Personnel Type and Location 2019

Role	Elementary	Middle	High	Total
Principal	57	20	12	89
AP	26	33	30	89

Note. Adapted from the *Certified Personnel by Type,* by KSDE, 2019, Retrieved from KSDE.org

Table 3 presents information regarding the ethnicity of the large urban school district student population. The ethnicity enrollment has been compared in the following table to show the number of enrolled African American, Hispanic, White, and students identifying as Other. The table shows that the district ethnicity has remained consistent between 2015 and 2019.

Table 3

District Ethnicity Enrollment Percentages 2015-2019

Ethnicity	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
African American	18.4	18.7	19.0	19.3	19.5
Hispanic	33.4	33.5	34.2	34.7	34.9
White	34.1	34.1	33.4	32.7	32.3
Other	14.1	13.7	13.4	13.3	13.3

Note. Adapted from the *Demographic Profile, 2019, Retrieved from KSDE.org*

Statement of the Problem

The problem with existing research on instructional leadership is that school districts have not defined the specific actions or qualities of principals and assistant principals that should be in place. A comprehensive study of instructional leadership is essential for all schools as school districts across the nation are striving to meet the previously discussed requirements and expectations. Educational policymakers and district leaders are critical to districts across the state, and to students in each district. Research conducted between 1983-2019 provided strong evidence on the effects of building administrators' behaviors on student achievement (Marzano et al. 2005). While districts across the nation struggle to define instructional leadership in their particular system, principals and assistant principals also struggle to utilize their time in the

promotion of instructional leadership behaviors due to other district policies, or obligations. Instructional leadership has become a key term in many school districts across the United States however there is no consensus on the behaviors and skills that a building administrator needs to be effective. Although teachers, superintendents, and other administrators can all demonstrate instructional leadership behaviors, principals are the foundation for instructional leadership at the school level (Sergiovanni, 1998). School districts spend countless dollars and hours on professional development to address best practices and cultivate a culture of instructional leadership across all campuses and locations. In order for school district leaders to truly be wise stewards of taxpayer money, a solid and well-rounded definition must be examined by districts across the nation. There is limited research conducted on the topics that show which factor or factors (especially when it comes to principals and assistant principals) potentially impact instructional leadership behaviors, as well as what influence those factors potentially have.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyze variables that could affect the instructional leadership behaviors of building-level administrators in the chosen large urban school district. The first purpose was to investigate if the building administrators' roles (assistant principal or principal) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The second purpose was to investigate if the administrators' genders (male or female) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The third purpose was to investigate if the administrators' experience at one building location (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) contributed to a difference in

instructional leadership behaviors. The fourth purpose was to investigate if the administrators' levels of administration (elementary, middle, high) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The fifth purpose was to investigate if the administrators' total years of experience (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors.

Significance of the Study

The results of the data collection and analysis from this study could enable school district administrators to examine more closely the impact of their instructional leadership behaviors and the potential factors that contribute to effective leadership. Differences in perceptions between principals and assistant principals may affect student achievement across all levels and learning models. The result of this examination could provide valuable information to enhance professional development across the district as well as identify necessary changes in administrator training at each level (elementary, middle, high school). Furthermore, an understanding of the differences in instructional leadership behaviors can provide district officials with information necessary when working through logistical pieces and help identify where personnel should be located to ensure a positive teaching and learning environment.

Delimitations

According to Lunenberg and Irby (2008), delimitations are "self-imposed boundaries set by the researcher on the purpose and scope of the study" (p. 134). There are two delimitations in the current research study. First, data was only collected from the large urban school district in South Central Kansas. This decision was based on the involvement of the researcher in the school district as a secondary school assistant

principal. Second, this research study was purposefully conducted using building administrators only, not to include teachers, to best address the variables the district would want to evaluate when designing and implementing educational leadership professional development.

Assumptions

There were several assumptions for this study. It was assumed by the researcher that correct and accurate data would be collected using the PIMRS during professional development training sessions for administrators. Additionally, there was an assumption that respondents understood the concepts and vocabulary associated with the survey instrument. Finally, it was assumed the responses from the participants were honest throughout the survey.

Research Questions

Based on the purposes of the study five specific research questions (RQ) were addressed to identify behaviors that effect instructional leadership. These five questions were written to examine factors that influence instructional leadership behaviors. The research questions focus on the following factors: role (principal and assistant principal), gender (male and female), years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15), level (elementary, middle, high), and total years of experience in building administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

RQ1. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by building level administrator type (principal or assistant principal)?

RQ2. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors affected by the gender of the building level administrator (male or female) as defined by the PIMRS?

RQ3. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15)?

RQ4. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the school level of the building level administrator (elementary, middle, high school)?

RQ5. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the total years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15)?

Definition of Terms

Achievement gap. Anderson, Medrich, & Fowler (2007) defined the achievement gap as the differences in scores on state and national achievement tests between various student demographic groups.

Curriculum. A school's curriculum consists of the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college (Hoy, 2010).

Instruction. According to Hoy (2010), instruction is the transfer of learning from one person to another.

Instructional Leadership. According to Smith and Andrews (1989), instructional leadership consists of several behaviors including: (a) providing the necessary resources so that the school's academic goals can be achieved; (b) possessing knowledge and skill in curriculum and instructional matters so that teachers perceive their interaction with the principal leads to improved instructional practice; (c) being a skilled communicator in one-on-one, small-group, and large-group settings; and (d)

being a visionary who is out and around creating a visible presence for the staff, students, and parents at both the physical and philosophical levels concerning what the school is all about.

Instructional Time. According to Hoy (2010) instructional time refers to the time during a school day when a school is responsible for a student and the student is required or, expected to be actively engaged in a learning activity.

Morale. The sense of trust, confidence, enthusiasm, and friendliness among teachers. Teachers feel good about each other and, at the same time, feel a sense of accomplishment from their jobs (Hoy, 2010).

Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). The PIMRS is a survey designed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) from the Hong Kong Institute of Education. The objective of the PIMRS is to provide a principal based leadership profile. The questionnaire consists of 50 principal job practices and behaviors measuring 10 dimensions of instructional leadership. Each dimension consists of 5 questions (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

School Culture. School culture includes shared experiences both in and out of school, such as traditions and celebrations that create a sense of community, family, and team membership (Wagner, 2006, p. 41).

Organization of the study

This research study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 included the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, definition of terms, research questions, delimitations, and the assumptions of the study. Chapter 2 introduces the review of the literature, which includes instructional

leadership, and the various variables that have a possible impact on instructional leadership. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the study variables, population, and sample of participants, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 offers the study's findings including testing of the hypothesis addressing he research questions, as well as the results of the data analyses for the five research questions. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the entire study, discussion of the findings, implications of the findings for theory and practice, recommendations for further research, and conclusions.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

An analysis of the relationship between instructional leadership and the various factors (administrator role, gender, years of experience, and level of administration), prescribed a review of relevant literature on these topics. Definitions, descriptors, and traits of instructional leadership have been reviewed. In addition, wording comparisons such as principals and assistant principals, the difference between management and leadership, and gender differences in leadership were presented.

No matter the area of study or concentration, the concept of leadership should not be overlooked. Companies such as Gallup have conducted numerous research studies to explore the differences between leadership and management. Between 1999 and 2019, institutions such as Gallup have conducted more than 80,000 interviews with people in leadership positions (Gallup, 1999). In 2004, Goleman researched 200 global companies and affirmed that effective leaders possess a highly sophisticated emotional intelligence, and argued that these skills are twice as important as technical or cognitive skills.

Educational Leadership

In the last decade, school district administrators and building level administrators have worked in unique times. Educators across the nation are receiving more responsibility and experiencing higher performance expectations. "There has been a tendency for politicians, media, and the community in general to turn their attention to a variety of problems in the system and place blame for inadequate school performance on different groups" (Townsend et al., 2013, p. 2). Educators place the blame on students

and families while non-educators place accountability more on teachers and administrators (Coleman et al., 1966). "The accountability movement has tried to put maximum pressure on teachers to get results – and it does not work because teachers need to know how to do the right things, not just the right thing should be done" (Thiers, 2017, p. 10). District level administrators as well as building administrators face more pressure than ever before. Building principals are often burdened with taking charge of their schools, and individually meeting the needs of their students and communities. Building principals are also tasked with handling numerous challenges that were not present in years past such as mandated reform, rapidly changing demographics, technology advancements, and dwindling financial support. Accordingly, the concept of a school principal is no longer one of an educational manager, but instead a transformational leader who creates change in the current educational system (Leithwood et al., 2004).

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership is a term that was introduced in the 1970s, but the definition has remained somewhat uncertain for decades (Neumerski, 2013; Thompson, 2013). Most early attempts to define instructional leadership focused almost entirely on elementary schools. For instructional leadership to occur at the secondary level within a school system, would require "substantial adaptation" due to secondary schools being "large and complex organizations" (Hallinger, 2005, p. 231). No matter the level of school, whether that be elementary, middle, or high school, since the 1970s it has been presumed that principals of effective schools focused more on learning and teaching rather than managing school operations. Starting in the 1980s and 1990s a sharper focus

on the behaviors that effective instructional leaders demonstrate was known (Searby, Browne-Ferrigno, & Wang, 2017). Through an analysis of 70 studies, Marzano et al. (2005) identified 21 critical characteristics of a learning-focused leader who engages with teachers and staff to improve student learning. Marzano et al. (2005) began to tie school leadership to the widespread acceptance of instructional leadership as well as identify certain characteristics for its success. Leithwood et al. (2004) concluded that among factors that are associated with school leadership, and student achievement, leadership is second only to classroom instruction. Although other factors can influence student achievement, such as parental involvement, student background, and school characteristics, certain practices on the role of the principals have been found to be related to positive student outcomes (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Thus, the principals, or assistant principals role, has become important as the instructional leader of a school. Although there has been instructional leadership behaviors identified, researchers acknowledge that a principal's affect on student achievement is mostly indirect, chiefly through influence on school culture and teacher behaviors that positively impact student achievement (Day et al., 2009).

Although policy makers and school district leaders have long expected principals to be instructional leaders, the ways in which this expectation is played out in practice has varied across school districts and individual schools (Neumerski et al., 2018). Actions associated with principal instructional leadership are often time vague, such as having a visible presence, setting goals of the school, visiting classrooms, supervising instruction, providing feedback to teachers, and coordinating the curriculum (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Horng & Loeb, 2010). More detailed guidance

around instructional leadership challenges on how specifically principals should supervise instruction, be more visible, or set goals for the school are virtually, and largely nonexistent (Neumerski, 2013). These variations and lack of detailed expectations have led to large-scale studies related to how the principals time is divided and what gets attention. These results indicate that principals who spend more time on instruction see no difference in student achievement growth than principals who spend less time (Grissom, Loeb, & Master (2013); Horng & Loeb, 2010; May, Huff, & Goldring, 2012). "In particular, time spent on more specific areas on instructional leadership, such as coaching and evaluation, correlates with high student gains, particularly when employed as part of a broader school improvement strategy" (Grissom et al., 2013, p. 437).

With the majority of principals not spending time on instructional activities such as coaching and evaluation, there may be several reasons for this. Perhaps the time constraints on a principal's day prevents them from spending time on teaching and learning, or principals have not been adequately trained to assess teaching, or coach teachers on instructional improvement (Murphy, 2005). Additionally, there is the belief that if principals did posses the time to regularly visit classrooms, principals have little interest in focusing time on teaching and learning, intentionally avoiding interfering in classrooms (Murphy, Hallinger, & Heck, 2013). Consequently, when principals do visit teachers' classrooms, principals often do so in the form of brief visits or walkthroughs, getting a quick overview of the instruction, rather than spending substantial periods of time in a single class to get a deep sense of the teachers' strategies and the students' responses (Anderson, Leithwood, & Strauss, 2010; Moss & Brookhart, 2013).

