

**Principal and Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and
Organizational Health in Secondary Schools**

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Abstract

The first purpose of this study was to measure instructional leadership behaviors of secondary school principals as perceived by both principals and teachers. The second purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perception of their instructional leadership behaviors and the teachers' perception of the principals' instructional leadership behavior. A third purpose was to measure organizational health of the school as perceived by principals and teachers. A fourth purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in principals' perception of the organizational health of the school and the teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school. A fifth purpose was to examine the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. The sixth purpose was to examine the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. This quantitative study utilized purposive sampling of secondary schools of the Park Hill School District. The population included all secondary principals and teachers (grades 6-12) employed in April 2011. The first variables in this study were principal and teacher perception of the principal's instructional leadership as measured by the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale*. The second variables were principal and teacher perception of the organizational health of the school as measured by the *Organizational Health Inventory- Secondary*. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated statistically significant relationships between principal and teacher perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated statistically significant relationships between principal and teacher perceptions of the organizational

health of the school. One implication for action based on results from this study could have strong implications for educators and policy makers eager to implement and sustain school improvement and accountability efforts. Assessing perceptions of all stakeholders—students, teachers, and administrations—should be an aspect of every school improvement plan.

Dedication

This paper is dedicated to special members of my family. Thank you to my mother Phyllis, my nieces Madison and Meghan, my nephew Braden, and in memory of my brother Jeff. The unconditional support that I received has made this dissertation trek possible to complete.

Mom, I don't think you ever get enough credit for the absolute encouragement you provide me just by being who you are every day. I hope my completion of this journey will serve as a small payback to you for always supporting me. Madison, Braden, and Meghan, you always have been an enormous source of entertainment to me. I hope my completion of this journey will help you to appreciate education and inspire you to learn something new every day. Jeff, it's been 22 years since you left us at too young an age. I still think of you and miss you every day. I hope my completion of this journey would have made you proud.

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Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Dedication	iv
Acknowledgements	v
Table of Contents	vi
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
Chapter One: Introduction	1
Background of the Study	3
Instructional Leadership.....	3
Organizational Health	5
Park Hill School District.....	7
Statement of Problem.....	12
Purpose of Study.....	14
Significance of Study	14
Delimitations.....	15
Assumptions.....	15
Research Questions.....	15
Definition of Terms.....	16
Overview of the Methods	19
Summary	20
Chapter Two: Review of the Literature	21
Instructional Leadership.....	22

Hallinger and Instructional Leadership.....	30
School Leadership Related to Organizational Health.....	33
Hoy and Organizational Health and Climate	42
Leadership and Organizational Health Effects on Student Achievement..	48
Summary	55
Chapter Three: Methods	56
Research Design.....	56
Population and Sample	57
Sampling Procedures	57
Instrumentation	57
Measurement.....	60
Validity and Reliability.....	61
Data Collection Procedures.....	63
Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing	65
Limitations	72
Summary	72
Chapter Four: Results	74
Descriptive Statistics.....	74
Hypothesis Testing.....	80
Summary	93
Chapter Five: Interpretation and Recommendations	95
Study Summary.....	95
Overview of the Problem.....	95

Purpose Statement and Research Questions	97
Review of the Methodology.....	97
Major Findings.....	98
Findings Related to the Literature.....	100
Conclusions.....	104
Implications for Action	104
Recommendations for Future Research	106
Concluding Remarks.....	107
References.....	108
Appendix(ces).....	117
Appendix A. <i>PIMRS</i>	118
Appendix B. <i>OHI-S</i>	121
Appendix C. Permission to Use <i>PIMRS</i>	123
Appendix D. Park Hill School District Approval	125
Appendix E. Baker University IRB Approval	127
Appendix F. Cover Letter to Principals	129
Appendix G. Face-to Face Explanation to Faculty	131
Appendix H. Email Explanation to Faculty	133
Appendix I. Permission to Publish <i>PIMRS</i>	135

List of Tables

Table 1. Dimensions of instructional management.....	5
Table 2. Ethnicity enrollment percentage 2002-2012.....	8
Table 3. Staffing ratios: Students to classroom teachers 2009-2013	9
Table 4. Staffing ratios: Students to administrators 2009-2013	10
Table 5. Average years of experience of professional staff 2009-2013	11
Table 6. Percent of professional staff with advanced degrees 2009-2013.....	12
Table 7. <i>PIMRS</i> Subscales and Item Classification	60
Table 8. <i>OHI-S</i> Dimensions Item Classification.....	61
Table 9. Principals' perceptions of their own instructional leadership.....	75
Table 10. Teachers' perceptions of the principal's instructional leadership	76
Table 11. Principals' perceptions of organizational health.....	78
Table 12. Teachers' perceptions of organizational health	79
Table 13. Different correlations between principals' and teachers' perceptions...	93
Table 14. Similar correlations between principals' and teachers' perceptions.....	93

List of Figures

Figure 1. Hallinger's mediated effects research framework.....	7
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Chapter One

Introduction and Rationale

In 2010, the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) unveiled *Top 10 by 20*, a significant school improvement and accountability initiative. This initiative was designed as a state level, grass-roots proposal to replace the controversial federal mandates in the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)*. The goal of *Top 10 by 20* has been for Missouri to be ranked among the top 10 states for student achievement by 2020 (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [DESE], 2014b, p. 2). In order to meet this goal, DESE implemented the *Missouri School Improvement Program*, with the fifth version (*MSIP 5*) unveiled in 2013. *MSIP 5* included student performance and district accountability standards for each district to measure progress toward the state goal by 2020. Each district received an Annual Performance Report (APR) from DESE that clearly outlined student achievement rates as measured by standardized test scores (MO DESE, 2014b, p. 2). This state mandated emphasis on student achievement data has placed significant attention on the instructional leadership skills of principals.

According to Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004), research has shown that principal leadership is second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors that influence student outcomes. Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) agreed, stating, “If we consider the traditions and beliefs surrounding leadership, we can easily make a case that leadership is vital to the effectiveness of the school” (p. 4). Between 2010 and 2015, proficient instructional leadership quickly became the most critical aspect of a principal’s job.

The notion of organizational health is similar to that of school climate. Hoy (2010) defined a healthy school as a school where the institutional, administrative, and teacher levels are in harmony and worked effectively together. Wagner's (2000) research indicated a correlation between principal behaviors and the organizational health of a school. Wagner (2000) noted, "No administrator, teacher, or student will be able to maximize their potential if the culture of the learning community is toxic no matter what 'improvement initiative' is implemented" (p. 2). Stover emphasized the importance of the role of the principal in creating a healthy school. He stated, "In the final analysis, any serious look at school climate and culture should lead policy makers to a simple conclusion—almost everything depends upon leadership" (Stover, 2005, p. 32). Stover added that programs and interventions are useless and attitudes and behaviors will not change unless the principal understands how to help an existing healthy culture evolve into a healthier one.

The updated Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards have provided high-level guidance and insights about the traits, functions of work, and responsibilities expected of school and district leaders (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2008, p. 5). The ISLLC standards cover all aspects of a principal's job description including roles as a visionary leader, instructional leader, and building manager; as a leader in inclusion, diversity, and ethics; and as a community leader. ISLLC Standard 2 addresses the principal's role as an instructional leader. Standard 2 states, "An education leader promotes the success of every student by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (NBPEA, 2008, p. 14).

Modern school leaders who have adhered to the guidelines set forth by the ISLLC standards have been expected to cultivate positive organizational health to promote high achievement for students and staff.

Background of the Study

President Barack Obama advocated, “Our goal must be to have a great teacher in every classroom and a great principal in every school,” (U.S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 1). Marzano et al. (2005) stated their conviction that at no time in memory has the need for effective and inspired leadership been more vital than it was in modern schools. According to *A Blueprint for Reform*, “Every child in America deserves a world-class education... This effort requires the skills and talents of many, but especially our nation’s teachers, principals, and other school leaders” (U.S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 1). Missouri’s *Top 10 by 20* initiative included two strategic goals aimed at secondary schools. The first secondary-focused goal is that all Missouri students will graduate “college and career ready”. The second secondary-focused goal is that Missouri will “prepare, develop, and support effective educators” (MO DESE, 2014b, p. 2). The importance of instructional leadership and organizational health has remained paramount in the high achievement of students.

Instructional Leadership. Due to the increased accountability required by *NCLB* and later *MSIP 5*, the importance of instructional leadership gained attention with increased political scrutiny of schools. Defining instructional leadership was a difficult task, but researchers have attempted to outline behaviors and actions encompassed by the term. 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 student learning (p. 19).

In 1985, Hallinger and Murphy developed *the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* in an effort to measure dimensions of principal leadership (Appendix A). In 2008, Hallinger stated that over time, instructional leadership has become the preferred term over instructional management. Hallinger acknowledged, “This is due to the recognition that principals who operate as leaders rely more on expertise and influence than on formal authority and power to achieve a positive impact on staff motivation and student learning” (Hallinger, 2011, p. 275). However, for the purposes of this research paper, instructional management and instructional leadership are synonymous terms.

The *PIMRS* assesses three dimensions of instructional management: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221). Table 1 below illustrates the dimensions of instructional management as defined by the *PIMRS*. These dimensions cover the vital instructional leadership tasks of goal setting, supervision, evaluation, and monitoring of instruction and student progress, high academic standards, and professional development for staff.

Table 1

Dimensions of Instructional Management

Defines the Mission	Manages Instructional Program	Promotes School 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.

Increased accountability required by *MSIP 5* has validated the study of instructional leadership in secondary schools. Instructional leadership was often considered a significant aspect of school climate, culture, and organizational health. Student achievement must also be viewed through the lens of organizational health.

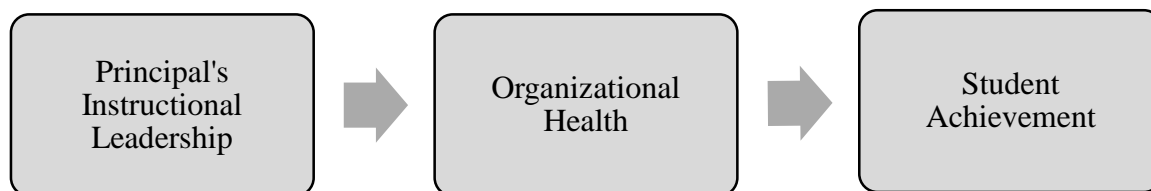
Organizational Health. The importance of organizational health in achievement warranted further analysis. According to Hoy and Tarter (2006), to most individuals, the term “leadership” is a positive assessment of an individual or group and is often a key to success in a number of areas, including organizational health. Miles (1965) established one of the first definitions of a healthy organization as one that not only survives but continues to cope with challenges and prosper over the long haul while avoiding persistent ineffectiveness. Ineffective measurement of organizational health and leadership in schools prompted Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) to create *The Organizational Health Inventory for Secondary Schools (OHI-S)* (Appendix B).

The *OHI-S* features seven dimensions or subtests of organizational health: institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, morale, and academic influence. These seven subtests measure crucial aspects of an organization's health (Hoy, et al., 1991, p. 62). Institutional integrity refers to a school's ability to respond to negative community and parental demands. Principal influence is exhibited when the principal works effectively with superiors while displaying independence in other situations. A principal who looks out for the wellbeing of faculty members and is open to their suggestions demonstrates consideration. Principals demonstrate initiating structure through task-oriented and achievement-oriented behaviors, attitudes, and make expectations clear to the faculty (Hoy et al., 1991, p. 62). Resource support refers to a school where adequate and extra materials are easily obtained. On the teacher level, morale is the sense of trust, confidence, enthusiasm, friendliness, and sense of accomplishment among staff. Academic emphasis is revealed in schools where teachers and students press for the achievement of high but reasonable goals (Hoy et al., 1991, p. 62). A more detailed look at the indicators and benchmarks measured by the *OHI-S* is included in chapter three.

Figure 1 shows Hallinger's mediated effects research framework. Hallinger (2008) describes mediated effects studies as research that seeks to understand the methods through which instructional leadership influences school outcomes. The model illustrates the influence of the relationship between principal's instructional leadership on student achievement by means of positive organizational health.

Figure 1

Hallinger's mediated effects research framework



Note: Adapted from: "*Methodologies for studying school leadership: A review of 25 years of research using the PIMRS*," by P. Hallinger, 2008, p. 17. Copyright 2008 by the American Education Research Association.

Park Hill School District. The Park Hill School District (PHSD) is located in southern Platte County, MO. It covers 68 square miles including parts of eight different municipalities—Kansas City, MO, Houston Lake, Lake Waukomis, Parkville, Platte Woods, Northmoor, Riverside, and Weatherby Lake. The district is 10 minutes north of downtown Kansas City, near Kansas City International Airport. The Missouri River forms the western and southern boundaries of the district. (Park Hill School District [PHSD], 2013b, p.6-7).

The district operates two high schools, three middle schools, nine elementary schools, a K-12 day school, and an early childhood center. The 2012-13 student enrollment was 10,504, the highest total in history (PHSD, 2013b, p. 19). Park Hill employed 756 full-time teachers, 73 of whom obtained National Board Certification. In accordance with the goals of *No Child Left Behind*, 100% percent of Park Hill classes were taught by highly qualified teachers (DESE, 2014b).

Achievement of diverse subgroups plays a role in a school's achievement of *NCLB* and *MSIP 5* standards. Table 2 presents information on the ethnicity of the PHSD student population. PHSD has undergone demographic shifts since 2002. The entire

minority population percentage has more than doubled, while the white student enrollment has dropped by 12.7 percent.

Table 2

Ethnicity Enrollment Percentage 2002-2012

Ethnicity	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012
Native American	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.5
Asian	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.5	3.3
Hispanic	4.4	4.9	6.0	6.6	8.8
African American	7.6	9.0	10.0	11.3	10.7
White	84.4	82.0	79.2	76.9	71.7

Note. Adapted from *Demographic Profile*, by Park Hill School District, 2013b, p. 31.

Staffing demographics of the Park Hill School District illustrate a commitment to providing a high quality professional staff for PHSD stakeholders. Table 3 illustrates the staffing ratios of the PHSD as compared to the State of Missouri. The staffing ratio is defined as the September enrollment divided by the number of teachers or administrators (MO DESE, 2014b). DESE defines students to classroom teachers as the ratio of students in grades K-12 to regular classroom teachers excluding special education, remedial reading, Title I and vocational teachers. The table shows, at five secondary schools, the ratio of Park Hill students to classroom teachers was slightly higher than the state average for the last five years. In 2011-12, according to the National Education Association (NEA), the national ratio of students to classroom teacher was 16:1 (NEA, 2012, p. 17). Schanzenbach (2014) stated, “Class size is an important determinant of

student outcomes. All else being equal, increasing class size will harm student outcomes” (p. 10).

Table 3

Staffing Ratios: Students to Classroom Teachers 2009-2013

Location	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
State of Missouri	17	17	18	18	18
Park Hill School District	19	18	18	18	17
Congress Middle	19	18	19	16	16
Lakeview Middle	18	17	17	15	15
Plaza Middle	20	19	18	18	17
Park Hill High	20	20	20	19	19
Park Hill South High	20	20	20	19	19

Note. Adapted from *Comprehensive Data System* by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2014a.

Table 4 illustrates the students to administrator ratio of the PHSD as compared to the State of MO. Students to administrators is the ratio of students in grades K-12 to central office and building-level administrators. Table 4 shows, at the secondary level, the ratio of Park Hill students to administrators is considerably higher than the state average for the last five years. Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) found that the general impact of instructional leadership significantly correlates with student achievement (p. 3).

Table 4

Staffing Ratios: Students to Administrators 2009-2013

Location	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
State of Missouri	186	189	195	195	195
Park Hill School District	260	236	232	234	227
Congress Middle	329	325	340	346	291
Lakeview Middle	298	308	296	294	306
Plaza Middle	314	304	312	310	323
Park Hill High	330	337	337	351	343
Park Hill South High	311	304	311	310	310

Note. Adapted from *Missouri's Comprehensive Data System* by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2014a.

Teacher experience plays a significant role in creating quality schools and high student achievement. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF) declared, "With each year of experience, teachers improve their proficiency and effectiveness" (NCTAF, 2010, p. 12). Table 5 illustrates the average years of professional experience of PHSD professional staff as compared to the State of MO. Years of experience of professional staff is defined by DESE as the average years of public school experience for all members of the district's professional staff. Table 5 shows the average years of experience of Park Hill secondary teachers is at or near the state average, while Congress Middle's experience average dropped more than two years between 2009 and 2013.

Table 5

Average Years of Experience of Professional Staff 2009-2013

Location	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
State of Missouri	12.2	12.4	12.6	12.5	12.4
Park Hill School District	11.8	12.5	12.9	12.9	12.3
Congress Middle	10.8	10.3	10.6	9.4	8.6
Lakeview Middle	12.5	12.4	13.7	14.8	13.3
Plaza Middle	10.8	11.8	11.9	12.3	12.2
Park Hill High	12.1	12.7	13.1	13.5	13.1
Park Hill South High	13.1	14.1	14.5	14.3	14.3

Note. Adapted from *Missouri's Comprehensive Data System* by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2014a.

Table 6 demonstrates the percentage of professional staff with advanced degrees for both the PHSD and the State of MO. Professional staff with advanced degrees is defined as the percentage of the professional staff whose highest degree is a master's degree or above. Table 6 shows that at the secondary level the percentage of Park Hill teachers with advanced degrees is considerably higher than the state average for the years between 2010 and 2013, while Lakeview Middle's percentage dropped over eight percent. Promoting professional development and lifelong learning is a dimension of the *PIMRS*.

Table 6

Percent of Professional Staff with Advanced Degrees 2009-2013

Location	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
State of Missouri	53.5	56.0	57.7	58.8	59.1
Park Hill School District	77.6	81.1	82.9	84.2	82.2
Congress Middle	82.1	85.7	85.8	84.2	79.8
Lakeview Middle	87.0	82.7	82.6	85.4	78.3
Plaza Middle	71.8	75.6	74.2	75.9	75.6
Park Hill High	78.5	81.2	84.0	88.2	84.8
Park Hill South High	77.0	80.2	84.0	83.8	87.7

Note. Adapted from *Missouri's Comprehensive Data System* by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2014a.

The five secondary schools of the Park Hill School District form the sample for this study. Tables presented the PHSD's ethnic population, student to staff ratios, years of professional experience, and advanced degrees. This information provides thorough background information to illustrate the demographic characteristics of the sample.

Statement of the Problem

A comprehensive study of instructional leadership and organizational health is essential for all schools as they strive to improve achievement. As higher performance and accreditation standards of *MSIP 5* take effect, a thorough study of the relationship between instructional leadership and organizational health is crucial for schools as they strive to meet Missouri's *Top 10 by 20* performance goals. Education policymakers are inclined to believe that principal leadership is critical to the achievement of students

(Murphy, as cited in Hallinger & Heck, 1996, p. 5). Research over the last 35 years provides strong evidence on specific leadership behaviors of principals and how these behaviors have well-documented effects on student achievement (Marzano, et al., 2005, p. 7). Similarly, culture and health play a significant role in achievement. Wagner and Madsen-Copas (2002) stated that school culture and building health is the support structure from previous results to future achievement. These authors added a belief that getting a culture and health “right” should always precede "programs" in efforts to raise student achievement.

As early as 1963, Halpin & Croft postulated that the personality of the school is largely dependent on the personality and demonstrated leadership behaviors of the principal. The principal's personality and behaviors largely determined the health of the organization. The climate of an organization may roughly be conceived as the "personality" of the organization. Climate is to the organization as personality is to the individual (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991, p. 3). Organizational health affects a school's efficiency and power to continuously improve. Improvement in the state of organizational health should be the prime target of change efforts in schools. Only then can change efforts be effective (Hoy et al., 1991). Therefore, a prime component of organizational health is principal leadership throughout these change efforts.

Freiberg (1998) noted, “The interaction of various school leadership and classroom climate factors could create a fabric of support that enables all members of the school community to teach and learn at optimum levels” (p. 22). School climate can be a positive influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier to learning (Freiberg, 1998). Hoy et al., (1991) postulated that a healthy school is one in

which the institutional, administrative, and teacher levels are all in harmony, and the school meets functional needs as it successfully copes with disruptive external forces and directs energy toward its mission. Increased Federal and State emphasis on student achievement warrants a comprehensive study of instructional leadership and organizational health of all schools as they strive to meet politically-driven mandates.

Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of this study was to measure instructional leadership behaviors of secondary school principals in the Park Hill School District as perceived by principals and by teachers. The second purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perception of their instructional leadership behavior and the teachers' perception of principals' leadership behavior as measured by the *PIMRS*. A third purpose was to measure organizational health of the school as perceived by principals and by teachers. A fourth purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perception of the organizational health of the school and the teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school as assessed by the *OHI-S*. A fifth purpose was to examine the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. The sixth purpose was to examine the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health.

Significance of the Study

Data collected from this study could enable school principals to examine more closely the impact of their leadership behaviors on the organizational health of their school. Differences in perceptions between principals and teachers may affect student

achievement if wide gaps in perceptions exist, leading to a toxic organizational health.

The results of this examination could provide valuable information for the climate-building component of the school improvement process outlined by *MSIP 5*.

Furthermore, an understanding of the relationship between instructional leadership and organizational health could suggest a path to improving student success. Knowledge of organizational health could provide district officials with necessary information to provide support and assistance for principal professional development 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 three delimitations to this study. First, data was only collected from the Park Hill School District. Secondly, instructional leadership and organizational health related information were only collected only from secondary principals and teachers. Generalizations to other grade levels or other districts may not be feasible.

Assumptions

There are two major assumptions for this study. First, it must be assumed that respondents understood the concepts and vocabulary associated with the survey instruments. Second, it must be assumed that all respondents replied honestly to the two survey instruments.

Research Questions

Based on the purpose of the study described earlier, nine specific research questions (RQ) were addressed:

Research Question 1. How do participating principals perceive their instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*?

Research Question 2. How do participating teachers perceive the principals instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*?

Research Question 3. To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*?

Research Question 4. How do participating principals perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*?

Research Question 5. How do participating teachers perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*?

Research Question 6. To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of the organizational health and the teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S*?

Research Question 7. To what extent is there a relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*?

Research Question 8. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*?

Research Question 9. To what extent is there a significant difference in the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the

organizational health of the school and the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school?

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of uniformity and clarity, the following terms were defined.

Academic Influence. Academic influence refers to the school's press for achievement. High but achievable goals are set for students; the learning environment is orderly and serious; teachers believe students can achieve; and students work hard and respect those who do well academically (Hoy, 2010).

Climate. School climate refers to the quality and character of school life based on patterns of student, parent, and school personnel experiences, norms, goals, interpersonal relationships, and organizational structures (National School Climate Center, 2015).

Collaboration. Professional collaboration is evident when teachers and staff members meet and work together to solve professional issues of instructional, organizational, or curriculum in nature (Wagner, 2006, p. 42).

Collegiality. Collegiality is a sense of belonging and emotional support that exists in an organization. It is evident when people enjoy working together, support one another, and feel valued and included by other staff (Wagner, 2006, p. 42).

Consideration. Consideration is principal behavior that is friendly, supportive, and collegial. The principal looks out for the welfare of faculty members and is open to their suggestions (Hoy, 2010).

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).

Efficacy. Efficacy is when stakeholders feel as if they have control of their destiny and do not view themselves as victims of “the system.” It is evident when people are in the school because they want to be. Teachers who improve their skills as true professionals rather than helpless victims of a large and uncaring bureaucracy have a strong efficacy (Wagner, 2006, p. 42).

Highly Qualified Teacher. A highly qualified teacher is defined as one who has obtained a full state teacher certification or has passed the state teacher licensing examination and holds a license to teach in the state; holds a minimum of a bachelor's degree; and has demonstrated subject area competence in each of the academic subjects in which the teacher teaches. (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2010).

Initiating Structure. Initiating structure is task and achievement oriented behavior. The principal makes his or her attitudes and expectations clear to the faculty and maintains definite standards of performance (Hoy, 2010).

Institutional Integrity. Institutional integrity describes a school that has integrity in its educational program. The school is not vulnerable to narrow, vested interests of community groups; indeed, teachers are protected from unreasonable community and parental demands. The school is able to cope successfully with destructive outside forces (Hoy, 2010).

Instructional Leadership. Instructional leadership is expressed in a conceptual framework that proposes three dimensions in this role as defining the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a positive school learning climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Morale. Morale is 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).

Organizational Health. A healthy school is one in which the institutional, administrative, and teacher levels are in harmony. The school meets functional needs as it successfully copes with disruptive external parent and community forces while directing all its energy toward its mission (Hoy, 2010).

Principal Influence. Principal influence is the principal's ability to affect the actions of superiors. The influential principal is persuasive, working effectively with the superintendent, while simultaneously demonstrating independence in thought and action (Hoy, 2010).

Resource Support. Resource support refers to a school in which adequate classroom supplies and instructional materials are available and extra materials are easily obtained (Hoy, 2010).

Overview of Methodology

A quantitative survey methodology was utilized to examine perceptions of principals' instructional leadership and perceptions of organizational health of secondary schools. Instructional leadership was evaluated through the use of the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)*. Organizational health was evaluated

through the use of the *Organizational Health Inventory- Secondary (OHI-S)*. Secondary principals and teachers of the Park Hill School District were the samples surveyed.

Survey data was analyzed for descriptive statistics for research questions one, two, four, and five. A one sample *t* test for the mean was conducted to address research questions three and six. A one sample *t* test for the correlation was conducted address research questions seven and eight. A Fisher's *z* test for the difference between two correlations was conducted to address research question nine.

Summary

This research study is presented in five chapters. Chapter one 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 two introduces a review of the literature, which includes instructional leadership, organizational health, related components school climate and culture, and their influence on student achievement. Chapter three describes the methodology used for this research study. It includes a description of the method of study, variables, population and sample of the participants, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures. Chapter four offers the study's findings including demographic information, testing and research questions, and results of the data analyses for the nine research questions. Chapter five 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 Two

Review of Literature

An analysis of the relationship between instructional leadership and the organizational health and climate of a school dictated a review of relevant literature on these topics. This chapter concentrated on instructional leadership, school climate as related to organizational health, and how instructional leadership and organizational health influenced student achievement. Definitions, descriptors, and traits of instructional leadership have been reviewed. A specific section is dedicated to research conducted by Phillip J. Hallinger, co-author of the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)*, the instrument utilized by this study to measure instructional leadership. In addition, factors of organizational health and climate that specifically relate to school settings are addressed. A specific section is dedicated to research conducted by Wayne K. Hoy, co-author of the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)*, the instrument utilized by this study to measure organizational health. Finally, this chapter examined literature that addresses how the relationship between instructional leadership and organizational health influence student achievement.

Regardless of the field of study, the importance of quality leadership cannot be understated. Goleman (2004) researched 200 global companies and asserted that truly effective leaders distinguished themselves with a highly sophisticated emotional intelligence. Leaders with emotional intelligence demonstrate self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 2004). Direct ties exist between emotional intelligence and measureable results, with these skills proving to be twice as important as technical skills or cognitive skills (Goleman, 2004).

Instructional Leadership

One legacy of the effective schools movement in the United States was the widespread acceptance of the term instructional leadership into the vernacular of educational administration (Hallinger, 2005, p.221). Most early attempts to define instructional leadership focused almost entirely on elementary schools. “In fact, the practice of instructional leadership requires substantial adaptation in secondary schools, which are often large and complex organizations,” Hallinger stated (2005, p. 231). Hallinger believed that many difficult challenges to instructional supervision in secondary schools remained. Foremost among these being, in many instances, principals have less expertise in the subject area than the teachers they supervise (Hallinger, 2005, p. 232).

The many definitions of instructional leadership required each principal to formulate, clarify, and communicate their 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 of instructional leader” (p. 52). Misunderstanding, resentment, disappointment, and actual disagreements may result when the individual definitions have not be clarified and communicated to all groups. Principal evaluations by superiors will hang upon the superior’s views of instructional leadership, and could twist evaluation of the principal’s actual performance. Quality communication of the principal’s clear definition of instructional leadership and the tasks it demands remain essential (Avila, 1990).

In 2008, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) updated the 1996 Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards for School Leaders.

The process was undertaken because educational leadership is vital to improved instruction and increased student achievement. Specific and coherent standards give a clear route to improvement and achievement. The 2008 ISLLC Standards provide detailed direction about traits, functions, and responsibilities of school leaders, while focusing on the ultimate goal of raising student achievement. The six broad themes 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. These standards are used to guide effective instructional leaders in order to influence gifted teachers and superior student achievement (National Policy Board for Educational Administration, 2008, p. 5).

According to Sergiovanni (2000), schools needed special leadership because schools represented special places. Schools must continually respond to the unique political realities they face. Schools belong to varying stakeholders including students, parents, local businesses, and community groups while also maintaining relationships with government entities (Sergiovanni, 2000). In light of these realities, Sergiovanni called for authentic leaders and those they represent to have the autonomy to make important decisions (2000). Sergiovanni stated, “Where there is no autonomy, there can be no authentic leadership, therefore no authentic followers can emerge” (2000, p 18).

Jenkins (2009) stated, “Instructional leadership has received increased importance due to increasing reliance on academic standards and the need for schools to be accountable.” School leaders sought to balance their role as a manager-administrator with their role as an instructional leader. Jenkins also believed an instructional leader makes high quality teaching the top priority of the school and focused on making that

goal a reality. An inherent concept to instructional leadership was the idea that student learning was the top priority and all other aspects revolve around enhancement of learning (Jenkins, 2009, p. 36). Jenkins (2009) also cautioned instructional leaders to avoid bureaucratic tasks and focus efforts on improving teaching and learning through improvement of relationships (p. 37).

Fullan (1998) described how the job of the principal had become increasingly complex and constrained because building administrators found themselves with less flexibility to maneuver and make site decisions. Unfortunately, building administrators often received top-down initiatives from their superiors, adding to the disjointed flow of the principal's role as instructional leader. Fullan stated, "Constant bombardment of new tasks keeps demand fragmented and incoherent with a short shelf life when these initiatives are dropped in favor of the latest new policy" (1998, p.6). Management techniques and solutions became fad and are too-easily abandoned for the next quick fix, top-down initiative. Fullan described education fads as time consuming, terminology confusing, quick fixes that rarely rose above common sense. Due to constant bombardment of new initiatives, effective principals involved themselves as real learners and critical consumers with their staffs in order to distinguish quality theories from empty ideas (Fullan, 1998, p. 6).

In 2002, Fullan expanded his theories to describe a new type of administrator, the change leader. He stated, "Principals must be instructional leaders if they are to be effective leaders for innovation" (Fullan, 2002, p. 16). Fullan noted a trend toward labeling instructional leadership as the primary task of an administrator in order to increase student achievement. Fullan asserted that modern principals must improve

working conditions and morale of teachers in order for student achievement to occur. A cultural-change principal incorporated an innate ability to improve relationships through a sharing of power with all stakeholders. Administrators must develop optimal teaching conditions because quality teachers arise when paired with quality principals who are instructional leaders (Fullan, 2002).

DuFour (1999) described a vision for a new type of principal as one who could lead professional learning communities (PLCs). Leadership in PLCs involved delegating authority and enlisting the faculty in crucial decisions, posing questions rather than solutions, and creating an environment where teachers could continually grow and learn together (DuFour, 1999, p. 13). Walking the tightrope between teacher autonomy and holding teachers accountable proposed a tremendous challenge in PLCs for all administrators. DuFour (1999) advocated loose-tight leadership principles, loose on individual strategies of teachers used to advance the vision, but tight on the vision and values being adhered to by all. DuFour advocated, “Empowered teachers and strong principals are not mutually exclusive, and it is imperative that schools have both” (DuFour, 1999, p. 15).