In 2008, the Council of Chief State School Officers updated the 1996 ISLLC Standards for School Leaders. This was done to provide detailed directions about traits, functions and responsibilities of school leaders, while focusing on the ultimate goal of raising student achievement. The six domains of the ISLLC standards address setting a vision, developing school culture, ensuring effective management, collaborating with stakeholders, acting with integrity and ethics, and understanding political, social, legal, and cultural contexts.

Different definitions of instructional leadership require each principal to formulate, clarify, and communicate his or her own definition. Avila (1990) stated "Unless teachers understand exactly what to expect from principals as 'instructional leaders', each teacher will operate and evaluate under their own personal definition in instructional leader" (p. 52). There are similarities, but also differences in the manner in which instructional leadership and its practices are defined. Leithwood and Louis (2012) defined instructional leadership as a combination of four core practices demonstrated by a principal:

- *Setting directions* (i.e., building and sustaining a shared vision for students achievements, fostering acceptance of group goals, articulating high performance expectations, communicating progress and staying aware of external influences),
- *Developing people* (i.e., expanding knowledge about what constitutes quality teaching, providing formal and informal professional development for staff, being available),
- *Focusing on learning* (i.e., discussing instructional strategies and student learning with teachers, using observation and assessment data to initiate

reflective conversations with teachers about achievement goals, using data to inform decisions about the instructional program, conducting action research to improve professional practice and student performance), and

- *Improving the instructional program* (i.e., designing a system of collaboration and support for teachers through professional learning communities, monitoring classrooms regularly, providing essential instructional materials and resources).

In 2013, the Wallace foundation also presented a model for instructional leadership that is based on five leadership practices. In schools across the nation, the Wallace foundation found effective instructional leaders engaged in

1. Shaping a vision of academic success for all students, one based on high standards;
2. Creating a climate hospitable to education in order that safety, a cooperative spirit, and other foundations of fruitful interaction prevail;
3. Cultivating leadership in others so that teachers and other adults assume their part in realizing the school vision;
4. Improving instruction to enable teachers to teach at their best and students to learn at their utmost; and
5. Managing people, data, and processes to foster school improvement. (p. 55)

After comparing the differing descriptions of instructional leadership, similarities can be gathered. Leithwood and Louis (2012), placed a strong emphasis on an academic focused leadership component, stressing that administrators must be knowledgeable about classroom practices. In addition, the principal must be the life-long learner as the

instructional leader, constantly modeling continuous learning and consistently modeling being a co-leader and co-learner with teachers. All the while, participating in tangible assessment and instructional practices (Sharratt & Fullan, 2012).

With the varying researcher descriptions by Avila (1990), Leithwood (2004), and the Wallace Foundation (2013) on effective instructional leadership, it is warranted to take a closer look into some of the different components of the PIMRS, as well as learn more about the effective practices that could make an instructional leader. These many factors, as well as research, provide a model for what effective instructional leadership within schools should look like. According to Hallinger and Murphy (1985), there are three major dimensions that are part of the PIMRS, and differing behaviors within those dimensions. These dimensions consist of (1) defining the school mission, (2) managing the instructional program, and (3) promoting a positive school learning environment.

The principal of a successful school is not the instructional leader, but the coordinator of teachers as instructional leaders (Glickman, 1991, p. 7). The modern-day principal is called to not only manage a school but also effectively lead a school in all areas. Leithwood and Louis (2012) suggested that a principal's leadership accounts for approximately 20% of a school's impact on student achievement – second only to the impact of teachers (Leithwood et al., 2004). With this much influence on student achievement, principals have their work cut out for them. Principals not only need to be active managers, but also effective leaders of instruction.

Instructional leadership appears to be an area that is heavily researched, however, not much is known about why, when and how principals guide teachers' work in the

classroom (Zepeda, 2014). "Although the influence of school leadership is largely indirect, it accounts for as much as a quarter of the difference in the achievement of students at a particular school" (Clifford, Behrstock-Sherratt, & Fetters, 2012, p. 7). While the principal's role as an instructional leader does affect student achievement, researchers acknowledge that the principal's effect is mostly indirect, chiefly through the influence on school culture and teaching behaviors (Horng & Loeb, 2010; Witziers, Bosker, & Krüger, 2003). The term instructional leadership came into use around the mid-1980s (Chase & Kane, 1983). Within this term or role, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) defined three dimensions of the roles of instructional leadership defining the school's mission managing the instructional program and promoting a positive school learning climate (refer to table 1).

Additionally, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) established 11 leadership tasks required: Framing and communicating school goals, supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, monitoring student progress, protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing an incentive for teachers, enforcing academic standards, and providing incentives for students. Townsend et al. (2013) suggested that the principal is the manager of the implementation and, in turn, the "single person to oversee local implementation of decisions designed to maximize student learning and to improve the school in doing so" (p. 68). Furthermore, Jenkins (2009) identified instructional leadership as specific behaviors such as setting clear goals, allocating resources to instruction, managing the curriculum, monitoring lesson plans, and evaluating teachers. Flath (1989) defined instructional leadership as actions a principal takes to promote

growth in students learning. In a more recent definition, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2001) defined instructional leadership as leading learning communities, in which staff members meet regularly to discuss their work, collaborate to solve problems, reflect on their jobs, and take responsibility for what students learn.

Principals and Instructional Leadership

When most people hear the word principal, the noun version of the term is the first definition that comes to mind. People tend to think of the chief, or top executive, or the person who controls all of the levers (Mendels, 2012). Current meaning of the term principal is different than previously intended. In the 1800s, the term principal was frequently in front of the term teacher as many principals also took on teaching responsibilities for some or all of the working day (Pierce, 1935, p. 11). The principal teacher was a first among equals, an instructor who assumed some administrative tasks as school began to grow beyond the one-room buildings, but was concerned with instruction above all else (Mendels, 2012). This view of the principal, one who is concerned with instruction and not building management, is one that has gained traction in recent years. Researchers have identified principal leadership as second to only teacher quality when educators were asked to rank 21 educational issues in importance, ranging from special education and English language learning to school violence and reducing the dropout rate (Simkin, Charner, & Suss, 2010).

Assistant Principals and Instructional Leadership

In the current educational system in the United States, the majority of building leaders serve as the assistant principal before assuming the principalship (Kwan & Walker, 2011). Until the late 1990s assistant principals were underutilized in schools, being described as the forgotten man and a wasted educational resource (Glanz, 1994; Harvey, 1994). While assistant principals still devoted a majority of their time to discipline and managerial issues, there had been a push to re-purpose the duties of the assistant principal to include more instructional leadership responsibilities (Barnett, Shoho, & Oleszewski, 2012). While the specific job responsibilities of assistant principals vary between school districts and schools, the work of assistant principals is frequently determined by the specific needs of other school personnel, such as the principal or teachers (Harvey, 1994). Many responsibilities of an assistant principal can be placed into two major categories, student management and instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012).

Assistant principals tend to spend a lot of their time performing tasks that would be considered operations based more so than instruction based and have been labeled as the "daily operations chief" (Porter, 1996, p. 26). Glanz (1994) found that assistant principals in the state of New York spent roughly 90% of their day on student management tasks such as working with disruptive students, parents' complaints, lunch duty, scheduling coverage, and dealing with administrative paperwork. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Kwan and Walker (2008), assistant principals in several different areas such as Hong Kong reported the most substantial portion of their time is devoted to student management, which assistant principals consider to be the least important

aspect of their job. While student discipline must occupy some time and attention for assistant principals, Porter (1996) suggested that assistant principals change their perspective on discipline to focus on the positive impact assistant principals can make by building relationships with students who need it most, rather than viewing discipline as a punitive measure. No matter the role of the district or building level administrator, instructional leadership and management need to be areas of focus while demands for student progress are progressively being measured. School districts across the nation need to be progressively changing or adjusting their practices to ensure that high-quality instruction is taking place at all levels of student learning.

School Management Versus School Leadership

While the modern-day instructional leader may look different than before, the original concept of instructional leadership emerged in the 1980s. The basis for this idea was largely influenced by research that found effective schools usually had principals who stressed the importance of leadership (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982). With federal and state governments placing recent importance on academic standards and the need for schools across the nation to show student progress, instructional leadership has emerged as a hot topic. School leaders across the United States are now trying to manage their time, channel their energy, and focus their efforts on instructional leadership. "While most building level administrators would agree that instructional leadership is critical in the realization of effective schools, it is seldom prioritized" (Jenkins, 2009, p. 12). Several reasons are provided to researchers and educators for giving less emphasis to instructional leadership. School leaders' lack of training, lack of time, and increased paperwork are contributing factors to a building principal's lack of instructional

leadership capabilities. In addition to these, the school districts, in general, have a perception that the administrators' role is that of a manager and not a leader (Flath, 1989; Fullan, 1991). "Unfortunately, from the public's perspective, principals are often viewed as mere school-building managers (keepers of the key) rather than as aspirational leaders, team builders, coaches, and agents of visionary or transformational change" (Jenkins, Lock, & Lock, 2018, p. 13). Most of the assistant principal's school day is spent on managerial tasks when it should be spent on leadership tasks.

> Scads of other responsibilities also fall to the assistant principal: These include student discipline, building security and cleanliness, athletics, relationships with parents, personnel supervision, test scores, and meeting adequate yearly progress goals. True, sometimes the principal is intimately involved in an area and sometimes he or she delegates, but the principal always bears the responsibility, which cuts into the time and energy needed to think about pedagogy. (Hoerr, 2008, p. 84)

Instructional leadership differs from that of managerial roles in several ways.

> Assistant principals who pride themselves as administrators usually are too preoccupied in dealing with strictly managerial duties, while principals who are instructional leaders involve themselves in setting clear goals, allocating resources to instruction, manage curriculum, monitoring lesson plans, and evaluating teachers. (Jenkins, 2009, p. 35)

There are varying definitions by researchers between managers and leaders. Maccoby (2000) defined general management as functions, and leadership as relationships. Coyle (1997) stated that management implies maintaining order, direction, and probably a fair

degree of inertia. In contrast, leadership implies the setting of academic standards, goals, modes of behavior for the entire community, and creating nurturing structures that support the overall school goals (Coyle, 1997). Additionally, Coyle (1997) stated that management tends to focus on the status quo, while leadership must be more forward-thinking. For many educational leaders, there needs to be a balance. Instructional leadership is not about running a school; it is about investing the time and taking the actions to promote growth in student learning (Flath, 1989).

Gender Differences and Instructional Leadership

The teaching profession has, both locally and internationally, been dominated by the females, but according to educational research, despite the large number of females in the profession, females are greatly underrepresented in position of leadership (Austin, 2009). However, Tallerico, Poole, and Burnstyne (1994) argued that females being "newcomers" can transform leadership in educational institutions. Issues in educational leadership that have affected females directly has been the culture and conditions in which females operate. In some countries, females are positioned to maintain a culture rather than to bring about educational change. In turn, females are at a disadvantage due to structural biases (Austin, 2009). In addition, females are subject in the educational environment to being stuck in the "familial, or supportive roles that are concerns with staff and student welfare but are accorded very little power" (Austin, 2009, p. 288). For females in leadership roles, it is equally important that school districts across the nation offer support and guidance through mentor programs. However, it is hard for females to find sponsors to guide them as "men could not identify with women, and very few women hold top positions" (Carbajal, 2018, p. 14). An additional problem that faces

females in leadership roles is that females are given leadership roles without authority (Yoder, 2001). Kanter (1997) identified this as having authority without systems power. That is, corporations wanted to be perceived as inclusive, but instead of granting actual power, females were just made into figureheads. School districts across the nation have both men and females in both principal and assistant principal positions. To fully understand the differences in both of those roles, more research is required.

The Role of the Building Principal

The traditional role of a principal as manager, budgeter, supervisor, and disciplinarian have not vanished because these leadership responsibilities are essential for creating and sustaining safe, well-functioning schools (Searby et al., 2017). The role of the principal as an instructional leader perhaps has shifted placing more emphasis from principals being administrators to being instructional or academic leaders (Du Plessis, 2013). For much of the 1990s, instructional leadership was placed on the backburner and discussions on school-based management, and facilitative leadership took over (Lashway, 2002). Principals were strictly viewed as managers of a school and didn't have direct effect on student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Witziers et al., 2003), spending most of their time on tasks that were removed from instruction and learning. With the NCLB legislation, the role of the school leader has shifted from the role of disciplinarian, toward a role of instruction (Grubb & Flessa, 2006). Legislation in 2015 also played a role into what instructional leadership means. The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) prompted changes to ensure that public schools across the nation provide quality education for all students, and gives states more investment in how schools account for student achievement.

The educational reform "spurred on by business groups, school enthusiasts, conservative think tanks, and culture-war pundits, state governors and legislatures" (Zemelman, Daniels, & Hyde, 2005, p. viii) suggested that focusing on targets, benchmarks, and goals or procedures is the correct manner in which to improve student performance. Much of that accountability focus has been shifted away from principals and onto teachers. However, "policy makers are now taking notice of the research studies confirming the importance of the building-level principal in making lasting and meaningful change as well as noting that school leadership is second only to teacher quality" (Lemoine, Greer, McCormack, & Richardson, 2014, p. 19). The more recent and widely accepted view of instructional leadership calls for administrators to serve as instructional leaders rather than as building managers. However, for many years principals have viewed their roles or responsibilities as the managers of the building, all too often striving to keep the school building operational and not to change it (Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1987). In practice, principals are given very little direction and largely left on their own to be an instructional leader, with large variation of how they enact this role (Portin et al., 2009).

While effective instructional leadership is the new desire, it is often difficult for principals to get out of this mindset because of increasing task demands. Similar to teachers, principals have experienced work intensification over the past two decades from the early 2000s, resulting in an increase in daily responsibilities. Such intensification has included added managerial responsibilities administrative tasks, student issues, personnel management, dealing with external agencies, conflict resolution, resource management, and working with parents (Meyer & Macmillan, 2001;

Mitchell & Castle, 2005). Because of the nature of these domains, instructional leadership often takes a side role, which makes it difficult for principals to focus on instruction and classroom engagement. In turn, many principals have the belief that teachers are responsible for instruction, and the role of the principal involves carefully avoiding intrusions into the teacher's domain (Daresh, 1991). This indicates the need for principals to spend more of their time on instruction. Estimates of overall principal time spent on instruction place it at 20% or less (Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008). Grissom et al. (2013) found that on average, principals spend less than 13% of their time on instruction-related activities, with half that time devoted to brief classroom walk-throughs and minimal time on coaching, evaluation, and teacher professional development.

With the radical change that has been advocated by educational reformers to changes the principalship from the management roles it was previously thought to be, to the instructional leadership role that it is moving toward, "leadership has overtaken management" (Hoyle & Wallace, 2005, p. viii). The new argument of many principals across the nation is that "Instructional leadership must come from a strong internal and continuous commitment to the improvement of teaching and learning activities in schools" (Daresh, 1991, p. 111). It seems that this idea of focusing on the people and not the programs is recommended. In 2003, Whitaker suggested that instead of focusing on programs to improve schools, focus should be on people. Whitaker (2003) went on to suggest that to really improve schools the principal of the building should focus on two main factors. First, hire better teachers and second, improve the teachers already in place. This role of the principal as the instructional leader is a relatively new concept in

education and calls for the principal of the building to be more than a typical administrator, and more of an instructional or academic leader. This shift was influenced largely by research, Brookover and Lezotte (1982), found that effective schools usually had principals who stressed the importance of instructional leadership. As an instructional leader, the principal has a crucial responsibility to affect the quality of individual teacher instruction, the height of student achievement, and the degree of efficiency in the schools functioning. Findley and Findley (1992) stated "if a school is to be an effective one, it will be because of the instructional leadership of the principal" (p. 102).

While some principals focus on their work through professional development, or in human resources, others might take a different approach to instructional leadership. This difference suggests that many principals have been purposeful in creating structures for better interaction with teachers (Hallinger, 2003). In doing so, many principals are inadvertently building a positive learning community with teachers and students alike. In fact,

> Principals agree that building a positive learning community will only happen when the teachers have a sense of security in their work, ongoing collegial interaction, time to build relationships with instructional leaders, and an opportunity to provide input into programme decisions. (Du Plessis, 2013, p. 86)

Defining the School Mission

Defining the school mission is an important dimension of the school principal's instructional leadership responsibilities. Defining the mission includes defining and describing the school's mission and vision of the school to teachers and staff members alike to promote the success of each and every student. "The mission of the school can be defined in such a way that this vision will create a sense of common purpose in the staff and students by performing various activities in the school and classroom" (Turkoglu & Cansoy, 2018, p. 38).

Goal setting and vision. For principals to become effective instructional leaders, the practice of defining the school's mission appears to have risen in importance. While building principals strive to create learning cultures as well as set priorities, the practices of making meaningful goals will be of little value unless followed by purposeful action (Eaker & Keating, 2011). "In many cases, administrators, faculty, and staff view goal setting as busywork – something to turn in, mark off the to-do list, and then forget" (Eaker & Keating, 2012, p. 30). O'Neil and Conzemius (2006) developed a rubric for writing and developing goals that help districts implement professional learning communities known as the SMART goal format. DuFour, DuFour, and Eaker (2008) summarized the SMART goal acronym as:

> *Strategic and Specific* – The goal is linked to the organizations' purpose and vision and sufficiently specific to avoid ambiguity or confusion.
>
> *Measurable* – The organization has established baseline measures from which to assess progress.

Attainable – People in the organization believe that with collective effort they can accomplish the goal.

Results Oriented – The goal focuses outcomes rather than inputs and results rather than intentions. Once again, because the purpose and priority in schools and districts should be higher levels of student learning, a SMART goal will call for evidence of improved students achievement, and it will be student centered rather than project-centered or teacher-centered.

Timebound – The goal should include a timeframe for when specific action will be taken and when it is anticipated the goal will be accomplished. (pp. 159-160)

Utilizing SMART goals, building principals as well as district leaders can begin to demonstrate the importance of the district's mission and vision to the rest of the staff and how they shape other important areas such as policy development, budgeting and resource allocation, staff development activities, hiring, and personal performance appraisal (Eaker & Keating, 2012). Even with goals being established by the building principal, the vision, or where the district or building is going, it is vitally important in helping establish the instructional leadership role.

Vision. In addition to the previously stated attributes of instructional leadership, it is also vitally important for a principal to have a vision that reflects the instructional leadership role. As instructional leaders, individuals should seek new and effective teaching strategies and new ways of utilizing old teaching techniques (Green, 2010). It is important to emphasize that the managerial role of the principal is important. "The

management function is critical to the overall operation of the school, but it must not take priority over instruction" (Lemoine et al., 2014, p. 20). Researchers such as Bryk & Schneider (2003), Green (2010), and VanAlstine (2008) have emphasized three useful generalizations pertaining to the vision of the principal as an instructional leader. First, effective leaders set high expectations and reinforce these expectations through daily interactions with faculty, staff, and students. Second, effective leaders are responsive to the socioeconomic position of their schools and communities and implement programs or practices that consider the school's population. Third, effective leaders grow and support collegiality and trust among teachers (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Green, 2010, VanAlstine, 2008).

While the vision is most certainly an over-all picture of what the school stands for or where the school is going, vision should include variables that aim to reach both students and teachers alike. "When principals are enthused and excited about their schools, generally, the are helping the students, faculty, and staff become more involved in translating the vision into goals" (Lemoine et al., 2014, p. 20).

Managing Instructional Programs

"Across America teacher evaluation and supervision reform is underway, prompted in part by pressure from the federal No Child Left Behind (NCLB) flexibility waivers, Race to the Top, and Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)" (Mette et al., 2017, p. 709). As early as the 1920s, roles of personnel in schools became more scrutinized due to high accountability measures. This increase in scrutiny led "supervision (supportive feedback to improve instruction) to become intertwined with evaluation (assessment of ability), to the point that now supervision is usually understood as teacher

evaluation in the schools" (Hazi & Rucinski, 2009, p. 2). In 2004, Ponticell and Zepeda conducted a study involving 100 urban comprehensive secondary classroom teachers and their principals pertaining to supervision and evaluation, more specifically the differences or similarities between them. "For all 100 teachers and the vast majority of principals, supervision was, quite simply, evaluation" (Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004, p. 47). When speaking about supervision, this is more intended to target professional growth (i.e., formative feedback), and can be complex as well as situational, relying on a combination of knowledge, technical skill, and interpersonal skill (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2014). Alternatively, evaluation, the meaning and definition is primarily an administrative function (e.g. summative evaluation) that helps determine if the teacher meets minimum standards, as well as in some situations helps determine positive or negative employment actions (Zepeda, 2012).

Supervision. Teacher supervision (i.e. formative feedback) is focused on teacher support, improvement and ongoing growth. Many districts or institutions provide supervision to a wide variety of people; including administrators, peer teachers, instructional coaches, and independent consultants, with the ultimate purpose of supervision being to indirectly help student achievement by helping a teacher improve instruction (Glickman et al., 2014).

> Thus, there is an inherent aspect of supervision that is situational in nature, namely the need to identify appropriate support that is dependent on a variety of factors, including instructional goals, strengths and needs of a teacher, the career stage of the teacher, and overarching organizational goals. (Beach & Reinhartz, 1989, p. 710)

Evaluation. A small portion of the numerous responsibilities of principals is teacher evaluation. Since 2010, a growing number of researchers have suggested that policy driven changes have identified teacher evaluation as needed (Derrington & Campbell, 2018). Since so many policy reform programs have influenced education, states across the nation have started to focus on evaluation programs. As of 2015, there are 27 states within the United States that require annual evaluations of all teachers and 45 states that require evaluation of all new, probationary teachers (Doherty & Jacobs, 2015). This increased number of required evaluation programs offered a glimpse into the shift from previous requirements. For example, in 2009, only 15 states required annual teacher evaluations, with many states allowing 5 years or more between evaluations (Doherty & Jacobs, 2013, 2015). Currently in 2020, 48 states require principals to conduct formal and informal classroom observations and part of teacher evaluations (Donaldson & Papay, 2015). In addition to the programs, the newly developed evaluation systems have focused on using detailed rubrics, frequent classroom observations, and formative feedback to build teachers skills (Danielson, 2007; Marshall, 2009). This amount of detail in the observations is meant to help teachers acquire teaching strategies consistent with institutional goals in hopes to gauge the effectiveness of instructional programs.