In May 2002, DuFour expanded his theories of instructional leadership to include a learning-centered principal. He described how principals in the past were laser-focused on what the teachers were doing, when in fact principals and teachers should have been focused on what students learn. Principals played an important role in initiating, facilitating, and sustaining the shift from teaching to learning by making collaborative teams the generator of school improvement efforts (DuFour, 2002, p. 13). An emphasis on learning ensured that teachers work together and relate their collaborative efforts to

each student. DuFour stated, “this systemic response made it clear to both students and staff members that we expected all students to learn” (2002, p. 14). He continued, “By concentrating on learning, the focus of the school community shifted from inputs to outcomes and from intentions to results” (DuFour, 2002, p. 14).

According to Smith and Andrews (1989), observation, common sense, and intuition helped create a personal connotation of what makes a good, strong, and effective principal. They determined general characteristics could be categorized into four broad themes of dialog and discussion between the school principal and teachers. Smith and Andrews’s dialog themes were: 1) the principal as a resource provider; 2) the principal as an instructional resource; 3) the principal as a communicator of vision and values; and, 4) the principal as a visible presence to all stakeholders (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 9).

Donaldson, Marnik, Mackenzie, and Ackerman (2009) described the difficult dilemmas principals faced as instructional leaders. The prime dilemma as an instructional leader resulted from the tension between caring for others and accomplishing goals. Donaldson et al. further asserted, “The relationship dilemma between principal’s need for bold action to improve the school’s performance often puts staff relationships at risk” (p. 8). They further believed that instructional leaders must possess and improve three “clusters” of relationship skills and qualities. The first cluster represented the principal as an effective consultant to assist teachers with turning knowledge into practice, using active listening, problem solving, and support (Donaldson et al. 2009, p. 10). The second cluster involved the principal as a mediator and consensus builder by facilitating useful work groups of colleagues. A crucial aspect of this cluster included confronting conflict when it arose and not allowing conflict to fester

(Donaldson, et al. 2009, p. 11). The third cluster of instructional relationship qualities required the principal to operate with a personal value system that places a high priority on people and relationships by sending a message that everyone's voice counts and that all people matter to the success of the school. Donaldson et al. concluded, "It's not just what you know, but also how you interact that shapes your influence" (Donaldson, et al. 2009, p. 11).

Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee (1982) created *A Framework for Examining Instructional Management* that described effective principals and successful schools. The framework began with personal characteristics of the principal, district characteristics, and external state and local characteristics that fused together to form the principal's management behavior (Bossert et al. 1982, p. 40). Bossert et al. focused their study of personal characteristics on personal style, training, and experience. District-level characteristics that affect instructional management of principals, included informal culture of the school, conforming to mandates, and incumbent administrators all of which could be positive or negative to instructional leadership. External state and local characteristics consisted of district finances, administration policies, parent pressures, district demographics, and state education laws (Bossert et al., 1982, p. 53). These external pressures required cumbersome paperwork and reporting requirements that take time away from instructional management activities.

The principal's management behavior then extended outward into school climate and instructional organization. Bossert et al. (1982) referred to instruction as the core technology of the school because principals influenced instructional organization through adherence to time-on-task, class size and composition, challenging curriculum, regular

teacher evaluations (Bossert et al., p. 41). Bossert et al. (1982) stated, “Principals can influence instructional management by working directly with teachers to analyze classroom problems and prescribe specific changes of instructional organization that will improve student learning” (p. 41).

Blase & Blase’s (1999) research showed five broad themes that effective principals utilized to promote quality classroom instruction. These themes included: talking openly and freely with teachers about instruction and learning; providing time and encouragement for teachers to link with peers; empowering teachers in the decision-making process; embracing the challenge of professional development; and leading without ego or heavy-handedness (Blase & Blase, 1999, p. 18). “Effective principals help frame and support classroom teaching and student learning through integrated use of action research, peer coaching, teaching and learning models, and conscientious development of the group” (Blase & Blase, 1999, p. 20). They also asserted quality instructional leadership hinged on a principal’s ability to allow teachers freedom and discretion about classroom instruction in an unthreatening manner that included genuine support (Blase & Blase, 1999, p. 20).

Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2008) compiled a summary of key findings to provide seven strong claims about instructional leadership. The first claim stated school leadership existed second only to classroom teaching as an influence on pupil learning and that leadership exerted direct and indirect influence on teachers and was a catalyst for improvement (Leithwood et al., 2008, p. 5). Claim two described how successful leaders draw on proven practices to promote beliefs, values, motivations, skills, and knowledge of all staff. Leithwood et al. (2008) believed the central task for

leadership was to help improve employee performance (p. 6). Leithwood et al. (2008) stated, “Successful school leadership included practices helpful in addressing inner and observable dimensions of performance—particularly in relation to teachers, whose performance is central to what pupils learn” (2008, p. 6). Claim three expected leaders to demonstrate responsiveness, rather than dictation in interactions by providing context to situations. Successful school leaders understood that “context is everything,” and leaders must be sensitive to context and adjust leadership practices accordingly (Leithwood et al., p. 8). Claim four illustrated how leaders improve teaching and learning through their influence on staff motivation, commitment, and working conditions. School leaders must address staff members’ motivations, commitments, skills, knowledge, and the conditions they work in order to influence pupil learning and achievement (Leithwood et al., p. 10). Claim five described a widely distributed leadership structure with power shared through head teachers, staff teams, central office staff, parents, and students as well as the principal. Leithwood et al. (2008) described this “total leadership,” the influence of leadership from all sources, as a significant factor on teachers’ perceived working conditions (p. 12). Claim six explained that some patterns of power distribution were more effective than others. Schools with high levels of student achievement attributed outcomes to high levels of input from all stakeholders; while lower achieving schools attributed outcomes to lower influence from multiple sources of leadership (Leithwood et al., p. 13). The seventh claim described personal traits of successful school leaders including open-mindedness, flexibility, persistence, resilience, and optimism. Such traits help explain why some leaders are more successful than others at enacting change (Leithwood et al., p. 14).

Hallinger and Instructional Leadership

Because no instrument existed at that time, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) created the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* to empirically assess instructional leadership skills. The *PIMRS* was chosen by this study as the instrument to assess instructional leadership due to the tool's longevity as a credible source of relevant data. The *PIMRS* has been the chosen instrument in over 130 doctoral dissertation studies (Hallinger, 2011, p. 280).

Three dimensions of school leadership were measured by the *PIMRS*, defining the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and developing the school learning climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221). In this framework, instructional leadership contained nine functions that support the three dimensions discussed above. These functions included: 1) Framing and communicating school goals; 2) Supervising and evaluating instruction; 3) Coordinating curriculum; 4) Monitoring student progress; 5) Promoting the professional development of teachers; 6) Protecting instructional time; 7) Maintaining high visibility; 8) Enforcing academic standards; and 9) Developing incentives for students and teachers (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221).

Hallinger and Heck (1996) evaluated fifteen years of empirical research to determine the principal's role in the overall effectiveness of schools. The driving force behind the study was that principals were significant factors in school success, and for the first time were subjected to widespread evaluation as instructional leaders. Hallinger & Heck's review focused specifically on mediated-effects models of research which implied that the impact of principals on school achievement occurred through interaction with the school stakeholders. Hallinger & Heck (1996) posited, "The mediated-effects model

assumes that some or all of the impact attained by administrators on desired school outcomes occurred through manipulation of, or interaction with, features of the school organization” (p. 18). The primary mediated-effects research studied how instructional leaders manipulated and shaped instructional climate and organization through personal actions, school goals, policies, and norms (Hallinger & Heck, 1996, p. 24). Hallinger and Heck (1996) theorized, “Conceptualizations of principal leadership suggest that the effects of principal leadership will occur indirectly through the principal’s efforts to influence those who come into more frequent contact with students” (p. 24).

Hallinger and Heck (2011) expanded their conceptual models of instructional leadership and learning to provide a greater focus on reciprocal-effects models. Reciprocal-effects models theorized that principal leadership affected mediating organizational variables and vice versa, unlike older models that saw principal leadership as a one-way street from principal to organizational variables (Hallinger & Heck, 2011, p. 151). The model also expanded to include the reciprocal effects of student learning and achievement and mediating organizational variables. Once again, this expansion challenged the outdated view of organizational variables as a one-way effect on student learning and achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 2011, p. 151). Reciprocal-effects models attempted to give empirical data to complex organizational factors that affect instructional leadership success (Hallinger & Heck, 2011, p. 167).

Hallinger and Murphy (2013) focused their study on instructional leadership on the concepts of time and capacity to lead others. They stated, “If America’s education policymakers wish to employ instructional leadership as an engine for school improvement, more comprehensive and practical solutions must be employed that do not

leave principals ‘running on empty’”(Hallinger & Murphy, 2013, p. 6). Hallinger and Murphy noted three barriers to exercising instructional leadership that form the gap between intentions of principals to lead learning and daily professional practice in schools. The first barrier was expertise—in relation to all subject areas that comprise the secondary school curriculum (p. 9-10). The second barrier was time to lead as a means to improve teaching and learning. According to Hallinger and Murphy (2013), a typical principal’s workday consisted of a continuous stream of brief, choppy, interactions that involve putting out fires initiated by others including teachers, students, parents, and district-level superiors (p. 10). The third barrier noted by Hallinger and Murphy were the norms and environment of the school site. Most school systems have placed a higher priority on managerial tasks than on instructional leadership (2013, p. 12).

Hallinger (2011) reviewed trends from doctoral dissertation studies that utilized the *PIMRS* as an empirical measure of instructional leadership. The full review included 130 studies conducted at 85 universities that were completed between 1983 and April 2010 (Hallinger, 2011, p. 280). One trend that emerged from the data showed a predilection of studying elementary schools. Forty-five percent of all studies focused on elementary schools, while only 26 percent studied high schools (p. 283). Another trend showed a predominant focus on antecedent (principal characteristics and/or school context factors) effects on instructional leadership. Fifty percent of all studies used this model, while only 9 percent used the mediated effects model employed in this study (p. 285). Through extensive use, the *PIMRS* verified itself as a reliable and valid data collection tool in the field of instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2011, p. 271). Hallinger concluded, “Thirty years later, ‘instructional leadership’ and ‘leadership for learning’ are

widely accepted by policy makers as essential elements of management practice in schools,” (2011, p. 275).

Condon and Clifford (2012) evaluated multiple instruments used to assess principal performance for reliability and validity in order to ensure legitimacy of the assessment tools. Instruments ranged in age from the *PIMRS* (1985) to the 2006 *Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED)*. Condon and Clifford were critical of the PIMRS because it was developed almost 30 years ago. They stated, “given the documented changes to the school principal’s position in the last ten years, it is plausible that older measures do not capture essential, modern features of the position” (Condon & Clifford, 2012, p. 9). Condon and Clifford were more supportive of the VAL-ED because it’s more modern creation focused on principals as instructional leaders, using surveys from multiple constituents to create a collective summary (Condon & Clifford, 2012, p. 9).

School Leadership Related to Organizational Health

Educational journals often used phrases like “school climate”, “school culture”, and “organizational health” as synonymous terms. Although, theorists tried to make a distinction between the terms, there was little coherence regarding what the defined differences are (Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990). The National School Climate Center (2015) defined school climate as the quality and character of school life based on patterns of student, parent, and school personnel experiences, norms, goals, interpersonal relationships, and organizational structures. Wagner (2006) defined school culture as shared experiences both in and out of school, such as traditions and celebrations that created a sense of community, family, and team membership (p. 41). Hoy (2010) defined

a healthy school as one in which the institutional, administrative, and teacher levels worked in harmony. The healthy school met functional needs as it successfully coped with disruptive external parent and community forces while directing all its energy toward its mission (Hoy, 2010, OHI-S).

Halpin and Croft (1963) initiated climate studies in schools by creating the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), a 64 question Likert-type instrument (p. 2). The OCDQ was piloted on 71 elementary schools chosen from across the country. Analysis of the data was divided into two subtests, teachers' behavior and principal's behavior. Teacher behavior categories included: disengagement, hindrance, esprit, and intimacy (Halpin & Croft, 1963, p. 2). Halpin & Croft identified principal behavior categories that included: aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration (p. 3).

After analysis of data from the OCDQ subtests, a profile of organizational climate was created for each school. Halpin and Croft (1963) then differentiated six organizational climates based on OCDQ rankings and the social interactions that characterize the building climate. The open climate described an energetic, lively organization moving towards goals while providing satisfaction to the group members' social needs (p. 3). The autonomous climate was portrayed by a building in which leadership acts emerged primarily from the group, while the leader exerted little control over the group (p. 3). The controlled climate was characterized as impersonal and primarily directed toward task accomplishment, while little attention was given to social-needs satisfaction (p. 3). The familiar climate is expressed by an organization that satisfies its social needs but paid little attention to task accomplishment (p. 4). The

paternal climate described best where a principal constrained the emergence of leadership acts from the group and attempted to initiate these acts himself (p. 4). Finally, a closed climate was characterized by a high degree of apathy on the part of all members of an organization because social-needs satisfaction and task accomplishment provided little fulfillment to the group members (p. 5). Halpin and Croft (1963) extracted three overarching factors that primarily influenced school climate. Authenticity, satisfaction, and leadership initiation played prime roles in determining what type of organizational climate existed in a building (p. 5).

Miles (1965) defined organizational health as the school system's ability to function effectively and to develop and grow into a more fully-functioning system (p. 12). Miles also noted educational literature paid massive attention to an individual labeled "an innovator," while little credence had been given to the conditions of the setting where the innovation took place. With this focus on the setting of innovation at the forefront, Miles created Dimensions of Organizational Health. Miles's ten dimensions were subdivided into three types of need groups. Task needs of organizational health included Miles's dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, and optimal power equalization (p. 17). Maintenance needs of organizational health included Miles's dimensions of resource utilization, cohesiveness, and morale (p. 19). Growth and development needs of organizational health included Miles's dimensions of innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem-solving adequacy (p. 20).

Kimpston and Sonnabend (1973) created the Organizational Health Description Questionnaire (OHDQ) because no instrument existed at the time to study organizational

health as defined by Miles. They administered the OHDQ to faculty member of 150 secondary schools in the Twin Cities area. Data analysis of the results showed five factors of organizational health. The first factor was decision making defined as the extent to which staff was included in the decision-making process for solving problems. The next factor revolved around staff interpersonal relationships. The third factor expressed by Kimpston and Sonnabend was innovativeness, defined as how staff members feel about trying new methods, designs, and programs. The fourth factor was autonomy, explained as how staff members perceived their ability to function in various roles as teacher, leader, organizer, committee member, and other. The final factor was school-community relations explained as how well the school staff members act and react with their surrounding environment (Kimpston & Sonnabend, 1973, p. 545). Kimpston and Sonnabend (1973) also compared faculty perceptions of organizational health of more or less innovative schools. They concluded, "Faculty members view their school's organizational health more positively in buildings that are characterized as being innovative" (p. 546).

Stolp and Smith (1994) defined school culture as historically transmitted patterns that include norms, values, beliefs, ceremonies, rituals, traditions, and myths understood to varying degrees by the school community (p. 2). These patterns often shaped what people thought and how they acted. Stolp (1994) theorized, "Healthy and sound school cultures correlate strongly with increased student achievement and motivation, and with teacher productivity and satisfaction" (p. 3).

Freiberg (1998) stated that school climate was often overlooked aspect of schools, until it became unhealthy. Freiberg asserted that climate could often be a positive

influence on the learning environment when healthy, or a significant hindrance to learning when foul. Elements that made up the school climate were complex and included teachers, students, support staff, and administration (Freiberg, 1998, p. 22). Freiberg advocated strongly for inclusion of student opinions in any measure of the health of the school. He found student perspective vital in the transition from one school level to the next, such as moving from elementary to middle school or middle school to high school. Since change from level to level may be anxiety-riddled for many students, their perceptions had a direct effect on school climate (Freiberg, 1998, p. 23). He strongly advocated for entrance and exit interviews with students to measure school climate from the students' perspective. Freiberg stated, "Measuring school climate can help us understand *what was* and *what is*, so that we can move forward to *what could be*" (1998, p. 26).