While these new evaluation systems aim to address the effectiveness of instructional programs, a side effect is that schools are becoming data rich environments in which principals and educators are expected to use data for decision-making (Anderson et al., 2010). In addition to decision-making, many principals are wishful that this data can provide teachers with usable feedback, support, and professional

development (Hill & Grossman, 2013). While many districts and building level leaders welcome data to help guide decisions, studies have shown that principals need substantial assistance to collect and make use of observation data (Cannata et al., 2017).

This amount of detail in the observations is meant to help teachers acquire teaching strategies consistent with institutional goals. However, simply evaluating teachers or teaching practices through comprehensive evaluation processes is not enough. For many principals, becoming an effective instructional leader "Involves fundamental changes in philosophy and possibly even lifestyle as well as in-depth knowledge of high school curriculum and pedagogy" (Hassenpflug, 2013, p. 90). Furthermore, stimulating conversations about curriculum, teaching practices, and the overall vision of the institution.

Professional development. Demonstrating this instructional leadership must include an element of professionalism in staff development programs in which principals facilitate and train staff members, support instructional classroom techniques, and are data driven in their approach. "The principals' participation in professional development sends a message to the faculty that the information is important and they will be expected to implement the strategies that are being presented" (Lemoine et al., 2014, p. 20). Some of these sessions might include a student focused vision, strategies to meet the learning needs of all students, and helping teachers adjust to a changing population.

Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

"Research continues to point out that successful leadership comes when the principal is visible, but many principals find that difficult to accomplish because of their

many managerial tasks" (Fiore, 2000b, p. 31). If school building principals want to have a strong impact, or strongly influence achievement, morale, and connectedness in their schools, Fiore (1999) made the argument that one of the principal's greatest tools is to be visible. As Fiore (1999) indicated, principals of schools with more positive cultures placed a higher value on being visible to all stakeholders throughout the day. "They inherently understood the significant message articulated by their visibility" (Fiore, 2000a, p. 31). In contrast, building principals who placed a greater amount of emphasis or attention on paperwork or managerial tasks had a negative school culture by comparison. Managerial theories have been the areas of focus for several decades. A growing body of research has begun to place more emphasis on "the leaders management of time, specifically the amount of time school leaders spend performing Management by Wandering Around (MBWA)" (Fiore, 2000b, p. 31). This MBWA concept provides administrators a way to attend to more management tasks in nature, without sacrificing the fundamental needs of people. Frase and Melton (1992) stated: MBWA leaders are seldom in the offices during school hours. MBWA principals are on their feet and wandering with a purpose. Building principals spend their time in classrooms and hallways, with teachers and students. "This is the most crucial underlying value of MBWA: the commitment to be with the people, and the belief that the classroom and the teachers and students are the source of diagnostic information and solutions to problems" (Frase & Melton, 1992, p. 17). The concept of MBWA is quite simple, effective managers know what is happening in their organizations because they are in touch with their people and their surroundings rather than isolating themselves in their offices (Buckner, 2008).

Fiore (1999) also made the argument that visibility is directly related to the culture of the school. Fiore (1999) stated, "the principals of schools with positive cultures were highly visible stakeholders throughout the school day" (p. 32). In schools with a more positive culture, principals understand the importance of being present and visible to help establish and become a positive role model for students as well as staff. More importantly, these highly visible principals realized that it is their obligation to help model appropriate behavior of adults and children within their environments (Fiore, 2000a). Research conducted by Fiore (2000b) showed that teachers appreciated the MBWA concept, and willingly followed the building principals' lead. By being visible, the principal's presence seems more ordinary as well as expected from students. In being so visible "principals must be keenly aware of the impact that their visibility has on creating and fostering a positive school culture" (Fiore, 2000b, p. 33).

While it is a good practice for a principal to be highly visible, just being visible may not be enough. Niece (1993) found three major themes in his research pertaining to effective instructional leadership. Of these three leadership components, Whitaker (1997) stated that effective instructional leaders are people oriented and interactional. Niece (1993) suggested that principals do not allow their days and time to become secluded or isolated from the day-to-day operations of the school, but instead interact regularly with all people in the school and remain visible and accessible. In addition to Niece (1993), Smith and Andrews (1989) identified four areas of strategic interaction (resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence) conducted by instructional leaders, and related them to high levels of student achievement. Andrews, Basom, and Basom (1991) stated:

> To create a visible presence in day-to-day activities, principals must model behaviors consistent with the school's vision; live and breathe their beliefs in education; organize resources to accomplish building and district goals; informally drop in on classrooms; make staff development activities a priority; and, most of all, help people do the right things to reinforce those activities. (p. 100)

Data collected during classroom visits indicates that effective instructional leaders make it a point to visit classrooms daily. While these visits should be structured, as well as have an element of feedback, these visits to classrooms need to show that time spent in classrooms have meaning and purpose. These daily visits by principals "validate the idea that the classrooms are where the truly important activities in a school occur and that instructional leadership is the most critical responsibility of the school principal" (Whitaker, 1997, p. 155). Glatthorn (1984) described these daily visits or appearances as drop in supervision, stating that their purpose should be to see teachers working under normal conditions; or should be learning centered, with an emphasis on the teacher's purpose, the learning experience, and the atmosphere of the classroom (Glatthorn, 1984). Additionally, Glatthorn (1984) stressed that the administrator must provide meaningful feedback to the teacher, as well as utilize the observational data in a continuous assessment of the instructional program and culture of the school.

However, before building principals can effectively become instructional leaders, the internal support system of the school district must articulate the value of such behavior (Corcoran, Schwartz, & Weinstein, 2012). Building principals must feel the support and internal motivation to overcome external pressures. The support structure,

such as the superintendent, school board, supervisors, and others in the local system must support the process and help make the change "bottom-up" before the principal can truly become an effective instructional leader (Grissom & Loeb, 2009). Additionally, building level principals must be given realistic goals and expectations by the district to effectively perform concrete evaluations. "Without objective evaluation principals will flounder in their perceived expectations" (Lemoine et al., 2014, p. 21). Building principals have always been expected to manage the school building smoothly. The literature on effective schools demands that the principal also spend more time as instructional leaders performing certain practices such as supervision, evaluation, and professional development are necessary for principals to demonstrate as an instructional leader (Horng, Klasik, & Loeb, 2010).

Assistant Principal Role

For the purpose of this study, an assistant principal was defined as the person who serves directly under the supervision on the principal. In the current national educational system, the majority of leaders serve as the assistant principal of a school before assuming the principalship (Kwan & Walker, 2011; Pounder & Crow, 2005). When an individual is in the role of assistant principal, one will be exposed to new duties and challenges they have not experienced as a teacher. The specific roles and duties of assistant principals range broadly from relieving principals' burdens, to providing administrative support for teachers and to attending to the welfare of students (Glanz, 1994; Harvey, 1994).

As a part of the school leadership team, assistant principals directly impact instructional improvement, although little is known how the role of the assistant

principal directly effects instructional leadership and is “one of the least researched and least discussed topics in educational leadership” (Weller & Weller, 2002, p. xiii). Furthermore, research on the preparation and training of assistant principals has shown that there are gaps in the current support structures that are in place to encourage them to be effective in their position or prepared to assume other leadership roles (Barnett et al., 2012; Crawford, 2013; Darling-Hammond, Lapointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Hausman, Nebeker, McCreary, & Donaldson, 2002). These factors, as well as the variety of roles placed on assistant principals create a situation where assistant principals are often ignored or slandered in the course of their work (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). While many assistant principal job descriptions are unclear, and the responsibilities of assistant principals vary, the work is often determined by the specific needs of other school personnel, such as principals or teachers (Harvey, 1994). This wide variance of duties creates a position that is crucial to the daily running of the school, but almost unachievable in daily responsibilities. However, two of the most prominent duties of assistant principals are student management and instructional leadership (Barnett et al. 2012).

Student management. Without saying, or implying directly, many of the assistant principal responsibilities lead them to being the disciplinarians, or act as the chief policemen (Koru, 1993). These duties often require assistant principals to enforce the rules of the school, ensure student safety, mediate conflicts, and patrol the halls (Kaplan & Owings, 1999). Glanz (1994) found that 90% of secondary assistant principals surveyed in the state of New York perceive their chief duties as dealing with disruptive students, parent complaints, lunch duty, scheduling coverage, and

administrative paperwork. Furthermore, assistant principals across all levels, elementary and secondary, in Hong Kong also spend a majority of their time on student management, most believing that these responsibilities are the least important aspects of their job (Kwan & Walker, 2008).

> While assistant principals must take action on student discipline, there is a growing trend that instead of acting like a disciplinarian, assistant principals should instead change their perspective and focus on the positive impact they can make on the lives of students by building relationships with the students who need it most. (Porter, 1996, p. 26)

Instructional Leadership. "With increased demands to improve student achievement, school leaders, including assistant principals, are expected to be instructional leaders" (Barnett et al., 2012, p. 95). In contrast of their tasks involving student management, most assistant principals welcome the responsibilities of being instructional leaders. Certain tasks of setting the vision and goals, coaching and evaluating teachers, developing and managing curriculum, communicating with stakeholders, and using data to make decisions all have impacts on classrooms instruction and student learning. While many assistant principals would prefer to perform instructional tasks than managerial tasks, most do not actually perform instructional duties (Barnett et al., 2012). Furthermore, "males and those with less than five years of teaching experience tend to spend less time as instructional leaders" (Hausman et al., 2002, p. 146). This suggests that assistant principals may not have the skills, knowledge, and confidence to guide older and more experienced teachers.

Professional development. Due to the increased responsibilities of assistant principals across the nation, school districts have made an effort to help assistant principals manage increased responsibilities by providing additional professional development opportunities. Camburn, Rowan, and Taylor (2003) suggested that staff development is an effective way to encourage assistant principals to engage in instructional leadership tasks. While there is an expectation for all assistant principals to participate, Hausman et al. (2002) found that participating in additional professional development did not lead to greater success as an assistant principal.

While districts are looking at new and unique ways to prepare the next generation of school building leaders, or principals, it is the current building principals who hold the power to provide meaningful growth and developmental opportunities. Garrett and McGeachie (1999) argued that supportive principals provide training, develop open and honest relationships, create opportunities for assistant principals to attend and perform principal functions, and encourage their assistant principals to pursue principalships. Koru (1993) for example, maintained that the assistant principals role is inadequate and ineffective preparation for the principalship. Furthermore, arguing that few assistant principals are allowed to shape the vision for the organization, monitor curriculum and instruction, and motivate staff. As a result, many assistant principals do not feel confident taking over the school when their principals are absent, especially regarding administrative and financial matters (Webb & Vulliamy, 1995).

While some assistant principals may not feel comfortable or qualified to be effective instructional leaders, Gerke (2004) and Good (2008) recommended four actions assistant principals could take to become more effective in instructional

leadership. First, assistant principals should read a variety of materials as well as retain important articles pertaining to instructional leadership. Second, assistant principals should participate in staff development and learning activities, with their teaching staff. Third, assistant principals should make a consistent effort to visit classrooms on a regular basis. By participating in these activities, the assistant principal is able to become part of student lessons, as well as open the door for communication regarding lesson development and best practices. Lastly, assistant principals should find a mentor to help them develop in their instructional leader capabilities.

Summary

This review of literature provided information regarding instructional leadership. Furthermore, this chapter contains an overview of impacts that different factors and positions have had on instructional leadership at the building level. In Chapter 3 aspects of the research methodology are described. These aspects include: research design; population and sample; sampling procedures; instrumentation including measurement, reliability, and validity; data collection procedures; data analysis and hypothesis testing; research questions; and limitations.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this study was to measure different factors that could affect the instructional leadership behaviors of building-level principals and assistant principals in a large urban school district. The first purpose was to investigate if the building principal's role (assistant principal or principal) attributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The second purpose was to investigate if the building principal's gender (male or female) attributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The third purpose was to investigate if the building principal's role experience at one building location (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) attributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The fourth purpose was to investigate if the building principal's level of administration (elementary, middle, high) attributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The fifth purpose was to investigate if the building principal's total years of experience (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) attributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. Presented in Chapter 3 are methods utilized to gather data and test the research hypotheses. This chapter is organized accordingly: research design, selection of participants, measurement, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and the limitations of the study.

Research Design

A quantitative research design guided this study utilizing a survey to collect data. Descriptive questions were designed to focus data collection and to investigate the factors that could influence leadership behaviors. Since this is an descriptive study, and subjects were not asked to manipulate their working environment for any purposes, a

cross sectional survey was appropriate for this study. The effect of factors such as building administrator type, gender, experience at one building site, level of the building administrator, and total years of experience for the building administrator were investigated.

Selection of Participants

The population for this study was composed of principals and assistant principals employed by a large urban school district in October of 2020. These building administrators were chosen because of their positions within the school district. The researcher worked with district level administrators in the secondary, and elementary offices to ensure cooperation with the study, as well as to obtain permission to have building principals and assistant principals from across the district participate. The researcher also spoke to the building principals and assistant principals at their professional development sessions, or as the large urban school district calls them, learning academies. Permission was obtained from the large urban school district research committee to proceed with the research throughout the district attached in Appendix C. Purposive sampling was used in this research study. Lunenberg and Irby (2008) stated "Purposive sampling involves selecting a sample based on the researchers experience or knowledge of the group to be sampled" (p. 175). Purposeful sampling is the primary method used to focus this research project on building administrators. Principals and assistant principals ultimately had to volunteer to participate in the study, and were allowed time to complete the survey during professional development learning academies.

Measurement

The PIMRS was used to measure instructional leadership behaviors for this study (Appendix A). The PIMRS measures principal perceptions of the frequency of instructional leadership behaviors. The creator the PIMRS, Hallinger and Murphy (1985), asserted that the PIMRS is a valid, reliable instrument that has exceeded standards for instruments used for research in over 700 instructional leadership studies around the world. The PIMRS is composed of 50 questions, based around 10 different job functions. Participants are asked to answer all 50 questions using a Likert-type scale: 1 (almost never), 2 (seldom), 3 (sometimes), 4 (frequently), 5 (almost always). The PIMRS was used to collect instructional leadership data from principals and assistant principals at all three school levels. The PIMRS contains questions that ask principals and assistant principals to answer each question based upon the extent that they feel they carry out the instructional behaviors in the job function categories. Each of the job function categories can produce a minimum score of 5 and a maximum score of 25. All questions involve the use of the Likert-type scale of 1-5 (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

In addition to the 50 survey questions contained in the PIMRS, demographic and experience questions were asked of each participant, including current role in administration (principal and assistant principal), current level of administration (elementary, middle, high), gender (male and female), years employed as an administrator in the same building location (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15), years employed as an administrator in the large urban school district (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). Each participant was asked to answer these questions, which were placed at

the beginning of the survey before the instructional leadership practice questions. Table 4 depicts the four dimensions of instructional leadership behaviors. Included are the 10 subscales that contribute to the dimensions, item question numbers, and reliability coefficients.

Table 4

PIMRS Subscale and Item Classification

Dimensions	Subscale	Items	Reliability
Defining the mission	Framing school goals	1-5	.89
	Communicating school goals	6-10	.89
Managing instructional program	Supervising and Evaluating instruction	11-15	.90
	Coordinating the curriculum	16-20	.90
	Monitoring student progress	21-25	.90
Promoting school program	Protecting instructional time	26-30	.84
	Maintaining high visibility	31-35	.81
	Providing incentives for teachers	36-40	.78
	Promoting professional development	41-45	.86
	Providing incentives for learning	46-50	.87

Note. Adapted from *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale: Resource Manual*, by P. J. Hallinger, 1985, p. 5.

For research to have meaningful results, the survey must provide reliable and valid measurement. Reliability is the degree to which an instrument consistently measures what it was designed to measure (Lunenberg & Irby, 2008, p. 182). According to Lunenberg and Irby (2008) “validity is the degree to which an instrument measures

what it purports to measure" (p. 181). Hallinger and Murphy (1985), authors of the PIMRS, included reliability and validity data with the survey instrument and instructions. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) conducted a pilot across 10 sample schools to determine the reliability and validity of the PIMRS instrument.

A minimum standard of 80% agreement among judges was established for each PIMRS subscale to be considered a valid measure of each job function (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The 10 subscales of the PIMRS were measured for content validity and the interrater agreement percentages were sufficiently high: Framing Goals (91%), Communicating Goals (96%), Supervising and Evaluating Instruction (80%), Coordinating the Curriculum (80%), Monitoring Student Progress (88%), Protecting Instructional Time (85%), Maintaining High Visibility (95%), Providing Incentives for Teachers (100%), Promoting Professional Development (80%), and Providing Incentives for Learning (94%) (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Data Collection Procedures

The first step after obtaining permission from Hallinger (see Appendix B) to use the PIMRS was to request and obtain written permission to conduct research from the large urban school district research committee. Facilitated by the Director of Research and Assessment, this permission enabled the researcher to gather data with administrators during professional development days in what the large urban school district calls learning academies (see Appendix C). The researcher then submitted an Instructional Leadership research proposal on September 28th, 2020 to the Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the study was approved on September 30th, 2020. See Appendix D for the Baker IRB approval letter.

The second step in the quantitative data collection process included establishing a date to present information and the PIMRS to principals' and assistant principals' at both secondary and elementary schools. The researcher presented the information to all administrators during principal and assistant principal leadership academies on October 8, 2020 to inform the administrators about the study, as well as answer any questions presented. The PIMRS was converted into a digital format for distribution using the platform Survey Monkey. This digital survey was sent to the principals and assistant principals district issued computers via an electronic link through district email. The survey contained a one-paragraph description, as well as a statement guaranteeing anonymity and information informing them that their participation was completely voluntary. Participants were informed that they had the right to not answer a question, as well as stop the survey at any time. Informed consent was obtained through participation in the electronic survey; those who chose not to participate could simply delete the email pertaining to the survey. The window to participate in the electronic survey was three weeks, ending on October 29, 2020; each staff member received an email prompt with one week left in the survey window. After the survey window closed for all buildings, the survey results were downloaded in a Microsoft Excel file from Survey Monkey.

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

Principal and assistant principal responses that were calculated by summing the responses to the five items that measured each of the 10 subscales, was the dependent variable. Data analysis for all hypothesis testing was conducted utilizing IBM SPSS Statistics Version 25. This data analysis software provided automated analysis of the

descriptive and hypothesis testing statistics. Five research questions, correlating 10 hypothesis statements for each research question, and data analyses to test each hypothesis are presented below.

RQ1. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by building level administrator type (principal or assistant principal)?

H1. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H1. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H2. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H2. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two

mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H3. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H3. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H4. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H4. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for

numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H5. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H5. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H6. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H6. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for

numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H7. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H7. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H8. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H8. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for

numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H9. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H9. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H10. A statistical difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors, and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H10. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using

data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

RQ2. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors affected by the gender of the building level principal and assistant principal (male or female) as defined by the PIMRS? In order to address this question, the following hypotheses were tested.

H11. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H11. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H12. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H12. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis

testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H13. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H13. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H14. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H14. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between

two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H15. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H15. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H16. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H16. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for

numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H17. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H17. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H18. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H18. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using

data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H19. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H19. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

H20. A statistical difference exists between female administrators' instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H20. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using

data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

RQ3. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15)?

H21. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to test H21. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site(1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15 years). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H22. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H22. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15 years).

The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H23. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H23. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H24. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H24. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical

variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H25. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H25. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H26. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H26. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H27. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H27. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H28. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H28. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H29. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among

administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H29. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H30. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H30. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, was years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

RQ4. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the school level of the building level administrator (elementary, middle, high school)?

H31. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H31. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H32. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H32. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H33. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among

administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H33. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H34. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H34. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H35. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H35. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H36. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H36. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H37. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H37. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, was the level of the building

administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H38. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H38. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H39. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H39. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA

can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H40. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H40. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, was the level of the building administrator (elementary, middle, high school). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

RQ5. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the total years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15)?

H41. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H41. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the

PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15 years). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H42. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H42. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15 years). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H43. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H43. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, was years of experience as a

building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H44. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H44. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H45. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H45. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-

factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H46. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H46. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H47. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H47. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among

three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H48. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H48. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H49. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H49. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable

among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

H50. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

A one-factor ANOVA was conducted to test H50. The categorical variable used to group the dependent variable, providing incentives for learning, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, was years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the one-factor ANOVA can be used to test for differences in the means for a numerical variable among three or more groups. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is reported.

Limitations

Limitations are defined as "factors that may have an effect on the interpretation of the findings or on the generalizability of the results" (Lunenberg & Irby, 2008, p. 133).

The following are the limitations for the current research study:

- Some of the assistant principals might have assumed they had to respond in a certain manner to promote their own success, or the success of their building level principal.
- Respondents may be reluctant to answer survey questions honestly because they may not believe their responses to be anonymous.

- Some of the questions wording may have not been clear to the participant, or did not apply to all respondents.

Summary

This chapter included a restatement of the purpose of the study and a presentation of research design. Data collection procedures, data analysis and hypotheses testing, and limitations of the study were also described. Chapter 4 contains the results on the analysis of the collected data.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this research study was fivefold. The first purpose was to identify the extent that instructional leadership behaviors identified in the PIMRS are affected by building level administrator type (principal or assistant principal). The second purpose was to identify if gender (male or female) affected instructional leadership behaviors. The third purpose was to identify if the number of years of experience (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) of the building level administrator affected instructional leadership behaviors. The fourth purpose was to identify if the level of building level administrator (elementary, middle, high school) affected instructional leadership behaviors. The final purpose was to identify if the years of experience in the same building (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) affected instructional leadership behaviors.

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the characteristics of the sample. Hypothesis tests were conducted and the results are reported in the hypothesis testing section.

Descriptive Statistics

The population for this research study was professional administrators from a large urban school district in Kansas. The number of administrators (principals and assistant principals) employed by the district numbered 178. Principals and assistant principals from elementary, middle, and high school levels were encouraged to take the survey. Due to the timing of the research coinciding with the COVID-19 pandemic, the survey instrument was provided to participants electronically. The original data

collection procedure was intended to occur in person at professional learning academies for principals and assistant principals. Because the researcher was unable to meet with study participants in person due to the COVID-19 pandemic, it is possible that this may have contributed to a lower survey return rate. The final sample size (N = 98) provided a return rate of 55%.

Respondents consisted of elementary, middle, and high school principals and assistant principals. In summary, out of 98 participants, 32% identified themselves as building level principals, and 66% identified themselves as building level assistant principals with 1% of participants skipped this question. Additionally, 41% identified themselves as elementary administrators, 25% middle school administrators, and 34% as high school administrators. Of the total participants, 44% identified themselves as male participants, while 56% were female.