Peterson and Deal (1998) described the undefined something special that stakeholders sense about the schools they attend as "the elusive and powerful school culture". Over time, some schools developed toxic cultures through a fragmented staff whose purpose of serving students had devolved into serving adults, where fruitless hope was common (Peterson & Deal, 1998, p. 28). Peterson and Deal (1998) described toxic cultures as, "Sarajevos of education, where snipers and attacks at those supporting change were the norm" (p. 28). They advocated three keys for leaders attempting to sculpt school culture: understanding the current culture complete with a study of its history, uncovering and articulating core values that focus on student-support professionalism, and working to create a positive context by reinforcing positive cultural elements (Peterson & Deal, 1998, p. 29).

Barth (2002) declared, “Changing a toxic school culture into a healthy school culture that inspires lifelong learning among students and adults is the greatest challenge of instructional leadership” (p. 6). Barth believed that culture patterns were historically established and have great power to shape what people thought and how they acted; therefore, a school’s culture could work for or against improvement or reform. Clear personal and collective mission and vision were critical for change to gain a foothold. Changing a school’s culture required courage and tact not to avoid being victims of elements and to instead be an agent for improvement (Barth, 2002, p. 8). Barth concluded, “Show me a school where instructional leaders constantly examine the school’s culture and work to transform it into one hospitable to sustained human learning, and I’ll show you students who do just fine on all those standardized tests” (2002, p. 11).

Wagner and Masden-Copas (2002) described school culture as the “bracing for the bridge” from previous to future achievement because establishing the right culture should always precede “programs” in any effort to raise student achievement (p. 42). Wagner and Masden-Copas created the *School Culture Triage Survey* since the quality and health of the school culture remained essential for any improvement effort. The survey was composed of 17 items used to measure the degree to which three cultural behaviors were present in schools. The first behavior was professional collaboration, defined as teachers and staff members meeting and working together to solve professional issues. The second behavior was collegial relationships and affiliations, defined as people enjoying working together, supporting one another, and feeling valued and included. The third behavior was efficacy and self-determination, defined as whether or not people existed in the building because they chose to be or because they had to be

(Wagner & Masden-Copas, 2002, p. 44). Wagner and Masden-Copas advocated a culture-centered approach to professional development that encouraged teams of teachers to improve together and implement change.

Wagner (2004) advocated four steps in improving school culture. Step one was assessment of the current culture. As co-author of the *School Culture Triage Survey*, Wagner lobbied for its use, but admitted any assessment would serve the same purpose (p. 13). Step two was tabulation and analysis of the survey results. Scores on the survey determined critical needs areas and celebration points for the building (p. 14). Step three was the selection of areas for improvement by sharing openly and candidly all survey data. Improving school culture required significant ownership from all stakeholders, therefore they should be included in the process (p. 15). The final step was monitoring relationships and making adjustments where needed to ensure continuous improvement (p. 15).

Multiple researchers used the *School Culture Triage Survey* to assess their building climate (Wagner, 2006, p. 42). Melton-Shutt (as told in Wagner 2006) studied the relationship between the triage survey and state assessment scores. In every case, the higher the score on the survey, the higher the state assessment score and vice versa (Wagner, 2006, p. 42). Melton-Shutt also found a correlation between school culture, staff satisfaction, parent engagement, and community support (as told in Wagner, 2006, p. 42). Wagner (2006) stated, “Vital relationships with students, parents, community, and especially with each other is the foundation for a healthy school culture and maximizing student learning” (p. 44).

Bevans, Bradshaw, Miech, and Leaf (2007) studied both school-level factors and staff-level variables in the prediction of school organizational health and student performance outcomes. Staff-level results showed teachers perceive high turnover rates as poor administrative leadership, thus affecting organizational health. Conversely, administrators viewed high turnover as a positive leadership trait because underperforming staff were replaced by more qualified staff. School-level results showed faculty turnover and student mobility could hamper the school's ability to maintain academic achievement (Bevans et al. 2007, p. 300). Bevans et al. (2007) stated, "Results suggest both school- and staff-level characteristics are important factors to consider when aiming to enhance organizational health through school reform or intervention effort" (p. 301).

A recent educational innovation, the wide spread implementation of Positive Behavior Supports and Interventions (PBIS), demanded a review of this program. The PBIS program included preemptive policies that defined, taught, and supported appropriate student behaviors and positive school environments (US OSEP, 2014). Bradshaw, Koth, Bevans, Ialongo, and Leaf (2008) analyzed the effect positive behavior interventions and supports (PBIS) had on school organizational health. Results showed staff in schools that implemented PBIS showed significant improvement on OHI scores of resource influence and staff affiliation, and a marginal improvement on academic influence (Bradshaw et al., 2008, p. 469). PBIS efforts led to enhanced communication with district level communication, which led to increased resource allocation. Training in PBIS appeared to create a more positive, collaborative work environment for staff (Bradshaw et al., 2008, p. 469).

Pickeral, Evans, Hughes, and Hutchinson (2009) issued the *School Climate Guide* to present strategies and ideas that impacted student achievement. Pickeral et al. noted that district and school policy was an often overlooked focus for policymakers hoping to integrate and sustain a positive school climate. They observed that district and school policies could promote and sustain or discourage the development of social, emotional, and intellectual skills as well as create a comprehensive system to demolish barriers to teaching, learning, and reengaging students (Pickeral et al., 2009, p. 6).

Pickeral et al. (2009) recommended the following six steps be undertaken to ensure district and school policies are supportive of a positive school climate: a review of district and school mission and vision statements; an examination of existing instruction and assessment policies; a determination of what was measured by data collection was relevant; an evaluation of whether district policies encouraged student engagement and addressed barriers to teaching and learning; an analysis of all school activities, inside and outside the classroom as they impacted school climate; and a review of operational activities to ensure school climate was included (Pickeral et al., 2009, p. 6).

Thapa, Cohen, Higgins-D'Alessandro, and Guffey (2012) issued a brief addressing five essential areas of focus for any school wishing to rally school climate improvement efforts and increase student achievement. The first essential was safety, including both physical and emotional safety. The second essential was relationships, respect for diversity, engagement, social support, and leadership. The third essential was teaching and learning, including social, emotional, and academic learning and support for professional relationships. The fourth essential was the instructional environment

including the physical surroundings of the school. The final essential was school climate and the process of school improvement (Thapa et al., 2012, p. 4). Thapa et al. contended, “Positive and sustained school climate is associated with and predictive of positive child development, effective at-risk prevention, improved student learning, academic achievement, increased graduation rates, and teacher retention” (p. 11).

Hoy and Organizational Health and Climate

Halpin and Croft (1963) created the *Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ)* as a climate measure in elementary schools. Kottkamp, Mulhern, and Hoy (1987) revised the *OCDQ* for use in secondary schools because, at that time, no instrument existed to measure climate in secondary schools. Revision was undertaken because certain items on the *OCDQ* were not logically appropriate for high schools. Kottkamp et al.’s (1987) *OCDQ-Rutgers Secondary* revealed five dimensions of school climate (p. 41). The first dimension was supportive principal behaviors such as setting an example of hard work and giving constructive criticism to teachers. The second dimension was directive principal behaviors, described by close supervision and monitoring of teachers. The third dimension was engaged teacher behavior, characterized by faculty support for each other, individually tutoring students in need, and positive interactions and pride throughout the building. The fourth dimension was frustrated teacher behaviors, typified by burdensome administrative paperwork and excessive nonteaching duties. The final dimension was intimate teacher behaviors, exemplified by close friendships amongst faculty members and regular outside of school faculty socialization (Kottkamp et al. 1987, p. 41).

Hoy and Feldman (1987) created the Organizational Health Inventory to measure the health of high schools along seven dimensions of teacher-teacher, teacher-student, and teacher-administrator interactions. The seven dimensions of organizational health detailed in chapter one were: institutional integrity, principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, resource support, morale, and academic emphasis (Hoy & Feldman, 1987, p. 32). Results defined a healthy school as a building that was protected from reasonable community and parental pressures, with a dynamic principal who could influence superiors. Teachers in healthy schools were motivated, were committed to teaching and learning, and maintained a high level of trusting and accountability to each other (Hoy & Feldman, 1987, p. 34). Hoy and Feldman termed an unhealthy school as vulnerable to destructive outside forces, where teachers and administrators were targeted by unreasonable parent whims (Hoy & Feldman, 1987, p. 35). In conclusion, Hoy and Feldman (1987) stated, "Healthy schools have open organizational climates, authentic, trustworthy teacher interactions with each other and the principal, which likely relates to greater faculty and student motivation and higher achievement" (p. 36).

Tarter, Bliss, and Hoy (1989) studied the relationship between faculty trust and organizational climate. Organizational climate and trust in the administrator and other colleagues were considered complementary concepts (Tarter et al., 1989, p. 297). Results showed positive, supportive leadership behaviors of the principal predicted a high level of trust of the administration. Results also indicated principals who were friendly, open, and collegial created a positive climate with more engaged teachers (Tarter et al., 1989, p. 305).

Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990) next compared organizational health to school climate and effectiveness using the OHI-S and the OCDQ-RS. Their results found that three health variables—resource allocation, institutional integrity, and academic emphasis, correlated with academic achievement. The correlation between institutional integrity and academic achievement was negative, suggesting teachers perceived more pressure and intrusion from the community in high achieving schools. Only one climate variable, teacher frustration, correlated negatively with academic achievement (Hoy et al., 1990, p. 269).

Smith, Hoy, and Sweetland (2001) analyzed organizational health of high schools in relation to faculty trust. Smith et al. focused specifically on what kind of school climate nurtures faculty trust in high schools. Analysis of results showed the healthier the school climate, the stronger the degree of trust in colleagues, trust in the principal, and trust in students and parents (Smith et al., 2001, p. 142). Faculty trust in colleagues appeared to be an essential factor of morale, as high morale does not happen without trust. (p. 145). Results also showed principals earned the trust of teachers through supportive and considerate support as they lead toward accomplishment of goals (p. 145). Smith et al. (2001) stated, “Schools that set high standards for student achievement, have teachers who believe their students will succeed and who trust both students and their parents” (p. 146).

Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland (2002) developed the *Organizational Climate Index (OCI)* explicitly for high schools as another gauge of school climate. The *OCI* contained measures of student, teacher, principal, and community perceptions. Four dimensions of climate evolved from the *OCI*. The first dimension was environmental press described as

the relationship between the school and community. Collegial leadership, explained as the openness of leader behaviors of the principal, was the second dimension. The third dimension was teacher professionalism including teacher-to-teacher interactions. The final dimension was academic press described as the overall relationship between the school and the students. The OCI contained a unique aspect in that it addressed three vertical relationships—institutional, administrative, and teacher, as well as horizontal linkages amongst teachers (Hoy et al., 2002, p. 41).

In 2014, one of the most all-inclusive systems for assessing school climate and health was the *California School Climate, Health, and Learning Surveys (Cal-SCHLS)*. Cal-SCHLS was comprised of three separate survey instruments for school staff, students, and parents. The student version was the *California Healthy Kids Survey (CHKS)*; the parent version was the *California School Parent Survey (CSPS)*; and the staff version was the *California School Climate Survey (CSCS)*. After administration of the CSCS to staff, participating schools received a School Climate Report Card that articulated the building climate index score. The index score indicated staff perceptions related to the learning environment, academic achievement, and school improvement. One factor that made the Cal-SCHLS system so extensive emanates from the inclusion of comprehensive data from multiple stakeholders—parents and students, not just staff (California Department of Education, 2014).

After the creation of many climate and organizational health instruments, Hoy and many co-contributors used the tools to analyze the effects of organizational health and climate on student achievement. Hoy and Hannum (1997) investigated the effects of organizational health on middle school student achievement using the OHI- RM (Rutgers

Middle). Their study showed most of the dimensions of school health were positively associated with student achievement; however, the principal's influence on learning was indirect at best. Hoy and Hannum (1997) stated, "Ultimately, only teachers improve instruction. If leadership of the principal is to have an impact on student achievement, it needs to be linked to substantive activities that make a difference in teaching and learning" (p. 305). This aspect was reported as particularly important to student achievement because it was easier to improve the health of a school than it was to change other factors, such as socioeconomic status and community involvement (Hoy & Hannum, 1997, p. 308).

In 1998, Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran examined school climate and student achievement as reciprocal variables. Their results showed organizational climate was important for student achievement, especially in core skills of writing, reading, and mathematics (Hoy et al., 1998, p. 352). Findings also showed high performance schools were places where teachers liked and respected their colleagues and students, and viewed the principal as an ally. Hoy et al., (1998) suggested, "Consequences of positive interpersonal relationships for students continue over several years; the relationship between climate and student achievement seems robust" (p. 353).

Hoy (2002) described many facets of faculty trust and the relationship between trust and student achievement. The facets of trust defined by Hoy were interdependence, benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness (p. 89-92). The relationship between faculty trust and student achievement was then analyzed using a trust scale. Results showed faculty trust resulted in an openness that facilitated student achievement through cooperation among stakeholders. Hoy (2002) stated, "The importance of faculty

trust in students and other teachers is critical in facilitating student achievement.

Administrators should develop relationships with their schools and teachers that express confidence, openness, and goodwill” (p. 99).

McGuigan and Hoy (2006) studied principal leadership effects on school culture and student achievement. Their school culture measure was termed “academic optimism”, a school-wide confidence that students will succeed academically (2006, p. 204). McGuigan and Hoy (2006) found that academic optimism has three dimensions including cognitive expectations, affective attitudes, and behavioral components meshed into a force for academic success (p. 209). Principals facilitated academic optimism through development of structures and processes that enable teachers to do their jobs happily and more effectively. Principals must set a tone for academic optimism by insisting on academic rigor, commending teachers, rewarding students, and nurturing trust (McGuigan & Hoy, 2006, p. 223).

Hoy, Tarter, and Woolfolk Hoy (2006) analyzed academic optimism as a force for student achievement. They described academic optimism as a collective term encompassing academic emphasis of the school, collective efficacy of students and teachers, and faculty trust in students and parents. Their results showed academic optimism was consistently related to student achievement regardless of the socioeconomic status of the students (Hoy et al., 2006, p. 430). Each element was both dependent and reciprocal of the other two elements. Academic optimism viewed teachers as talented, students as eager, parents as supportive, and the task as attainable (Hoy et. al., 2006, p. 440). Hoy et al. (2006) stated, “Academic optimism is especially attractive

because it emphasizes the potential of schools to overcome the power of socioeconomic factors that impair student achievement” (p. 443).

In 2012, Hoy published a review of his own forty years of school climate factors that made a difference for student achievement. Throughout his career, Hoy has authored or co-authored over fifty studies analyzing variables of school climate, faculty trust, organizational health, collective efficacy, and academic optimism in relationship to student achievement. Throughout Hoy’s forty-year investigation, he has also played a part in creating sixteen different instruments to measure climate related variables in K-12 schools (Hoy, 2012, p. 91). Hoy (2012) declared, “My academic odyssey has been in search of positive organizational properties that foster student achievement for all students regardless of socioeconomic status” (p. 92).

Leadership and Organizational Health Effects on Student Achievement

Heck and Hallinger (2010) definitively expressed the importance of student achievement. They stated, “Increasingly, educational systems throughout the world are holding the leadership of primary and secondary schools accountable for student performance results. Despite limitations, student achievement has become the key performance indicator favored by education policymakers” (p. 869).

According to Andrews and Soder (1987), the school principal was vital in guaranteeing academic achievement for all students because principals exhibited various strategic interactions with teachers that were designed to enhance student achievement. They studied eighty-seven K-12 schools for organizational characteristics related to academic achievement. Their findings suggested that teacher perceptions of the principal as an instructional leader were critical to reading and math achievement of students

(Andrews & Soder, 1987, p. 11). One factor the study identified as crucial to student achievement was continuing education and professional development for administrators. Because turnover rate of principals was low, quality professional development reinforced desired principal behaviors that promoted academic achievement. (Andrews & Soder, 1987, p. 11).

Renchler (1992) identified school culture as mitigating factors on student motivation and thus, academic achievement. Renchler believed school leaders shaped school culture through quality communication, a central factor in successful attainment of academic objectives. Another factor advocated by Renchler was that effective principals had the ability to transfer their own desire and motivation to achieve ambitions to other participants in the educational process, namely teachers and students (p. 5). Renchler (1992) stated, "Principals must work with students, teachers, parents, and others to establish challenging but achievable schools goals that promote academic achievement. Administrators must then demonstrate how motivation plays an important role in all settings, educational and non-educational" (p. 19).

Goddard (2001) analyzed collective efficacy on performance achievement of a system as a whole. For schools, he defined collective efficacy as perceptions of teachers that as a group could implement the strategies necessary to have a positive influence on the student achievement (Goddard, 2001, p. 467). One of the most influential factors influencing teacher perceptions was past experiences; past levels of success persuaded a faculty's belief in the capability to lead high student achievement again. Results also confirmed collective efficacy was positively related to student achievement, even when data was adjusted for demographic characteristics. Goddard's final result indicated that

school members needed useful performance feedback in order to maintain appropriate collective efficacy (Goddard, 2001, p. 474).

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) performed a meta-analysis of over 70 studies to examine effects of leadership on student achievement. Their analysis revealed 21 specific leadership responsibilities significantly correlated with student achievement. These 21 leadership responsibilities include the actions described as: 1) fostering shared beliefs and a sense of community; 2) establishing standard operating procedures; 3) protecting teachers from unnecessary distractions; 4) providing teachers with materials and necessary professional development; 5) assisting with design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment; 6) establishing clear goals; 7) maintaining knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices; 8) continuing quality interactions with teachers and students; 9) rewarding individual accomplishments; 10) establishing strong lines of communication with teachers and students; 11) advocating for all school stakeholders; 12) involving teachers in important decisions; 13) celebrating school accomplishments and acknowledging failures; 14) continuing an awareness of personal issues of staff; 15) challenging the status quo; 16) inspiring and leading new innovations; 17) operating from strong ideals and beliefs about school goals; 18) evaluating school practices and their impact on learning; 19) adapting leadership behavior to current situations; 20) knowing undercurrents in school and addressing potential problems; 21) ensuring that faculty and staff were aware of the most current theories and practices (Waters, Marzano, McNulty, 2003, 4).

Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) identified leadership influences that affected student achievement. First, leaders impacted student learning

indirectly through influence on other people or features of their organization. Leaders' contributions to student learning depended upon discrimination of where to focus organizational attention. Secondly, educational leaders contributed to student learning by ensuring alignment among goals, programs, policies, and professional development (Leithwood et al., 2004, p. 13). Leithwood et al. (2004) stated, "There seems little doubt that school leadership provides a critical bridge between most educational reform initiatives, and having those initiatives make a genuine difference for all students" (p. 14).

Roney, Coleman, and Schlicting (2007) examined the relationship between student achievement and the organizational health of middle schools using the *Organizational Health Inventory-Middle (OHI-M)*. The study focused on three dimensions of the organizational health framework—teacher affiliation, academic emphasis, and collegial leadership and each dimension's link to student achievement. Results showed an emphasis on higher-level needs and intrinsic rewards encouraged and supported teachers to work toward increasing student achievement and healthy school environments. The role of the principal involved more collective support of teachers and students (Roney et al., 2007, p. 311). Roney et al. (2007) stated emphatically, "We are convinced that emphasis on academics is key to increasing student achievement, even in high-poverty, high-minority schools. This emphasis must occur in classrooms, in administration, and in the community. It must occur in a safe, supportive environment and must be communicated as the priority in the school" (p. 314).

Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2008) conducted a review of the impact of professional learning communities (PLCs) on teaching practices and student achievement. They

posited that PLCs were based upon two assumptions. First, knowledge was located in the vast experiences of teachers and shared through collaboration with other teachers. Second, teachers who were actively engaged in PLCs increased their professional knowledge and utilized that knowledge to enhance student learning (Vescio et al., 2008, p. 81). Results demonstrated that the use of PLCs could lead to higher student achievement. The focus of PLCs increased teaching culture through collaboration and a focus on student-centered outcomes. Vescio et al. (2008) stated, “An intense focus on student learning and achievement was the aspect of learning communities that most impacted student learning” (p. 88).

MacNeil, Prater, and Busch (2009) studied the effects of culture and climate on student achievement. They compared results from the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)* to data from the *Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS)*. TAAS results rated schools as Exemplary, Recognized, Acceptable, or Low-performing. Comparison findings indicated exemplary schools possessed healthier climates as evidenced by higher organizational health scores on the *OHI-S*. The largest discrepancy between Exemplary and Acceptable schools was in the dimensions of goal focus and adaptation. Therefore, goal focus and adaptation warranted significant attention when attempting to improve school health and climate (MacNeil et al., 2009, p. 81).

Heck and Hallinger (2010) tested leadership effects on school improvement, using a 4-year longitudinal model. They addressed criticism of earlier research that examined organizational processes at only one point in time and, therefore provided only a limited glimpse of conditions. Another key condition of Heck and Hallinger’s study was that it examined leadership effects on school improvement within the full context of federal and

state accountability and performance efforts such as No Child Left Behind (2001). Heck and Hallinger's results found that teacher perceptions of school improvement efforts increased over time. Once stakeholders became more comfortable with the change process and principals fostered distributed leadership, support for school improvement efforts increased (Heck & Hallinger, 2010, p. 880). Findings also suggested that distributed leadership and redesigned organizational structures and processes could exert influence on student performance. Heck and Hallinger (2010) stated, "Growth in student outcomes may be a more valid indicator of school effectiveness than outcomes measured at one point in time" (p. 881).

An evaluation of a national survey of leadership and its effects on student achievement was conducted by Louis, Dretzke, and Wahlstrom (2010). They analyzed specific behaviors of instructional leadership, shared leadership, and trust, and how those behaviors linked to student achievement. The data indicated that math achievement scores were significantly related to focused instruction, professional community, and teachers' trust in the principal, but principal behaviors were not significantly related to math achievement. Results suggested that relationships among adults could be important factors in determining how well students achieved (Louis et al., 2010, p. 325). Data also revealed that measures of teachers' perceptions of professional community and trust are lower in secondary schools than elementary schools. The influence of instructional leadership for student achievement appeared easier in elementary settings as opposed to secondary buildings. However, regardless of grade level, strong professional collaboration influenced student achievement. Louis et al. (2010) declared, "It appears

that it is relationships among adults in the school, whether principal—teacher or teacher—teacher, that seem to lead to stronger focused instruction” (p. 327).

Hallinger and Heck (2010) investigated the relationship between collaborative leadership and school improvement on student achievement. They compared findings of four leadership models. The first model was a direct effects model in which leadership was viewed as the primary driver for changes in student learning. Results showed this model as an ineffective leadership approach to improve achievement. The second model was a mediated effects model in which leadership promoted learning by improving the school’s openness to improve. Results concluded this model had a small, positive, and indirect relationship on student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010, p. 102). The third model was a reversed mediated effects model in which the school’s results and achievement determined school improvement, openness, and instructional leadership. Data did not support this model as a driver for school improvement or collaborative leadership (Hallinger & Heck, 2010, p. 103). The fourth model was a reciprocal effects model in which leadership and school improvement abilities were viewed as mutually influential to student achievement. Model four provided strong evidence in support of school improvement capability and student achievement being interdependent (Hallinger & Heck, 2010, p. 104).

Hallinger and Heck endorsed the importance of instructional leadership as a facilitator of change. They also tempered the assertion with three important caveats. First, no single approach to leadership would work to improve all schools because school improvement relied on the ability to be responsive to the context of each building. Second, leadership was a significant driver for change, but only if leadership worked in

unison with all levels of stakeholders. Third, collaborative school leadership offered a corridor to sustainable school improvement (Hallinger & Heck, 2010, p. 107).

Summary

Any review of literature is essentially a subjective process demonstrated through inclusion or omission of published research as it related to the focus of this study. This review provided background regarding instructional leadership. Also included was an overview of specific instructional leadership research from Dr. Phillip Hallinger.

Organizational health as a metaphor for school climate and culture was also discussed.

A section dedicated to Dr. Wayne Hoy's research on organizational health, school climate, and school culture was also incorporated. The chapter concluded with an examination of research on the influence of instructional leadership and organizational health on student achievement. The significance of student achievement as the top priority of education cannot be overstated. President Barack Obama avowed, "Today, more than ever, a world-class education is a prerequisite for success... We must raise the expectations for our students, our schools, and for ourselves—this is a national priority" (U.S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 1).

In chapter three, 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 four presents data and results to address each research question and hypothesis. Chapter five offers findings of the study, implications for future action, recommendations for future research, and a summary.

Chapter Three

Methodology

The first goal of this study was to investigate principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership of the school. Another was investigate principals' and teachers' perceptions of organizational health of the school. The third goal was to investigate differences between principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. This chapter is divided into the following sections: research design, population and sample, sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations.

Research Design

The study was designed to utilize a quantitative research methodology using surveys to analyze principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health of secondary schools. Descriptive, differential, and correlational research questions were designed to focus data collection. According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), correlational research relates scores from two or more variables from the same sample (p. 35). For this study, the variables of principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health of secondary schools in the Park Hill School District were analyzed.

Two separate survey instruments were utilized to collect data for this study. Instructional leadership was measured using the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* (Appendix A). Organizational health was measured using the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)* (Appendix B).

Population and Sample

The population was all secondary principals and teachers (grades 6-12) employed by the Park Hill School District. The teacher sample consisted of 420 certified staff that were employed in April 2011. The five secondary school principals made up the principal sample for the survey, assistant principals were not included in the sample.

Sampling Procedures

Purposive sampling, also known as selective sampling is a type of non-probability sampling technique. Lunenberg and Irby (2008) stated, “Purposive sampling involves selecting a sample based on the researcher’s experience or knowledge of the group to be sampled” (p. 175). Purposive sampling is nonrandom, therefore generalizations from this sample were made with caution. The five secondary schools in the Park Hill School District (PHSD) were chosen because the researcher was a PHSD employee at the time of the study. This first-hand knowledge led to PHSD secondary schools’ selection as the sample.

Instrumentation

The first instrument employed in the study was the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)*. The *PIMRS* was created by Hallinger and Murphy in 1985 to assess principal perceptions and teacher perceptions of the principal as an instructional leader. The researcher purchased the *PIMRS* and received written permission to use the instrument from Phillip J. Hallinger in October 2010 (Appendix C).

The second instrument employed in the study was the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)*. The *OHI-S* was created by Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp in 1991 to assess principal and teacher perceptions of the organizational health of the

school. The *OHI-S* was located online and required no written permission from its authors as it is readily available for download from the author's website.

The *PIMRS* is a 50-item survey utilizing a Likert rating scale to measure instructional leadership. Principals and teachers received matching surveys, with a job specific question prompt for each group. The principals' prompt read, "To what extent do you...?" The teachers' survey prompt read, "To what extent does your principal...?" Respondents rated the principal's instructional leadership along a 5-point scale from (1) almost never to (5) almost always. The *PIMRS* assessed three dimensions of instructional management: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221). These dimensions were further divided into ten instructional leadership functions (subscales). The Defining the School's Mission dimension was measured by 10 items that defined two instructional leadership functions, Framing the School's Goals and Communicating the School's Goals. These functions focused on the principal's role in working with staff to ensure that the mission was clear and focused on academic progress of the students. Managing the Instructional Program was measured by 15 items that described three instructional leadership functions, Coordinating the Curriculum, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, and Monitoring Student Progress. These functions focused on the role of the principal in developing the school's instructional program. Developing the School Learning Climate was measured by 25 items that delineated five instructional leadership functions, Protecting Instructional Time, Providing Incentives for Teachers, Providing Incentives for Learning, Promoting Professional Development, and Maintaining High Visibility. These five functions

focused on the belief that successful schools created high standards and expectations and a culture of continuous improvement. Research questions and resulting hypotheses concentrated on measurement of perceptions as related to each instructional leadership function.

The *OHI-S* is a 44-item survey utilizing a Likert rating scale to measure organizational health. The respondents rated organizational health along a 4-point scale from (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, to (4) very frequently occurs. Each item is scored for each respondent, then an average score for each item was computed by averaging the item responses across all respondents as a group. Seven dimensions (subtests) of the *OHI-S* include Institutional Integrity, Initiating Structure, Consideration, Principal Influence, Resource Support, Morale, and Academic Emphasis (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991, p. 62). The Institutional Integrity dimension contained seven items that described a school that has integrity in its educational program. The Initiating Structure dimension was comprised of five items describing task-oriented and achievement-oriented behaviors. The Consideration dimension consisted of five items describing principal behavior that was friendly, supportive, and collegial. The Principal Influence dimension contained five items that described the principal's ability to affect the actions of superiors. The Resource Support dimension was comprised of five items that described a school where adequate classroom supplies and instructional materials were available and extra materials were easily obtained. The Morale dimension consisted of nine items describing a sense of trust, confidence, enthusiasm, and friendliness among teachers. The Academic Emphasis dimension contained eight items describing schools that press for achievement. All 44 indicators that were addressed on the *Organizational*

Health Inventory-Secondary can be located in Appendix B. Research questions and resulting hypotheses concentrated on measurement of perceptions as related to each organizational health dimension or subset.

Measurement. The *PIMRS* was scored by calculating the mean for the items that comprised each job function. Calculating the mean for each job function was achieved through averages of item groups as listed in the table below.

Table 7

PIMRS Subscale and Item Classification

Dimension	Function	Items
Defining the mission	Framing school goals	1-5
	Communicating school goals	6-10
Managing instructional program	Supervising and evaluating instruction	11-15
	Coordinating the curriculum	16-20
	Monitoring student progress	21-25
Promoting school program	Protecting instructional time	26-30
	Maintaining high visibility	31-35
	Providing incentives for teachers	36-40
	Promoting professional development	41-45
	Providing incentives for learning	46-50

Note. Adapted from *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale: Resource Manual* by P. J. Hallinger, 2014, p. 5.

The mean resulted in a profile that yielded data on perceptions of principal performance on each of the 10 instructional leadership functions. All 50 indicators that were addressed on the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale* can be located in Appendix A.

Each item on the OHI-S was scored for each respondent with the appropriate number (1, 2, 3, or 4). Items 8, 15, 20, 22, 29, 30, 34, 36, and 39 were reversed scored. Reverse scoring means if a respondent selected a 4, the item was reversed scored as a 1, a 3 was reverse scored as a 2, a 2 was scored as a 3, and a 1 was reversed scored as a 4. The next step was to calculate a school average for each item, with scores rounded to the nearest hundredth. This score represented the average school item score, with 44 school item scores when complete with this step. Step three was to sum the average school item scores each *OHI-S* dimension as listed in the table below.

Table 8

OHI-S Dimensions and Item Classification

<i>OHI-S</i> Dimension	Items
Institutional Integrity (II)	1+8+15+22+29+36+39
Initiating Structure (IS)	4+11+18+25+32
Consideration (C)	3+10+17+24+31
Principal Influence (PI)	2+9+16+23+30
Resource Support (RS)	5+12+19+26+33
Morale (M)	6+13+20+27+34+37+40+42+44
Academic Emphasis (AE)	7+14+21+28+35+38+41+43

Note. Adapted from *Organizational Health Inventory- Secondary* by W. K. Hoy. Retrieved from <http://waynekhoy.com>.

The sums resulted in a profile that yielded data on perceptions of the principals and teachers on each of the seven dimensions of organizational health. All 44 indicators that were addressed on the Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary can be located in Appendix B.

Reliability and Validity. Reliability is the degree to which an instrument consistently measures what it was designed to measure (Lunenberg and 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). The authors of both the *PIMRS* and *OHI-S* included reliability and/or validity data with the survey instruments and instructions.