Table 5

Participant Demographics Used for Analysis

Characteristic		*n*	%
Gender	Female	54	56.2
	Male	42	43.8
Current Role	Principal	32	32.9
	Assistant Principal	65	67.1
School level	Elementary	40	40.8
	Middle	25	25.5
	High	33	33.7
Single Building	1 year	42	43.3
	2-4 years	39	40.2
	5-9 years	5	5.1
	10-15 years	4	4.1
	More than 15	7	7.3
Total years	1 year	15	15.5
	2-4 years	33	34.0
	5-9 years	13	13.4
	10-15 years	25	25.8
	More than 15	11	11.3

The numbers in Table 5 reflect the administrators who answered demographic questions used in the analysis. It is important to note that not all participants answered all questions. The total participants in the sample numbered 98. Of that sample, the numbers used in final calculations of each characteristic are as follows: gender (N = 96), current role (N = 97), school level (N = 98), years of experience in a single building (N = 97), and total years of experience (N = 97).

Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis testing addressed five research questions. The results of 50 hypothesis tests are reported. For RQ1, results are reported in sequence after a restatement of the research question and its corresponding hypothesis, then a description of the analysis, and finally the reporting of results.

RQ1. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by building level administrator type (principal or assistant principal)?

H1. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as measured by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H1. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two means, $t(89) = 3.640$, $p = .000$, $d = 0.806$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 22.55$, $SD = 2.03$, $n = 31$) was higher than the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 20.58$, $SD = 2.63$, $n = 60$). H1 was supported. A significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant

principals' instructional leadership behaviors as measured by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals. The effect size index indicated a large effect.

H2. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H2. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(84) = 1.867$, $p = .065$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 18.93$, $SD = 3.02$, $n = 28$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 17.50$, $SD = 3.46$, $n = 58$). H2 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals.

H3. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H3. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(79) = 0.829$, $p = .410$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 20.83$, $SD = 1.99$, $n = 24$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 20.39$, $SD = 2.30$, $n = 57$). H3 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

H4. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H4. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent

groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(77) = 1.613$, $p = .111$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 18.04$, $SD = 3.97$, $n = 24$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 16.84$, $SD = 2.57$, $n = 55$). H4 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

H5. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H5. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two means, $t(75) = 2.597$, $p = .011$, $d = 0.64$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 18.38$, $SD = 2.72$, $n = 24$) was higher than the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 16.45$, $SD = 3.13$, $n = 53$). H5 was supported. A significant

difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' leadership behaviors as measured by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress. The effect size index indicated a medium effect.

H6. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H6. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(77) = 0.637$, $p = .526$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 19.54$, $SD = 2.70$, $n = 24$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 19.11$, $SD = 2.81$, $n = 55$). H6 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time.

H7. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H7. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(77) = -0.450$, $p = 0.653$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 17.04$, $SD = 3.74$, $n = 24$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 17.38$, $SD = 2.76$, $n = 55$). H7 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility.

H8. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H8. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(77) = 1.026$, $p = 0.308$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 17.25$, $SD = 3.15$, $n = 24$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 16.38$, $SD = 3.58$, $n = 55$). H8 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

H9. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H9. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented.

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two means, $t(76) = 2.788$, $p = .007$, $d = 0.69$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 21.52$, $SD = 2.37$, $n = 23$) was higher than the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 19.73$, $SD = 2.68$, $n = 55$). H9 was supported. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as measured by the PIMRS

subscale of promoting professional development. The effect size index indicated a medium effect.

H10. A statistically significant difference exists between principals' instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to test H10. The two sample means of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, were compared. An independent-samples *t* test was chosen for the hypothesis testing because the hypothesis test involves the examination of the mean difference between two mutually exclusive independent groups and the means are calculated using data for numerical variables. The level of significance was set at .05. When appropriate, an effect size is presented

The results of the independent-samples *t* test indicated no difference between the two means, $t(74) = 1.293$, $p = 0.200$. The sample mean for principals ($M = 17.82$, $SD = 4.18$, $n = 22$) was not different from the sample mean for assistant principals ($M = 16.48$, $SD = 4.05$, $n = 54$). H10 was not supported. No difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning.

RQ2. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors affected by the gender of the building level principal and assistant principal (male or female) as defined by the PIMRS?

To address RQ2, 10 independent-samples *t* tests were conducted. The results of the 10 *t* tests indicated no significant differences in the instructional leadership behaviors based on gender. Table 6 which presents the hypothesis testing statistics for the tests, is included below. Each of the 10 hypotheses is listed after Table 6 along with a table that presents a summary of the descriptive statistics for that hypothesis test. H11-H20 were not supported.

Table 6

Hypothesis Testing Statistics Table

Hypothesis	*t*	*df*	*p*
H11	0.027	88	0.979
H12	-0.822	83	0.413
H13	-0.090	78	0.928
H14	0.661	76	0.511
H15	0.161	74	0.872
H16	-0.425	76	0.672
H17	0.096	76	0.924
H18	0.943	76	0.349
H19	-1.498	75	0.138
H20	-0.267	73	0.790

H11. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals.

Table 7

Table of Means, Hypothesis 11

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	21.28	2.75	40
Female	21.26	2.53	50

H12. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals.

Table 8

Table of Means, Hypothesis 12

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	17.61	3.47	36
Female	18.22	3.34	49

H13. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

Table 9

Table of Means, Hypothesis 13

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	20.50	2.31	36
Female	20.55	2.18	44

H14. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

Table 10

Table of Means, Hypothesis 14

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	17.47	3.59	34
Female	17.00	2.69	44

H15. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress.

Table 11

Table of Means, Hypothesis 15

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	17.12	3.33	34
Female	17.00	3.02	42

H16. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time.

Table 12

Table of Means, Hypothesis 16

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	19.19	2.14	36
Female	19.45	3.05	42

H17. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility.

Table 13

Table of Means, Hypothesis 17

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	17.31	3.05	36
Female	17.24	3.15	42

H18. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

Table 14

Table of Means, Hypothesis 18

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	17.06	3.79	36
Female	16.31	3.20	42

H19. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development.

Table 15

Table of Means, Hypothesis 19

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	19.72	2.65	36
Female	20.63	2.68	41

H20. A statistically significant difference exists between female administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and male administrators' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning.

Table 16

Table of Means, Hypothesis 20

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Male	16.74	3.51	35
Female	17.00	4.65	40

RQ3. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors affected by the years of experience of the building level administrator at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, More than 15) as defined by the PIMRS?

To address RQ3, 10 ANOVAs were conducted. The results of the 10 ANOVAs indicated no significant differences in instructional leadership behaviors based on years of experience in the building. Table 17, which presents the hypothesis testing statistics

for the tests, is included below. Each of the 10 hypotheses are listed after Table 17 along with a table that presents a summary of the descriptive statistics for that hypothesis test. H21-H30 were not supported.

Table 17

Hypothesis Testing Statistics Table

Hypothesis	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
H21	0.813	2, 88	.447
H22	2.656	2, 83	.076
H23	0.073	2, 78	.930
H24	1.287	2, 76	.282
H25	0.757	2, 74	.473
H26	0.552	2, 76	.578
H27	0.270	2, 76	.764
H28	2.025	2, 76	.139
H29	0.331	2, 75	.719
H30	1.463	2, 73	.238

H21. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 18

Table of Means, Hypothesis 21

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	20.84	2.27	38
2-4 years	21.57	2.78	37
5 + years	21.50	2.92	16

H22. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 19

Table of Means, Hypothesis 22

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.74	3.08	34
2-4 years	17.46	3.70	37
5 + years	19.73	3.08	15

H23. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 20

Table of Means, Hypothesis 23

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	20.53	2.05	32
2-4 years	20.58	2.57	36
5 + years	20.31	1.60	13

H24. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 21

Table of Means, Hypothesis 24

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.87	3.16	30
2-4 years	16.94	3.22	36
5 + years	16.38	2.33	13

H25. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 22

Table of Means, Hypothesis 25

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.10	3.58	31
2-4 years	16.67	2.42	33
5 + years	17.92	3.57	13

H26. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 23

Table of Means, Hypothesis 26

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	19.25	2.88	32
2-4 years	18.97	2.84	34
5 + years	19.92	2.29	13

H27. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 24

Table of Means, Hypothesis 27

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.22	2.86	32
2-4 years	17.12	3.22	34
5 + years	17.85	3.34	13

H28. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 25

Table of Means, Hypothesis 28

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.22	3.64	32
2-4 years	15.76	3.45	34
5 + years	17.54	2.63	13

H29. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 26

Table of Means, Hypothesis 29

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	20.48	3.12	31
2-4 years	19.97	2.28	34
5 + years	20.46	2.82	13

H30. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators with varying years of experience at one building site (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 27

Table of Means, Hypothesis 30

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1 year	17.00	4.26	30
2-4 years	16.18	4.03	34
5 + years	18.50	3.75	12

RQ4. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors affected by the school level of the building level administrator (elementary, middle, high school) as defined by the PIMRS?.

To address RQ4, 10 analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted. The results of the 10 ANOVAs indicated no significant differences in instructional leadership behaviors based on years of experience in the building. Table 28 which presents the hypothesis testing statistics for the tests, is included below. Each of the 10

hypotheses is listed after Table 28 along with a table that presents a summary of the descriptive statistics for that hypothesis test. H31-H40 were not supported.

Table 28

Hypothesis Testing Statistics Table

Hypothesis	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
H31	0.492	2, 88	.613
H32	0.657	2, 83	.521
H33	1.638	2, 78	.201
H34	0.976	2, 76	.382
H35	0.307	2, 74	.736
H36	2.502	2, 76	.089
H37	1.234	2, 76	.297
H38	2.511	2, 76	.088
H39	0.589	2, 75	.558
H40	2.670	2, 73	.076

H31. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 29

Table of Means, Hypothesis 31

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	21.21	2.52	38
Middle	20.86	2.23	22
High school	21.58	2.96	31

H32. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among

administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 30

Table of Means, Hypothesis 32

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	17.68	3.76	37
Middle	17.65	2.62	20
High school	18.55	3.33	29

H33. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 31

Table of Means, Hypothesis 33

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	20.06	2.67	35
Middle	21.16	1.46	19
High school	20.67	1.92	27

H34. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 32

Table of Means, Hypothesis 34

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	17.03	2.75	34
Middle	18.12	3.59	17
High school	16.86	3.16	28

H35. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring student progress, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 33

Table of Means, Hypothesis 35

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	16.73	3.27	33
Middle	17.31	3.46	16
High school	17.29	2.80	28

H36. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 34

Table of Means, Hypothesis 36

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	18.50	2.82	34
Middle	19.41	2.81	17
High school	20.04	2.52	28

H37. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 35

Table of Means, Hypothesis 37

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	16.71	3.34	34
Middle	17.35	3.37	17
High school	17.93	2.43	28

H38. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 36

Table of Means, Hypothesis 38

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	15.68	3.56	34
Middle	17.12	3.67	17
High school	17.54	3.00	28

H39. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 37

Table of Means, Hypothesis 39

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	20.29	2.48	34
Middle	20.81	2.14	16
High school	19.89	3.24	28

H40. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators in buildings at the various school levels (elementary, middle, high school).

Table 38

Table of Means, Hypothesis 40

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
Elementary	15.81	4.61	32
Middle	18.63	3.52	16
High school	17.07	3.52	28

RQ5. To what extent are instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS, affected by the total years of experience as a building level administrator (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15)?

To address RQ5, 10 ANOVAs were conducted. The results of the 10 ANOVAs indicated no significant differences in instructional leadership behaviors based on years of experience in the building. Table 39, which presents the hypothesis testing statistics for the tests, is included below. Each of the 10 hypotheses is listed after Table 39 along

with a table that presents a summary of the descriptive statistics for that hypothesis test. H41-H50 were not supported.