The *PIMRS* has been recognized as an instrument that provided reliable results in studies of school leadership. The authors conducted a pilot across 10 sample schools to determine the reliability and validity of the survey. A minimum standard of .80 for each reliability coefficient was figured for each of the subscales. The 10 subscales of the *PIMRS* were measured for reliability using Cronbach’s Alpha and the scores were sufficiently high: Framing Goals (.89), Communicating Goals (.89), Supervising and Evaluating Instruction (.90), Coordinating the Curriculum (.90), Monitoring Student Progress (.90), Protecting Instructional Time (.84), Maintaining High Visibility (.81), Providing Incentives for Teachers (.78), Promoting Professional Development (.86), and Providing Incentives for Learning (.87) (Hallinger, 2014, p. 17).

A minimum standard of 80% agreement among judges was established for each *PIMRS* subscale to be considered a valid measure of each job function. The 10 subscales of the *PIMRS* were measured for content validity and the scores 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, 2014, p. 16).

The seven dimensions of the *OHI-S* were measured for reliability and the scores were sufficiently high: Institutional Integrity (.91), Initiating Structure (.89), Consideration (.90), Principal Influence (.87), Resource Support (.95), Morale (.92), and Academic Emphasis (.93) (Hoy, 2010). The data was drawn from a pilot study involving 78 urban, suburban, and rural secondary schools in New Jersey (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991, p. 60).

A factor analysis of several samples of the instruments supports the construct validity of the concept of organizational health. School mean factor scores were calculated for each item and the item-correlation matrix from the 78 schools was analyzed. Seven factors with eigenvalues from 14.28 to 1.35 explaining 74% of the variance were retained (Hoy et al., 1991, p. 64). The stability of the factor structure of the *OHI-S* also supported the construct validity of the seven dimensions of school health. Factor analysis enabled the researchers to study the constitutive meanings of constructs and thus, their construct validity. The *OHI-S* constructed seven dimensions of organizational health. The relations among the items consistently held up as theoretically expected; that is, the items (variables) measuring each dimension were systematically related as predicted (Hoy et al., 1991, p. 65-66).

Data Collection Procedures

The first steps after obtaining permission from the authors to use the *PIMRS* and *OHI-S* was to attain written approval from the Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment for the Park Hill School District (Appendix D). The researcher then submitted a proposal to Baker University's Institutional Review Board and was approved in February 2011 (Appendix E).

The second step in the quantitative data collection process included contacting the principal at each secondary school in the Park Hill School District to schedule a visit at a high school large group faculty meeting or middle school grade-level team meetings in order to administer the *OHI-S* face-to-face via a paper-pencil format. The researcher gave a brief verbal description of the study and an overview of the survey instrument. Informed consent was addressed by allowing respondents to simply turn in a blank survey if they did not wish to participate in the *OHI-S*. Respondents bubbled in the circle corresponding to their individual perceptions. Teachers were not asked to sign the questionnaire and no qualifying code was placed on the form in order to ensure complete anonymity. Informed consent was obtained through participation in the paper-pencil survey; those that chose not to participate could simply return a blank form. The researcher attended faculty meetings or grade-level meetings at all five secondary schools in the PHSD over a 10 day period. All 302 *OHI-S* survey responses were checked for completeness and correctness and entered into Excel by hand.

Principals were handed an envelope upon the researcher entering the building on the day the *OHI-S* was administered at the faculty meeting or grade level meeting. Each envelope contained a copy of the cover letter (Appendix F), a paper-pencil copy of the PIMRS for administrators, and a paper-pencil copy of the *OHI-S*. Building principals were asked to complete both surveys in paper-pencil format and return them via the intra-district mail system. The five building principals returned both surveys within three school days.

Within twenty-four hours after building staff completed the *OHI-S* in paper-pencil format, an email (Appendix G) was sent to the teachers asking them to take the *PIMRS*

via an electronic survey. The survey had a one-paragraph description of the survey as well as a statement guaranteeing anonymity. Informed consent was obtained through participation in the electronic survey; those that chose not to participate could simply delete the link to the survey. The window to participate in the electronic survey was one week; each staff received an email reminder with two days left in the survey window. After the window closed for all buildings, the survey results were downloaded by the researcher. A range of 248-274 teacher respondents participated in the *PIMRS*. The range occurred because not all respondents answered every item.

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

The study utilized a quantitative survey methodology to collect data. The quantitative data from the surveys was then analyzed for correlations between perceptions of instructional leadership of the principal and perceptions of organizational health of the school. Data were analyzed using the SPSS 9.0 program to calculate frequencies and conduct statistical tests. The frequency and percentage of responses to items 1-50 of the *PIMRS* and items 1-44 of the *OHI-S* were displayed using tables. Item analysis showed the mean responses of principals and teachers for each of the 50 items on the *PIMRS* and all 44 items on the *OHI-S*. Principal and teacher responses were treated as units of analysis so the average score the principal assigned to themselves or teacher assigned to the principal on that subscale was treated as the dependent variable. In order to further examine the topics of instructional leadership and organizational health, hypothesis tests were used to investigate the following research questions.

Research Question 1. How do participating principals perceive their instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? Descriptive statistics

including the mean and standard deviation were used to profile principals' perceptions of instructional leadership.

Research Question 2. How do participating teachers perceive the principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? Descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation were used to profile teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership.

Research Question 3. To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? In order to address this question, the following hypotheses were tested.

Research hypothesis 1. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of framing the school goals. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 2. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of communicating the school goals. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 3. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction. A

two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 4. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 5. A difference exists between principals' perception of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 6. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 7. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behavior as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of maintaining high visibility. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principal sample mean and teacher sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 8. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for teachers. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 9. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of promoting professional development. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 10. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research Question 4. How do participating principals perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? Descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation were used to profile principals' perceptions of organizational health.

Research Question 5. How do participating teachers perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? Descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation were used to teachers' perceptions of organizational health.

Research Question 6. To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of the organizational health and the teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypotheses were tested.

Research hypothesis 11. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 12. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 13. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of consideration. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 14. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of initiating structure. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the

hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 15. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of resource support. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 16. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of morale. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research hypothesis 17. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of academic influence. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research Question 7. To what extent is there a relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 18. A relationship exists between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and principals' perceptions of

organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*. Seventy Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the strength and direction of each relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership and principals' perceptions of organizational health. A one sample *t* test was conducted to test for the statistical significance of each correlation coefficient. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research Question 8. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 19. A relationship exists between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and teachers' perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*. Seventy Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the strength and direction of each relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of organizational health. A one sample *t* test was conducted to test for the statistical significance of each correlation coefficient. The level of significance was set at .05.

Research Question 9. To what extent is there a significant difference in the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school and the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 20. A difference exists in the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school and the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school. A Fisher's z test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The two sample *correlations* were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

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). There are several limitations of this study. A limitation included some respondents may have had family ties to their administrator. Other staff members may have felt a personal debt to their administrator for hiring or rehiring them during the current economic climate and attendant educational budget cuts. Regardless of assurances, employees may have been reluctant to answer surveys honestly because they may not believe their responses to be anonymous. Another limitation may have been that some of the question vocabulary was not clear or did not apply to all respondents. Another limitation is the *OHI-S* subset Academic Influence overlaps with the focus of the *PIMRS* and may have affected outcomes of the survey instruments as a result.

Summary

This chapter restated the purpose of this study and presented the research design. Chapter three completes the background and design sections of the report by describing the research design, population and samples, sampling procedures, and instrumentation. Data collection procedures, data analysis and hypothesis testing, and limitations of the

study are also described. The remaining chapters describe the results of the study. Chapter four contains analysis of the collected data collected. Chapter five includes findings of the study, implications for action, recommendations for future research, and a summary.

Chapter Four

Results

The previous chapters specified the introduction and rationale, background, purpose, and significance of the study; reviewed the literature related to this study; and detailed the methodology of the study. The purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as measured by the *PIMRS*. Another purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perceptions of the organizational health of the school and the teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school as assessed by the *OHI-S*.

This chapter includes descriptive statistics, the results of two sample *t* tests for the mean, Pearson product moment one-sample *t* tests for the correlation coefficients, and a Fisher's *z* test on two sample correlations. The results of the calculation of descriptive statistics are included for research questions 1, 2, 4, and 5. The results of the hypothesis testing are included for research questions 3, 6, 7, 8, and 9.

Descriptive Statistics

Lunenberg and Irby (2008) defined descriptive statistics as mathematical procedures used to organize and summarize numerical data (p. 63). For the purposes of this study, descriptive statistics were used to summarize characteristics of the principals' sample and teachers' sample. The mean was the measure of central tendency and standard deviation was the measure of variability calculated for research questions 1, 2, 4, and 5.

Research Question 1: How do participating principals perceive their instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? Descriptive statistics, specifically the mean and standard deviation, were used to profile principals' perceptions of instructional leadership. Table 9 below includes the sample size, mean, and standard deviation for principals' perceptions of instructional leadership as measured by the *PIMRS* subscales.

Table 9

Principals' Perceptions of Their Own Instructional Leadership

<i>PIMRS</i> Subscale	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Framing School Goals	5	4.200	.200
Communicating School Goals	5	3.880	.576
Supervising & Evaluating Instruction	5	3.080	.576
Coordinating the Curriculum	5	3.960	.573
Monitoring Student Progress	5	3.960	.573
Protecting Instructional Time	5	3.400	.316
Maintaining High Visibility	5	3.360	.555
Providing Incentives to Teachers	5	3.440	.841
Promoting Professional Development	5	3.360	.607
Providing Incentives for Learning	5	3.560	.434

The principals rated their own instructional leadership along a 5-point scale from (1) almost never to (5) almost always. Principals rated themselves highest on the subscale (job function) of framing school goals ($M = 4.200$). Other subscales with a high mean include coordinating the curriculum ($M = 3.960$) and monitoring student progress ($M = 3.960$). Principals rated themselves lowest on the subscale of supervising and

evaluating instruction ($M = 3.080$). Other subscales with a lower mean were maintaining high visibility ($M = 3.360$) and promoting professional development ($M = 3.360$).

Research Question 2: How do participating teachers perceive the principals' instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? Descriptive statistics, specifically the mean and standard deviation, were used to profile teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors. Table 10 below includes the sample size, mean, and standard deviation for teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as measured by the *PIMRS* subscales.

Table 10

Teachers' Perceptions of The Principal's Instructional Leadership

<i>PIMRS</i> Subscale	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Framing School Goals	265	4.253	.621
Communicating School Goals	260	4.169	.609
Supervising & Evaluating Instruction	270	3.827	.712
Coordinating Curriculum	249	3.877	.694
Monitoring Student Progress	255	4.163	.542
Protecting Instructional Time	234	3.987	.617
Maintaining High Visibility	254	2.764	.559
Providing Incentives to Teachers	227	3.992	.724
Promoting Professional Development	234	4.192	.565
Providing Incentives for Learning	243	4.129	.624

The teachers rated their own principal's instructional leadership along a 5-point scale from (1) almost never to (5) almost always. Teachers rated principals highest in the subscale (job function) of framing school goals ($M = 4.253$). Other subscales high mean include promoting professional development ($M = 4.192$) and communicating school goals ($M = 4.169$). Teachers rated principals lowest in the subscale of maintaining high visibility ($M = 2.764$). Other subscales with a low mean were supervising and evaluating instruction ($M = 3.827$) and coordinating the curriculum ($M = 3.877$).

Research Question 4: How do participating principals perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? Descriptive statistics, specifically the mean and standard deviation, were used to profile principals' perceptions of organizational health. Table 11 includes the sample size, mean, and standard deviation for principals' perceptions of organizational health as measured by the *OHI-S* dimensions.

Table 11

Principals' Perceptions of Organizational Health

<i>OHI-S Dimension</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Institutional Integrity	5	24.200	3.421
Principal Influence	5	18.400	1.342
Consideration	5	18.400	0.894
Initiating Structure	5	19.600	0.894
Resource Support	5	18.400	1.817
Morale	5	33.000	2.550
Academic Influence	5	27.400	2.608

The principals rated organizational health of their school along a 4-point scale from (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, to (4) very frequently occurs. Principals rated organizational health highest on the dimension of morale ($M = 33.000$). Other dimensions with a high mean include academic influence ($M = 27.400$), institutional integrity ($M = 24.200$), and initiating structure ($M = 19.600$). Three dimensions of organizational health rated lowest by principals were consideration ($M = 18.400$), principal influence ($M = 18.400$), and resource support ($M = 18.400$) which finished tied with the lowest mean score.

Research Question 5: How do participating teachers perceive the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? Descriptive statistics, specifically the mean and standard deviation, were used to profile teachers' perceptions of organizational

health. Table 12 below includes the sample size, mean, and standard deviation for teachers' perceptions of organizational health as measured by the *OHI-S* dimensions.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Teachers' Perceptions of Organizational Health

<i>OHI-S Dimension</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Institutional Integrity	285	18.656	3.780
Principal Influence	291	14.058	2.434
Consideration	299	14.100	3.517
Initiating Structure	299	15.518	2.937
Resource Support	300	15.217	2.969
Morale	294	27.595	4.331
Academic Influence	292	23.620	3.293

The teachers rated organizational health of their school along a 4-point scale from (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, to (4) very frequently occurs. Teachers rated organizational health highest on the dimension of morale ($M = 27.595$). Other dimensions with a high mean include academic influence ($M = 23.620$) and institutional integrity ($M = 18.656$). Teachers rated organizational health lowest in the dimension of principal influence ($M = 14.058$). Other dimensions with a low average were consideration ($M = 14.100$), resource support ($M = 15.217$), and initiating structure ($M = 15.518$).

Hypothesis Testing

A hypothesis was proposed to address each *PIMRS* subscale or *OHI-S* dimension for research questions 3, 6, 7, 8, and 9. Each research question and hypothesis is stated below. A two sample *t* test for the mean was conducted for each hypotheses 1-17. Hypotheses 18 and 19 were addressed by calculating 70 Pearson product moment for the correlation coefficients and conducting a hypothesis test using the *t* distribution to test for the statistical significance of each correlation. Hypothesis 20 was addressed by calculating a Fisher's *z* to test for a significant difference between the between two sample correlations.

Research Question 3: To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and the teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS*? In order to address this question, the following hypotheses were tested.

Research hypothesis 1. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of framing the school goals. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated there was not a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = .192$, $df = 268$, $p = .848$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 4.254$, $SD = .621$) was not different from the sample mean for principals ($M = 4.200$, $SD = .200$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional

leadership behaviors were not different from principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of framing school goals.

Research hypothesis 2. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of communicating the school goals. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated there was not a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 1.053$, $df = 263$, $p = .293$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 4.169$, $SD = .609$) was not different from the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.880$, $SD = .576$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were not different from principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of communicating school goals.

Research hypothesis 3. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 2.331$, $df = 273$, $p = .020$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 3.827$, $SD = .712$) was higher than the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.080$, $SD = .576$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were

higher and more positive than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction.

Research hypothesis 4. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated there was not a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -.265$, $df = 252$, $p = .791$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 3.877$, $SD = .694$) was not different from the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.960$, $SD = .573$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were not different from principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum.

Research hypothesis 5. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated there was not a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = .829$, $df = 258$, $p = .408$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 4.163$, $SD = .542$) was not different from the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.960$, $SD = .573$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional

leadership behaviors were not different from principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress.

Research hypothesis 6. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 2.120$, $df = 237$, $p = .035$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 3.987$, $SD = .617$) was higher than the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.400$, $SD = .316$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were higher and more positive than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time.

Research hypothesis 7. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of maintaining high visibility. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.364$, $df = 257$, $p = .019$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 2.764$, $SD = .559$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.360$, $SD = .555$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were

lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of maintaining high visibility.

Research hypothesis 8. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for teachers. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated there was not a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 1.682$, $df = 230$, $p = .094$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 3.992$, $SD = .724$) was not different from the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.440$, $SD = .841$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were not different from principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for teachers.