Table 39

Hypothesis Testing Statistics Table

Hypothesis	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
H41	1.157	4, 86	.335
H42	0.790	4, 81	.535
H43	0.679	4, 76	.609
H44	0.442	4, 74	.778
H45	0.413	4, 72	.798
H46	0.811	4, 74	.522
H47	0.975	4, 74	.426
H48	1.018	4, 74	.404
H49	2.330	4, 73	.064
H50	0.226	4, 71	.923

H41. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of framing the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 40

Table of Means, Hypothesis 41

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	20.00	2.52	13
2-4	21.17	2.35	30
5-9	21.23	3.24	13
10-15	21.79	2.67	24
More than 15	21.82	2.27	11

H42. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of communicating the school goals, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 41

Table of Means, Hypothesis 42

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	17.85	3.18	13
2-4	17.30	3.30	30
5-9	17.69	3.90	13
10-15	18.91	3.39	22
More than 15	18.50	3.12	8

H43. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 42

Table of Means, Hypothesis 43

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	19.92	2.84	12
2-4	20.53	2.47	30
5-9	20.42	1.56	12
10-15	21.17	1.72	18
More than 15	20.11	2.09	9

H44. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of coordinating the curriculum, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 43

Table of Means, Hypothesis 44

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	17.08	2.43	12
2-4	17.04	2.44	28
5-9	16.36	2.46	11
10-15	17.68	4.30	19
More than 15	17.89	3.66	9

H45. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of monitoring of student progress, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 44

Table of Means, Hypothesis 45

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	16.08	3.82	12
2-4	17.15	2.73	27
5-9	16.92	2.35	12
10-15	17.56	3.54	18
More than 15	17.25	3.69	8

H46. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of protecting instructional time, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 45

Table of Means, Hypothesis 46

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	17.92	3.82	12
2-4	19.45	2.44	29
5-9	19.58	2.31	12
10-15	19.50	3.00	18
More than 15	19.38	2.13	8

H47. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of maintaining high visibility, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 46

Table of Means, Hypothesis 47

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	16.83	1.53	12
2-4	17.59	2.91	29
5-9	18.42	2.31	12
10-15	16.33	3.43	18
More than 15	17.25	5.01	8

H48. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for teachers, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 47

Table of Means, Hypothesis 48

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	15.17	3.59	12
2-4	16.66	3.47	29
5-9	16.33	3.28	12
10-15	17.72	3.66	18
More than 15	16.88	2.95	8

H49. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of promoting professional development, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 48

Table of Means, Hypothesis 49

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	19.58	3.55	12
2-4	19.55	2.13	29
5-9	20.00	2.63	12
10-15	21.76	2.28	17
More than 15	21.00	3.25	8

H50. A statistical difference exists in instructional leadership behaviors, as defined by the PIMRS subscale of providing incentives for learning, among administrators with varying years of experience in building level administration (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15).

Table 49

Table of Means, Hypothesis 50

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*N*
1	16.45	3.83	11
2-4	16.83	3.42	29
5-9	16.91	3.86	11
10-15	16.59	5.64	17
More than 15	18.13	4.09	8

Additional Analyses

When the data from hypothesis testing was reviewed it became apparent that the mean values for the behavior functions were above 16 on all 10 of the job functions for both principals and assistant principals, indicating responses of frequently and almost always, as they carry out the instructional behaviors. Using the data for all responses, 10

one-sample *t* tests were conducted comparing the mean against a test value of 15 (sometimes). The significance level was set to .05. The results of the 10 one-sample *t* tests indicated a significant difference for each of the 10 function categories on the PIMRS with the mean value in each subscale being above 15 (see Table 50). The responses by principals and assistant principals across the five items in each category were consistently higher than the test value and corresponded to ratings of frequently or almost always.

Table 50

Additional Analyses Testing Statistics Table

Categories	*t*	*df*	*p*	*d*	*M*	*SD*
SG	22.90	90	.000	2.403	21.25	2.60
CC	08.15	85	.000	0.879	17.97	3.37
SI	22.40	80	.000	2.492	20.52	2.21
CorC	06.34	78	.000	0.714	17.20	3.09
MP	05.77	76	.000	0.658	17.05	3.12
IT	13.60	78	.000	1.534	19.24	2.77
MV	06.60	78	.000	0.743	17.28	3.07
PIT	04.22	78	.000	0.476	16.65	3.46
PD	17.10	77	.000	1.944	20.26	2.70
PIS	03.96	75	.000	0.455	16.87	4.11

Note: SG = School Goals; CC = Communicate Goals; SI = Supervise Instruction; CorC = Coordinate Curriculum; MP = Monitor Progress; IT = Instructional Time; MV = Maintain Visibility; PIT = Provide Incentives for Teachers; PD = Professional Development; PIS = Provide Incentives for Students.

Summary

In this chapter, the demographic analysis described the responses from the administrators who completed the 50 item PIMRS, and the five demographic questions

describing their level of administrator type (principal or assistant principal), gender (male or female), years of experience as an administrator in the large urban school district (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15), level of administration (elementary, middle, high), and years of experience in the same building (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). The results of the independent-samples *t* tests and ANOVA's that were used were explained. Additional analyses were also reported in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 includes the interpretation and recommendations regarding these findings, connections to literature, implications for action, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

Chapter 5

Interpretation and Recommendations

The purpose of the current research study was to determine the extent to which different factors affected instructional leadership behaviors at the building level. The previous chapter reported the results of the hypothesis testing. Chapter 5 provides a summary of Chapters 1-4 of the study, including an overview of the problem, purpose statement, research questions, review of methodology, and major findings. The conclusion section includes implications for action, and recommendations for further research. Finally concluding remarks are presented.

Study Summary

School building administrators today are asked to constantly do more, and to be instructional leaders for their buildings. While the term instructional leadership is a term that was introduced in the 1970s, the definition has remained somewhat uncertain for decades (Neumerski, 2013; Thompson, 2013). The factors that contribute to instructional leadership can be extensive and time consuming. While the traditional roles of a principal as manager, budgeter, supervisor, and disciplinarian have not vanished (Searby et al., 2017), the role of the principal as an instructional leader perhaps has shifted, placing more emphasis from principals being managers to being instructional or academic leaders (Du Plessis, 2013). This is an area of professionalism that continually needs evaluation. This study was designed to identify the behavior traits, or factors, that have the most impact on instructional leadership at the building level, as well as the mission, vision, and culture of a school as set partly by the building principal and assistant principal(s). This section provides an overview of the problem,

the purpose statement and research questions, a review of the methodology, and the major findings of the study. The final sections of this chapter offer conclusions, implication for further research, and final remarks.

Overview of the problem. Instructional leadership is a term that was introduced in the 1970s, but the definition has remained somewhat uncertain for decades (Neumerski, 2013; Thompson, 2013). Most early attempts to define instructional leadership focused on elementary schools and lacked direction for secondary schools in particular. Since 1970, principals and assistant principals have been challenged to become instructional leaders for their schools requiring them to focus more on learning and teaching rather than managing school operations. The importance of school leadership has not diminished. Leithwood et al. (2004) concluded that among factors that are associated with school leadership, and student achievement, leadership is second only to classroom instruction. Unfortunately, actions associated with instructional leadership are often times vague, and the ways in which expectations are played out in practice vary significantly across districts as well as individual schools (Neumerski et al., 2018). As districts across the nation are looking to align their practices with instructional leadership behaviors from their building level administrators, a more detailed plan needs to be constructed for principals and assistant principals so that classroom instruction can be optimized.

Purpose statement and research questions. The purpose of this research was fivefold. The purpose of this study was to analyze variables that could affect the instructional leadership behaviors of building-level administrators in the chosen large urban school district. The first purpose was to investigate if the building administrators'

roles (assistant principal or principal) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The second purpose was to investigate if the administrators' genders (male or female) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The third purpose was to investigate if the administrators' experience at one building location (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The fourth purpose was to investigate if the administrators' levels of administration (elementary, middle, high) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors. The fifth purpose was to investigate if the administrators' total years of experience (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15) contributed to a difference in instructional leadership behaviors.

Review of the methodology. A quantitative research design study was conducted. Building level principals and assistant principals were administered the PIMRS to determine the extent that each individual exhibited specific instructional leadership behaviors. The dependent variables were the self reported behaviors of instructional leadership derived from administrators answers on the PIMRS. Independent variables for this study included level of administrator type (principal or assistant principal), gender (male or female), years of experience as an administrator in a large urban school district (1 year, 2-4 years, 5+ years), level of administration (elementary, middle, high), and years of experience in the same building (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). Independent-samples *t* tests identified the difference between level of building level administration (principal and assistant principal), and the gender of the building level administrator (male or female). One-factor ANOVAs were conducted to address differences in total years of administrative experience in a large urban school

district (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15), the principal's level of administration (elementary, middle, high school), and the principals total years of experience at the same building (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). Additional analysis was done comparing the mean against a test value of 15. The significance level was set to .05.

Major findings. The results of the study indicated there were differences between principals and assistant principals related to instructional leadership behaviors. The results of the test for differences on administrator type (principal or assistant principal) revealed that principals exhibit instructional leadership behaviors defined by the PIMRS more than assistant principals. Specifically, the results revealed that principals exhibit instructional leadership behaviors defined by the PIMRS more than assistant principals in both instructional leadership behaviors of framing the school goals, as well as monitoring student progress. The remaining results revealed that there were no significant differences in instructional leadership behaviors based on gender (male or female), years of experience (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15), level of administration (elementary, middle, high) and years of experience while at the same building (1, 2-4, 5-9, 10-15, more than 15). Additionally, when data was reviewed it became apparent that the mean values for the behavior functions were above 16 on all 10 of the job functions of both principals and assistant principals.

Findings Related to the Literature

Administrator type. The results of the hypothesis testing for the current research study indicated that there are differences in instructional leadership behaviors shown between principals and assistant principals at the building level. The results indicated that building principals spend a larger amount of time in instructional leadership tasks

based around goal setting, while assistant principals spend more time on managerial tasks. These findings coincide with Du Plessis (2013) in that the role of the principal as an instructional leader perhaps has shifted placing more emphasis from principals being administrators, to being instructional or academic leaders within their buildings. Assistant principals in turn, are often required to enforce the rules of the school, ensure students safety, mediate conflicts, and patrol the halls (Kaplan & Owings, 1999).

Gender. Hypothesis testing for the current research study included tests for differences in the effects of administrator gender on instructional leadership behaviors. The results indicate that no significant differences occurred based on gender. While the teaching profession has been largely dominated by females, this research coincides with Tallerico et al. (1994) in that females can transform leadership in educational institutions. While females have been stuck in the familial, or supportive roles and have been provided little power (Austin, 2009), it is important to note that females are emerging into principal and assistant principal roles and truly making an impact in instructional leadership practices. The findings of the current research study indicate no significant difference occurs based on school level (elementary, middle, or high school).

Total Years of Administrative Experience. Hypothesis testing for the current research study included tests for differences based on the effects of administrator total years of experience in administration instructional leadership behaviors. The results indicate no significant differences occurred based on total years of experience. Research that addressed administrative experience could not be found, and does not offer much correlation with this finding. More research is needed to compare total years of experience of administrators with frequency of instructional leadership behaviors.

Level of administration. Hypotheses testing for the current research study included tests for differences in the effects of administrator level on instructional leadership behaviors. The results indicate that no significant differences exist based on level of administration. These finding do not support research conducted by Wildy and Dimmock (1993) when it was stated that principals were perceived to be least involved in managing the curriculum and evaluating and providing feedback. Primary school principals were perceived to be more responsible for instructional leadership than their secondary counterparts.

Years of experience in one building. Hypothesis testing for the current research study included tests for differences based on effects of administrator years of experience in a single building on administration instructional leadership behaviors. The results indicate that no significant differences occurred in instructional leadership behaviors based on the years of experience in one building. The large urban school district where this research took place moves building level administrators at the end of every academic school year. More research is required to fully understand the impacts that moving building level administration has on instructional leadership behaviors.

Additional analyses. The results of the 10 independent-samples *t* tests indicated a significant difference for each of the 10 function categories on the PIMRS, with the mean value in each subscale being above 15. These values demonstrated by building level principals and assistant principals indicate that these behaviors corresponded with rating of frequently or almost always. More research is required to fully understand the impacts building level administration have on all job functions.

Conclusions

The following section includes final comments regarding the current study on instructional leadership behaviors of building level administrators. Implications for action regarding the significant results of the study are given. In addition, suggestions for future research are explored. Concluding remarks complete the section.

Implications for action. While instructional leadership appears to be a heavily researched topic, not much is known about the why, when and how principals guide teachers' work in the classroom (Zepeda, 2014). With the enactment of the NCLB Act, high stakes and accountability were places on schools and their leaders for high-level achievement. Furthermore, principals and assistant principals, have been charged with identifying specific behaviors that promote growth in students and their learning (Flath, 1989). The current research study's contributions regarding instructional leadership behaviors may provide districts with important information to carry forward into professional development, or educational program requirements.

According to Du Plessis (2013), the leadership role of a school principal has shifted over the years to placing more emphasis from being administrators, to becoming instructional or academic leaders. With principals in the past being viewed in more positions, it has been difficult to adapt. Furthermore, assistant principals have long been thought to be the managers of the school, focusing much of their time on managerial tasks such as student safety and student discipline (Kaplan & Owings, 1999). However, more current research (Du Plessis, 2013) has shown that the most prominent duties of assistant principals include student management and instructional leadership. This shift into instructional leadership should be further developed.

The results of the current research study indicate there are differences in instructional leadership behaviors between principals and assistant principals. Specifically there are statistically significant differences in principals and assistant principals when it pertains to framing the school goals, and monitoring student progress. Most of the above listed behavior traits presented data to show that principals have a consistently higher average in the showing of these instructional leadership behaviors. District level administration must be aware of these differences, as well as promote professional development training to reduce the variance in these leadership behaviors. The awareness of these differences in behaviors may assist in the planning and execution of professional learning opportunities, as well as development of programs, strategic plans, and personnel assignments. The hope of this study was to prompt district level awareness into the effective practices of instructional leadership, as well as further helps individual districts define instructional leadership behaviors within their specific systems. More specific research may be warranted based on the size and location of the school district.

Recommendations for future research. While this study was designed to identify findings regarding instructional leadership practices and behaviors for administrators, it is important to highlight this study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic. During this time, schools across the nation were forced to provide instruction online or were shut down completely. Data that was collected was collected electronically. During this unprecedented time, it is important to see how instructional leadership behaviors were forced to change or adapt to the current model of instruction delivery. This in turn, could alter instructional leadership behaviors either temporarily,

or permanently. A replication of this study, during face-to-face instruction with students is recommended to compare results and findings. Further research studying supervisors of building level administrators is also recommended to study if their leadership styles impact building level administrators, and ultimately studying if that leadership style has an immediate impact on student learning. In addition, more studies utilizing the PIMRS are recommended to take place in large urban school districts to further compare results or findings. Specifically, more research is suggested that compares building administrators perceptions with teacher perceptions utilizing the PIMRS.

Concluding remarks. The findings of this current research study are worth consideration for districts to aid in program preparation, district and building leadership programs, and future leader development programs to insure professional readiness as instructional leaders. Whether during a normal school year, or while educators are experiencing a pandemic, education will continue to adapt and change. Teachers and students need leaders who care about them no matter the circumstances. Students deserve instructional leaders who are always progressing.

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Appendices

Appendix A: PIMRS

Welcome!

As a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at Baker University, I am conducting research on Principal Instructional Leadership. Your participation is a valuable part of my research study which is for academic purposes only. Your participation is important not only to the body of research, but also to the Wichita Public Schools.

Please know that your participation is voluntary, anonymous, and data will be kept confidential. If any question makes you feel uncomfortable, participants can feel free to not answer that question without penalty. Participants can stop the survey at any time by exiting the survey. This survey contains 55 total questions. Participation in this survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please contact me. Overall results of the study will be made available upon request. Thank you again for your valuable time.

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PART I: Please provide the following information

1. What is your current role in administration?

- Principal
- Assistant Principal

2. What is your current level of administration?

- Elementary
- Middle
- High School

3. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

4. How many school years have you been employed in an administrative position at your current school building?

- 1
- 2-4
- 5-9
- 10-15
- More than 15

5. How many school years have you been employed in an administrative position in the Wichita Public Schools?

- 1
- 2-4
- 5-9
- 10-15
- More than 15

PART II:

This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of your leadership. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principal job practices and behaviors.

You are asked to consider each question in terms of your leadership over the past school year. Read each statement carefully. Then select the answer that best fits the specific job behavior or practice as you conducted it during the past school year.

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgement in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Assuming none of these items make you feel uncomfortable, try to answer every question.

Thank you.

FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS

6. To what extent do you develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

7. To what extent do you frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

8. To what extent do you use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

9. To what extent do you use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

10. To what extent do you develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS

11. To what extent do you communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

12. To what extent do you discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

13. To what extent do you refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

14. To what extent do you ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

15. To what extent do you refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

SUPERVISE AND EVALUATE INSTRUCTION

16. To what extent do you ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

17. To what extent do you review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

18. To what extent do you conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

19. To what extent do you point out specific *strengths* in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluation)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

20. To what extent do you point out specific *weaknesses* in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written feedback)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM

21. To what extent do you make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, assistant principal, or teacher-leaders)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

22. To what extent do you draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

23. To what extent do you monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

24. To what extent do you assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

25. To what extent do you participate actively in the review of curricular materials?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS

26. To what extent do you meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

27. To what extent do you discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

28. To what extent do you use test results and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

29. To what extent do you inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

30. To what extent do you inform students of the school's academic performance?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

31. To what extent do you limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

32. To what extent do you ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

33. To what extent do you ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

34. To what extent do you encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

35. To what extent do you limit the intrusion of extra-and co-curricular activities on instructional time?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY

36. To what extent do you take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

37. To what extent do you visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

38. To what extent do you attend / participate in extra- and co-curricular activities?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

39. To what extent do you cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

40. To what extent do you tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS

41. To what extent do you reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

42. To what extent do you complement teachers privately for their efforts or performance?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

43. To what extent do you acknowledge teacher's exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

44. To what extent do you reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

45. To what extent do you create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

46. To what extent do you ensure that inservice activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

47. To what extent do you actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during inservice training?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

48. To what extent do you obtain the participation of the whole staff in important inservice activities?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

49. To what extent do you lead or attend teacher inservice activities concerned with instruction?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

50. To what extent do you set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from inservice activities?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR STUDENT LEARNING

51. To what extent do you recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principals newsletter?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

52. To what extent do you use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

53. To what extent do you recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

54. To what extent do you contact parents to communicate improve or exemplary student performance or contributions?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

55. To what extent do you support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of students contributions to and accomplishments in class?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always
○	○	○	○	○

Appendix B: Permission from Hallinger

Philip Hallinger <hallinger@gmail.com>
to me

Wed, Jul 15, 2020, 8:16 PM

Dear Brian Hutton

You have my permission to use the PIMRS in your research. You now are able to access various PIMRS resources on my website at http://philiphallinger.com/tool/survey/pimrs/a/researcherLogin-2.html.

Please enter the following requested information during 2019:

- Research User ID: **PIMRS**
- Your Password: [redacted]
- Name: Your **FirstName LastName**
- Email: Your **email address**
- Click the *Submit button*

The webpage contains a variety of resources including:

1. Forms of the English language PIMRS for your copying and adaptation
2. Translated versions of the PIMRS for Malay, Chinese, Arabic, Thai, Persian, Amharic, Portuguese, Spanish, Turkish, Vietnamese
3. Support resources including the Technical Report (new), User Manual (old)
4. PIMRS related articles and book chapters
5. Other instructional leadership articles
6. List and zipped PDF files of 400 PIMRS Studies

For full and up-to-date information on the PIMRS and its use as a research and evaluation tool, please my latest book, Assessing Principal Instructional Leadership with the PIMRS. The book contains useful information for researchers on the scale including its development, use, validity and reliability. The book also details how to use the short form and plan research with the instrument. For more info, go to: http://www.springer.com/cn/book/9783319155326. Individual chapters may also be purchased.

Please keep in mind the conditions of your purchase including sending me: 1) a copy of the translated PIMRS (if applicable), 2) a copy of your RAW DATASET, and 3) a pdf copy of your completed study.

Please also note that the user is required to include ALL questions including demographic questions (i.e., gender, years of experience, school level) included in the PIMRS unless otherwise waived by the publisher.

If you need any assistance, please contact me directly.

Best of luck.

Dr. Philip Hallinger
TSDF Chair Professor of Leadership
College of Management, Mahidol University
Thailand: +668 1881 1667
Distinguished Visiting Professor
University of Johannesburg, South Africa
www.philiphallinger.com
www.researchgate.net/profile/Philip_Hallinger/contributions

"Teachers live on and on through the lives of their students.
Good teaching is forever and the teacher is immortal."
Jesse Stuart, 1937, *The Thread That Runs So True*

Appendix C: Permission from School District

[redacted]

September 30, 2020

To: Brian Hutton
2932 N. Pepper Ridge Ct
Wichita, KS 67205

Re: Dissertation Proposal

Dear Brian Hutton,

This letter is in response to your recent request regarding your research titled: Factors that Influence the Instructional Leadership of Elementary and Secondary Administrators, in the [redacted] The Research Council has approved your request as presented in the proposal. Please ensure district staff understand their participation is optional.

As you proceed with your study, please note that this letter approves the research project as described above, and that it is incumbent upon the researcher(s) to negotiate distribution. The project also must not unduly increase the workload of any employee of the [redacted] staff has the right to discontinue participation at any time. If for any reason it becomes necessary to modify what was originally presented in your proposal, the Research Council must be so informed and approve any changes in advance.

Please submit copies of any reports related to this research to the Office of Assessment and Research and if applicable, be made available to the participating school(s) as well.

On behalf of the [redacted] Research Council,

[redacted]

Appendix D: Baker IRB approval

Baker University Institutional Review Board

October 1st, 2020

Dear Brian Hutton and Justin Hawpe,

The Baker University IRB has reviewed your project application and approved this project under Expedited Status Review. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by the University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

Please be aware of the following:

1. Any significant change in the research protocol as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
2. Notify the IRB about any new investigators not named in original application.
3. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents of the research activity.
4. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.
5. If the results of the research are used to prepare papers for publication or oral presentation at professional conferences, manuscripts or abstracts are requested for IRB as part of the project record.
6. If this project is not completed within a year, you must renew IRB approval.

If you have any questions, please contact me at npoell@bakeru.edu or 785.594.4582.

Sincerely,

Nathan Poell, MLS
Chair, Baker University IRB

Baker University IRB Committee
Sara Crump, PhD
Nick Harris
Christa Manson, PhD
Susan Rogers, PhD