Research hypothesis 9. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of promoting professional development. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 3.250$, $df = 237$, $p = .001$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 4.192$, $SD = .565$) was higher than the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.360$, $SD = .606$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were

higher and more positive than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of promoting professional development.

Research hypothesis 10. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors and teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = 2.029$, $df = 246$, $p = .043$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 4.123$, $SD = .623$) was higher than the sample mean for principals ($M = 3.560$, $SD = .434$). On average, teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors were higher and more positive than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning.

Research Question 6: To what extent is there a significant difference between the principals' perceptions of the organizational health and the teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypotheses were tested.

Research hypothesis 11. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity. A two sample *t* test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -3.254$, $df = 284$, $p = .001$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 18.634$, $SD = 3.796$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 24.200$, $SD = 3.421$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity.

Research hypothesis 12. A difference exists between principals' perception of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -3.133$, $df = 297$, $p = .002$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 15.486$, $SD = 2.929$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 19.600$, $SD = .894$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of initiating structure.

Research hypothesis 13. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of consideration. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.759$, $df = 298$, $p = .006$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 14.058$, $SD = 3.512$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 18.400$, $SD = .894$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of consideration.

Research hypothesis 14. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of initiating structure. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -3.979$, $df = 289$, $p = .000$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 14.035$, $SD = 2.444$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 18.400$, $SD = 1.342$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence.

Research hypothesis 15. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of resource support. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.425$, $df = 298$, $p = .016$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 15.173$, $SD = 2.964$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 18.400$, $SD = 1.817$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of resource support.

Research hypothesis 16. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of morale. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.838$, $df = 292$, $p = .005$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 27.526$, $SD = 4.296$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 33.000$, $SD = .2.550$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of morale.

Research hypothesis 17. A difference exists between principals' perceptions of organizational health and teachers' perceptions of organizational health as defined by the *OHI-S* dimension of academic influence. A two sample t test was conducted to test the hypothesis. The principals' sample mean and teachers' sample mean were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

The results of the two sample t test indicated a statistically significant difference between the two values, $t = -2.566$, $df = 290$, $p = .011$. The sample mean for teachers ($M = 23.585$, $SD = 3.304$) was lower than the sample mean for principals ($M = 27.400$, $SD = 2.608$). On average, teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *OHI-S* dimension of academic influence.

Research Question 7: To what extent is there a relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 18. A relationship exists between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and principals' perceptions of organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*. Seventy Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the strength and direction of the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and principals' perceptions of the organizational health of the school. Seventy one sample t tests were conducted to test for the statistical significance of the correlation coefficient. The level of significance was set at .05.

A correlation was calculated between each of the ten *PIMRS* instructional leadership subscales (job functions) and each of the seven *OHI-S* organizational health dimensions. Of the 70 calculated correlations, only a few had moderate to strong relationships. However, sample size issues ($N = 5$) made conclusions about the principals' data tentative at best. The correlation coefficient ($r = .884$) provided evidence

for a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum and *OHI-S* dimension of academic emphasis. The results of the one sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant relationship between principals' perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum and their perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of academic emphasis, $df = 3, p = .047$.

The correlation coefficient ($r = .898$) provided evidence for a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress and *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity. The results of the one sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant relationship between principals' perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress and their perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity, $df = 3, p = .038$.

The correlation coefficient ($r = -.943$) provided evidence for a strong negative relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time and *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. The results of the one sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant relationship between principals' perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time and their perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence, $df = 3, p = .016$.

Research Question 8: To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and their perceptions of the organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 19. A relationship exists between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors as defined by the *PIMRS* and teachers' perceptions of

organizational health of the school as defined by the *OHI-S*. Seventy Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the strength and direction of the relationship between teacher perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and teacher perceptions of the organizational health of the school. Seventy one sample *t* tests were conducted to test for the statistical significance of the correlation coefficients. The level of significance was set at .05.

A correlation was calculated between each of the ten *PIMRS* instructional leadership subscales (job functions) and each of the seven *OHI-S* organizational health dimensions. Of the 70 correlations, only two had statistically significant relationships. The correlation coefficient ($r = .134$) provided evidence for a weak positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives to teachers and the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. The results of the one sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives to teachers and their perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence, $df = 215$, $p = .049$.

The correlation coefficient ($r = .147$) provided evidence for a weak positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning and the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. The results of the one sample *t* test indicated a statistically significant relationship between teacher perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning and their perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence, $df = 231$, $p = .025$.

Research Question 9: To what extent is there a significant difference in the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the

organizational health of the school and the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school? In order to address this question, the following hypothesis was tested.

Research hypothesis 20. A difference exists in the relationship between principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school and the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviors and the organizational health of the school. A Fisher's z test was conducted to test the hypothesis. Seventy correlations were calculated for all pairs of *PIMRS* subscales and *OHI-S* dimensions. The two sample correlations were compared. The level of significance was set at .05.

Because of sample size issues, the Fisher's z tests for two correlations between principals' and teachers' perceptions were compromised. The sample size for principals was very small ($N = 5$) in comparison to the size of the teacher sample ($N = 220$). Therefore, any conclusions that could be drawn would be unsound. However, examination of the 70 Pearson product moment correlation coefficients shows that though the hypothesis tests were compromised, in some cases the subscale/dimension correlations produced interesting observations. Some subscale/dimension correlations were very different from those for teachers, while others were very similar from those for teachers. Table 13 illustrates a comparison of dissimilar correlations between the two samples. Table 14 illustrates a comparison of similar correlations results between the two samples.

Table 13

Dissimilar Correlations for Principals' and Teachers'

<i>PIMRS & OHI-S Correlation</i>	Principals <i>N</i> = 5	Teachers <i>N</i> = 220
Monitoring Student Progress & Institutional Integrity	<i>r</i> = .898	<i>r</i> = .084
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction & Initiating Structure	<i>r</i> = .854	<i>r</i> = .040
Providing Incentives to Teachers & Initiating Structure	<i>r</i> = .824	<i>r</i> = .032
Providing Incentives for Learning & Consideration	<i>r</i> = -.851	<i>r</i> = .089
Protecting Instructional Time & Principal Influence	<i>r</i> = -.943	<i>r</i> = .076
Coordinating the Curriculum & Academic Influence	<i>r</i> = .884	<i>r</i> = .031

Table 14

Similar Correlations for Principals' and Teachers'

<i>PIMRS & OHI-S Correlation</i>	Principals <i>N</i> = 5	Teachers <i>N</i> = 220
Framing School Goals & Institutional Integrity	<i>r</i> = .000	<i>r</i> = .004
Maintaining High Visibility & Institutional Integrity	<i>r</i> = .111	<i>r</i> = .126
Communicating School Goals & Morale	<i>r</i> = .068	<i>r</i> = .052
Maintaining High Visibility & Morale	<i>r</i> = .035	<i>r</i> = .032

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the calculation of descriptive statistics, two sample *t* tests for the mean, Pearson product moment one-sample *t* tests for the correlation coefficients, and a Fisher's *z* test on two sample correlations used to address the research questions. The results of the hypothesis testing for the correlations indicated no difference between teachers' and principals' perceptions on five *PIMRS* subscales. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated teachers' perceptions were higher than

principals' perceptions on the four *PIMRS* subscales. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated teachers' perceptions were lower than principals' perceptions on one *PIMRS* subscale.

Furthermore, the results of the hypothesis testing indicated teachers' perceptions were lower than principals' perceptions on all seven *OHI-S* dimensions. The hypothesis testing also found three significant correlations between principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership as measured by the *PIMRS* and the organizational health of the school as measured by the *OHI-S*. The hypothesis testing also found two significant correlations between teachers' perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership as measured by the *PIMRS* and the organizational health of the school as measured by the *OHI-S*. Chapter five includes findings from the study, provides connections to the literature, discusses implications for action, and makes recommendations for future study.

Chapter Five

Interpretation and Recommendations

The first goal of this study was to explore principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership. Another goal was to examine principals' and teachers' perceptions of organizational health. The final goal was to investigate correlations between principal perceptions and teacher perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. This chapter provides an overview of the main points in chapters one through four. Chapter five includes a study summary, findings related to literature, implications for action, and recommendations for future research.

Study Summary

In this section a brief synopsis of chapters one through four is given. The synopsis consists of an overview of the problem, the purpose statement and research questions, a review of the methodology, and the major findings of the study.

Overview of the Problem. Increased Federal and State emphasis on student achievement warranted a comprehensive study of instructional leadership and organizational health of all schools as they strove to meet politically-driven mandates. In 2010, the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE) unveiled *Top 10 by 20*, a significant school improvement and accountability initiative designed to replace the controversial Federal mandates in the *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB)*. As higher performance and accreditation standards took effect, a thorough study of the relationship between instructional leadership and organizational health was crucial for schools as they strove to meet Missouri's *Top 10 by 20* performance goals (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [DESE], 2014b).

Research over the last 35 years has provided strong evidence on specific leadership behaviors of principals and their well-documented effects on student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 7). State mandated emphasis on student achievement data placed significant attention on instructional leadership skills of principals. According to Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2004), research has shown that principal leadership was second only to classroom instruction among school-related factors that influenced student outcomes. Instructional leadership was often considered a significant aspect of school climate, culture, and organizational health.

School culture and organizational health played a significant role in achievement. Wagner and Madsen-Copas (2002) stated that school culture and building health was the link from previous results to future achievement. The principal's personality and behaviors were major determining factors that affect the health of the organization. Improvement in the state of organizational health should be the prime target of change efforts in schools. Change efforts can only be effective when building climate and organizational health are receptive to them (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991). As principal leadership was a prime component of organizational health, instructional leadership was greatly important to any continuous improvement endeavors. School climate could be a positive influence on the health of the learning environment or a significant barrier to learning (Freiberg, 1998). Wagner (2000) noted, "No administrator, teacher, or student will be able to maximize their potential if the culture of the learning community is toxic no matter what 'improvement initiative' is implemented" (p. 2).

President Obama's assertion that we must have great teachers in every classroom and great principals in every school highlighted a primary goal in school improvement efforts (U.S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 1). The importance of instructional leadership and organizational health remained paramount in the high achievement of students. The following section reviews the purpose of the study and research questions.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions. As stated in chapter one, the first purpose of this study was to measure instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by principals and by teachers. Another purpose was to investigate if there was a significant difference in the principals' perceptions and the teachers' perception of the principals' instructional leadership behaviors as measured by the *PIMRS*. An additional purpose was to measure organizational health of the school as perceived by principals and by teachers. The final purpose was to investigate if there were significant correlations between the principals' perceptions and the teachers' perceptions of the organizational health of the school as assessed by the *OHI-S*. Nine research questions were established to direct the study and determine the relationship between principal and teacher perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health.

Review of Methodology. The sample for this study included all secondary (grades 6-12) principals and teachers in the Park Hill School District in April 2011. The survey instrument used to measure instructional leadership was the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* created by Hallinger and Murphy (1985). The *PIMRS* consisted of a 50-item survey utilizing a five-point Likert rating scale. The survey instrument used to measure organizational health was the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)* created by Hoy, Tarter, and

Kottkamp (1991). The *OHI-S* was a 44-item survey utilizing a four-point Likert rating scale. Twenty hypotheses addressed the nine research questions. Each hypothesis was examined using one of the following calculations: descriptive statistics, a two-sample *t* test for the mean, a Pearson product moment one-sample *t* test for the correlation coefficient, or a Fisher's *z* test for two-sample correlations.

Major Findings. Chapter four presented results of principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. Descriptive statistics profiled principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health. Principals rated their own instructional leadership highest for the *PIMRS* subscale of framing school goals, while rating themselves lowest on the subscale of supervising and evaluating instruction. Teachers rated their principal's instructional leadership highest for the *PIMRS* subscale of framing school goals, while rating their principal lowest on the subscale of maintaining high visibility. Principals rated the organizational health for the school highest on the *OHI-S* dimension of morale, while rating the organizational health equally low in the dimensions of consideration, principal influence, and resource support. Teachers rated the organizational health of the school highest for the *OHI-S* dimension of morale, while rating the organizational health lowest in the dimension of principal influence.

The results of hypothesis testing indicated no difference in teachers' and principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscales of framing school goals, communicating school goals, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress, and providing incentives for teachers. The results of the hypothesis testing also indicated teachers' perceptions were higher and more positive than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS*

subscales of supervising and evaluating instruction, protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, and providing incentives for learning. Finally, the results of the hypothesis testing indicated teachers' perceptions were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on the *PIMRS* subscale of maintaining high visibility.

Furthermore, the results of the hypothesis testing indicated teachers' perceptions were lower and more negative than principals' perceptions on all seven *OHI-S* dimensions. These dimensions include: institutional integrity, initiating structure, consideration, principal influence, resource support, morale, and academic influence. The results of the hypothesis testing also found three significant correlations between principals' perceptions as measured by the *PIMRS* and *OHI-S*.

Of the 70 correlations between principals' responses for the *PIMRS* and *OHI-S*, only a few had statistically significant relationships. The correlation coefficient provided evidence for a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of coordinating the curriculum and *OHI-S* dimension of academic emphasis. The correlation coefficient provided evidence of a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of monitoring student progress and *OHI-S* dimension of institutional integrity. The correlation coefficient provided evidence of a strong negative relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time and *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. However, sample size issues ($N = 5$) made correlations using the principals' data tentative at best.

The results of the hypothesis testing also indicated two significant correlations between teachers' perceptions as measured by the *PIMRS* and *OHI-S*. Of the 70

correlations of teachers' responses, only two had statistically significant relationships. The correlation coefficient provided evidence for a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives to teachers and the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. The correlation coefficient provided evidence of a strong positive relationship between the *PIMRS* subscale of providing incentives for learning and the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence.

Because the principals sample size was small, a Fisher's z test for two correlations between principals' and teachers' perceptions could not be calculated. The sample size for principals was small ($N = 5$) in comparison to the size of the teacher sample ($N = 220$). Therefore, drawing any conclusions could be unsound.

Findings Related to Literature

In this section, connections are made between the findings of this study and those from previous studies. An evaluation of the results of this study compared with those presented in chapter two reveals similarities and differences. The results of descriptive statistics and hypothesis testing provide varied topics for literature connections.

Descriptive statistics revealed both principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of the *PIMRS* job function of framing school goals a vital aspect of the principal's duties. These results relate to literature by Hallinger and Murphy (1985); Smith and Andrews (1989); and Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003). Hallinger and Murphy (1985) list framing and communicating school goals as a primary function of instructional leadership. According to Smith and Andrews (1989), general characteristics of an effective principal include the principal's roles as the communicator of vision and values and as a visible presence to all stakeholders. Waters et al. (2003) revealed 21

specific leadership responsibilities that correlate with student achievement. Three of these responsibilities include establishing clear goals, operating from strong ideals and beliefs about school goals, and fostering shared beliefs and a sense of community. The data from the current study concurred with the findings of Hallinger and Murphy (1985); Smith and Andrews (1989); and Waters et al. (2003) as to the importance of instructional leadership on the job function of framing school goals as an essential element leading to student achievement.

Descriptive statistics revealed both principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of the *OHI-S* dimension of morale a fundamental of the organizational health of the school. These results relate to literature by Hoy and Feldman (1987); Stolp and Smith (1994); McGuigan and Hoy (2006); and Donaldson, Marnik, Mackenzie, and Ackerman (2009). Hoy and Feldman (1987) found that teachers in healthy schools were motivated, committed to teaching and learning, and maintained high levels of trust and accountability to each other (p. 36). According to Stolp and Smith (1994), healthy schools correlate strongly with student achievement and teacher satisfaction. McGuigan and Hoy (2006) measured academic optimism that principals enhance through structures and processes that empower teachers to do their jobs positively and more effectively. Donaldson et al. (2009) promoted instructional relationship qualities that places high value on people and relationships to the success of the school. The data from the current study concurred with the findings of Hoy and Feldman (1987); Stolp and Smith (1994); McGuigan and Hoy (2006); and Donaldson et al. (2009) as to the importance of the dimension of morale as a factor of the organizational health of the school effecting student achievement.

Findings related to literature associated with a principal's instructional leadership as connected to the academic influence of the building include information from Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004); and Thapa, Cohen, Higgins-Alessandro, and Guffey (2012). Leithwood et al. (2004) declared educational leaders contributed to student learning by ensuring alignment among goals, programs, policies, and professional development. Thapa et al. (2012) asserted lifelong learning and quality professional development were essential to improvement efforts and student achievement. The data from the current study concurred with the findings of Leithwood et al. (2004) and Thapa et al. (2012) as to the importance of instructional leadership on the job function of coordinating the curriculum as essential elements leading to student achievement.

Findings related to literature associated with instructional leadership as connected to student achievement and protection from outside influences include information from Smith, Hoy, and Sweetland (2001); Freiberg (1998); and Sergiovanni (2000). Smith et al. (2001) showed that faculty trust in colleagues, principal, students, and parents appeared to be an essential factor toward accomplishment of goals. Freiberg (1998) asserted that climate could be a positive influence on student learning when healthy, or a significant hindrance to learning when foul. Sergiovanni (2000) called for authentic leaders with autonomy to make important decisions. The data from the current study agreed with the findings of Smith et al. (2001); Freiberg (1998); and Sergiovanni (2000) as to the organizational health dimension of institutional integrity and the influence on student achievement.

Findings related to literature associated with instructional leadership as connected to protection of instructional time and perceptions of a principal's ability to influence superiors. Results showed a negative correlation between principals' perceptions of the *PIMRS* subscale of protecting instructional time and the *OHI-S* dimension of principal influence. This result is consistent with earlier studies by Leithwood et al. (2004), and Fullan (1998). Leithwood et al. (2004) stated a belief that leaders must use discrimination to focus organizational attention. They further specified that leaders must ensure alignment among goals, programs, district policies, and professional development. Fullan (1998) described how principals must be persuasive and influence their superiors by maintaining flexibility to maneuver and make site decisions. Fullan described situations where administrators receive top-down initiatives from their superiors that fragment the principal's role as an instructional leader. The data from the current study illustrated instructional leadership frustrations of being caught in the middle between protecting instructional time while managing top-down initiatives.

Teacher perceptions showed positive correlations related to the instructional leadership job functions of providing incentives to teachers and providing incentives to teachers. This result is consistent with earlier studies by DuFour (1999), (2002); Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, and Hopkins (2008); Pickeral, Evans, Hughes, and Hutchinson (2009); Renchler (1992); Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran (1998); and Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003). DuFour (1999) described incentives for teachers as enlisting the faculty in crucial decisions by creating an environment where teachers continually grow and learn together. DuFour (2002) added that principals initiate, facilitate, and sustain collaborative school improvement efforts by empowering teachers.

Leithwood et al. (2008) described how successful leaders draw on experiences to promote beliefs, values, motivations, skills, and knowledge to all staff to improve employee performance. Pickeral et al. (2009) recommended that all district and school policies be supportive of a positive school climate. It is imperative that district policies encourage student engagement and address barriers to teaching and learning. Rensler (1992) identified factors that affected students' motivation and academic achievement. He advocated that effective principals possessed the ability to transfer their own desire and motivation to achieve ambitions to teachers and students. Hoy et al. (1998) showed organizational climate was important for student achievement because high performance schools were places teachers liked and respected their students, colleagues, and principals. Waters et al. (2003) described leadership responsibilities that effect student achievement. These responsibilities included: protecting teachers from unnecessary distractions, challenging the status quo, inspiring and leading new innovations, and knowing undercurrents in school and addressing potential problems. The results from the current study demonstrate teacher perceptions as to the importance of the instructional leaders providing incentives to staff and students.

Conclusions

The last section of chapter five gives closure to the study. Implications for action based on the major findings of the study are included. Furthermore, suggestions are given for future research on related topics. The chapter closes with final concluding comments about the study.

Implications for Action. As stated earlier, it is vital to understand how instructional leadership behaviors affect organizational health and climate and how these

factors influence student achievement. Findings of this study have strong implications for educators and policy makers eager to implement and sustain school improvement and accountability efforts. Given these results, Federal and State policymakers should include organizational health and climate measures as a mandatory aspect in school improvement and accountability efforts. Identifying perceptions about instructional leadership and organizational health and climate can inform school leaders about goals and strategies needed for continuous improvement and student achievement.

Assessing perceptions of all building stakeholders—students, teachers, and administration—should be a part of every school improvement plan. Measurement of instructional leadership and organizational health can advise school leaders of professional development opportunities for the building. Relevant professional development could support the faculty in implementing strategies to cultivate a positive school climate, caring interpersonal relationships, and high student achievement.

This study revealed that teachers' perceptions were lower than principals' perceptions on all seven dimensions of organizational health. Building and district administration must examine the environment critically and make conscious efforts to address climate in a safe, supportive manner. A leadership council of faculty-elected, not principal-selected leaders could collaborate regularly with administration. The council could hear faculty concerns and solve minor issues before they become major challenges to climate and organizational health. This systematic inclusion allows teachers genuine input in decision-making processes and ensures greater buy-in from faculty.

Another implication for action focuses on quality professional development for administrators. Great emphasis is placed on recruiting and training prospective

administrators, while professional development for current principals is often neglected. Instructional leaders must set an example of continuous improvement to build a culture of adult learning. Principals must constantly build their knowledge base in order to serve as a resource provider to meet the needs of students, teachers, and parents.

Recommendations for Future Research. This study added to research related to instructional leadership behaviors and organizational health by examining the relationship between principals' perceptions and teachers' perceptions of these topics. Due to limitations, no one study can adequately investigate all facets of a topic. Therefore, recommendations for future research include the following:

1. A researcher could expand the study to include a larger sample size for administration by including assistant principals.
2. A researcher could enlarge the study to include elementary principals and teachers from the same district.
3. A researcher could expand the study to analyze standardized assessment data to measure student achievement related to instructional leadership and organizational health.
4. A researcher could modify the order of the job functions (subsets) of the questions on the *PIMRS* to ensure responses are not the result of a primacy or recency effect due to early or late placement on the survey.
5. A researcher could adjust the survey instruments to allow qualitative responses for deeper analysis of responses.

6. A researcher could revise the study to identify causal factors from teachers concerning their perceptions of instructional leadership and organizational health.

Concluding Remarks

This study examined the relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership. The study also investigated the relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of organizational health of schools. As Federal and State school improvement and accountability initiatives continue to be mandated, the importance of instructional leadership and organizational health of schools cannot be overlooked. Student performance and district accountability standards are integrated into each new school improvement and accountability proposal.

Based on these future consequences, implications for future action were produced. Specifically, mandatory inclusion of organizational health and climate measures as a facet of any continuous improvement and accountability effort. Further research is imperative to expand the knowledge base in order to make inferences related to instructional leadership's indirect influence on student achievement via the variable of organizational health.

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Appendices

Appendix A: *PIMRS*

Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale

This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal 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 observations of the principal's leadership over the past school year. Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice of this principal during the past school year.

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question.

To what extent does your principal...?

I. Frame the School Goals

		Almost Never		Almost Always		
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5

II. Communicate the School Goals

6.	Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected or highly visible displays in the school (e.g. posters, bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g. assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5

III. Supervise & Evaluate Instruction

11.	Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g. in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g. in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5

IV. Coordinate the Curriculum

16.	Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g. the principal, vice principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Participate actively in the review of curriculum materials	1	2	3	4	5

Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale

		Almost Never			Almost Always	
V. Monitor Student Progress						
21.	Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weakness	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Use tests and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. Protect Instructional Time						
26.	Limit interruptions to instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. Maintain High Visibility						
31.	Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. Provide Incentives for Teachers						
36.	Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, memos, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. Promote Professional Development						
41.	Ensure that in-service activities attended by the staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in-service	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Lead or attend teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
X. Provide Incentives for Learning						
46.	Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B: *OHI-S*

OHI-S

Directions: The following are statements about your school, Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school from rarely occurs to very frequently occurs.

	Rarely Occurs	Sometimes Occurs	Often Occurs	Very Frequently Occurs
1. Teachers are protected from unreasonable community and parental demands.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. The principal gets what he or she asks for from superiors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. The principal is friendly and approachable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. The principal asks that faculty members follow standard rules and regulations.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Extra materials are available if requested.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Teachers do favors for each other.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. The students in this school can achieve the goals that have been set for them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. The school is vulnerable to outside pressures.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. The principal is able to influence the actions of his or her superiors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. The principal makes his or her attitudes clear to the school.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Teachers are provided with adequate materials for their classrooms.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Teachers in this school like each other.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. The school sets high standards for academic performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Community demands are accepted even when they are not consistent with the educational program.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. The principal is able to work well with the superintendent.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. Teachers receive necessary classroom supplies.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. Teachers are indifferent to each other.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. Students respect others who get good grades.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
22. Teachers feel pressure from the community.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. The principal's recommendations are given serious consideration by his or her superiors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. The principal is willing to make changes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. Supplementary materials are available for classroom use.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. Teachers exhibit friendliness to each other.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
28. Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
29. Select citizen groups are influential with the board.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
30. The principal is impeded by the superiors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
31. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of faculty members.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
32. The principal schedules the work to be done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
33. Teachers have access to needed instructional materials.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
34. Teachers in this school are cool and aloof to each other.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
35. Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
36. The school is open to the whims of the public.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
37. The morale of the teachers is high.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
38. Academic achievement is recognized and acknowledged by the school.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
39. A few vocal parents can change school policy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
40. There is a feeling of trust and confidence among the staff.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
41. Students try hard to improve on previous work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
42. Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
43. The learning environment is orderly and serious.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
44. Teachers identify with the school.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix C: Permission to Use *PIMRS*

October 6, 2010

Jill Owens

Dear Jill:

As copyright holder and publisher, you have my permission as publisher to use the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* in your research study. In using the scale, you may make unlimited copies of any of the three forms of the PIMRS.

Please note the following conditions of use:

1. This authorization extends only to the use of the PIMRS for research purposes, not for general school district use of the instrument for evaluation or staff development purposes;
2. *The user must include a reliability analysis in the study if suitable quantitative data has been collected;*
3. The user agrees to send a soft copy of the *completed study* and the *data set* to the publisher upon completion of the research.

Please be advised that a separate *permission to publish* letter will be sent after the publisher receives a soft copy of the completed study and I have confirmed that you included a reliability analysis.

Sincerely,



Professor Philip Hallinger
7250 Golf Pointe Way
Sarasota FL, 34243
Hallinger@gmail.com

Appendix D: Park Hill School District Approval



To: Jill Owens – Park Hill South High School

Baker University Institutional Review Board

From: Dr. Mike Kimbrel – Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment

Re: Research Approval – “Teacher Perceptions and Principal Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and the Impact of These Perceptions on Organizational Health”

To Whom It May Concern,

This letter is to confirm that Jill Owens has provided our district with the necessary application and has approval to conduct research to complete the project entitled “Teacher Perceptions and Principal Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and the Impact of These Perceptions on Organizational Health.” The study referenced in this letter has been reviewed and accepted through our standard process for research approval. If you should have any questions, please contact me at kimbrelm@parkhill.k12.mo.us or 816.359.6804. Thank you for supporting our employee’s research in the Park Hill School District and I look forward to the results of the study.

Sincerely,



Mike Kimbrel

Mike Kimbrel, Ph.D. | Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment | Park Hill School District |
7703 NW Barry Road | Kansas City, MO 64153 | 816.359.6804 | www.parkhill.k12.mo.us

Appendix E: Baker University IRB Approval

2-24-2011

Ms. Jill Owens
School of Education Graduate Department
Baker University



BAKER
UNIVERSITY
Own Confidence

RE: IRB: BU-2010-15: Teacher and Principal Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and the Impact of these Perceptions on Organizational Health

Dear Ms. Owens:

The Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed your research project application (BU-2010-15) and approved this project under the Expedited category. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by Baker University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

1. A Project Status Report must be filed with the IRB annually for continuation.
2. Any significant change in the research protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to altering the project.
3. Any change in the investigator(s) named in the original application must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to altering the project.
4. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported to the IRB immediately.
5. When signed consent forms are required:
 - a. the primary investigator must retain the forms until filed,
 - b. consent forms must be filed with the OIR with the annual report,
 - c. the subject must be given a copy of the form at the time of consent.
6. If this is a funded project, a copy of this letter must be with the grant file.

The Office of Institutional Research (OIR) must be notified when this project is completed or terminated. As noted above, you must provide an annual status report to receive approval for maintaining your project. If your project receives funding which requests an annual update, you must file your annual report at least one month prior to the annual update.

Thanks for your cooperation. If you have questions, please contact me.

Sincerely,

William R. Miller, Ph.D.
Chair, Baker University Institutional Review Board

CC: Brad Tate, Ph.D., Faculty Supervisor.

P.O. Box 65
Baldwin City, KS 66006
785.594.6451 | 785.594.2522 fax
www.bakerU.edu

Appendix F: Cover Letter to Principals

March 23, 2011

Dear Principal:

As part of the requirements of the Doctor of Educational Leadership program at Baker University, I am conducting research for the purpose of investigating instructional leadership behaviors and organizational health of secondary schools in the Park Hill School District.

Principals and teachers will be asked to complete two survey instruments. Participants will be asked to complete the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* via an electronic survey. Participants will be asked to complete the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)* via pencil and paper in a faculty meeting or similar setting. The information will be handled with extreme confidentiality. The surveys will not have participant's names or any code that would connect the participant with their responses.

I am contacting you to schedule an appointment to administer the *OHI-S* to your teachers. I have received permission to conduct this research from Dr. Mike Kimbrel, Director of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment for the Park Hill School District. This study has also been approved by the Baker University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me at 359-6043 or via email at owensj@parkhill.k12.mo.us. I would appreciate your assistance with completion of the survey instruments. Thank you in advance for your support.

Sincerely yours,

Jill L. Owens

Enclosure (s)

Appendix G: Face-to-Face Explanation to Faculty

Hello Faculty:

I am Jill Owens and I am conducting research for the purpose of investigating instructional leadership behaviors of secondary principals in the Park Hill School District.

Today you will complete the *Organizational Health Inventory-Secondary (OHI-S)* on paper and pencil. In a few days, you will be asked to complete the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* via an electronic survey.

All surveys and information will be handled with extreme confidentiality. The surveys do not ask for participant's names or contain any code to connect the participant with their responses.

Some questions on the survey may be awkward, please answer every question to the best of your current knowledge.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Appendix H: Email Explanation to Faculty

Final EdD Survey

Owens, Jill

Thu 4/7/2011 8:06 AM

To: Congress Certified Positions <CongressCertifiedPositions@parkhill.k12.mo.us>;



Please click on the link below to take the survey related to your building principal's instructional management.

<http://www.parkhill.k12.mo.us/EdD/Survey/WEB22C5ZG3IUMK/>
(Control & click access survey)

Some questions on the survey may be awkward, please answer every question to the best of your knowledge. It is important that every blank be filled.

The information will be handled with extreme confidentiality. The surveys do not have participants' names or any code that would connect the participant with their responses.

Thanks—I genuinely appreciate your help—I believe this is the last data I will need from you to complete my study. It takes approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Jill Owens, A+ Coordinator

Park Hill South High School 4500 NW River Park Drive Riverside, MO 64150

Appendix I: Permission to Publish *PIMRS*

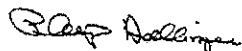
Dr. Philip Hallinger
199/43 Sukhumvit Soi 8
Bangkok, 10110, Thailand
hallinger@gmail.com

June 9, 2015

Jill Owens

As copyright holder and publisher, you have my permission for Proquest/UMI to include the PIMRS scale in your dissertation which they will publish. I understand that your University may also reproduce single copies and give my assent for that purpose.

Sincerely,



Professor Philip Hallinger