12-1991

A Comparison of Male and Female Elementary School Principals' Perceived Instructional Leadership Behavior

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A COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

by

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A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
Department of Educational Leadership

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
December 1991

A COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' PERCEIVED INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR

Carol Lynn Babcock, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1991

This study investigated and compared the perceptions of male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior. Perceptions were solicited from elementary school principals who held membership in the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association. The objective of the study was to compare male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior. The dimensions of instructional leadership compared were: Defining the Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate.

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) sought perceptions on the major dimensions of instructional leadership behavior. The survey was mailed to the elementary school principals. Of the 270 surveys distributed, 79% were returned. Resulting data were analyzed by gender and (a) the years of experience as a principal, (b) years of experience as a teacher, (c) school enrollment, and (d) the highest degree held.

The results of the survey showed that both male and female elementary school principals perceived they performed the following roles of instructional leadership most often: (a) promoting

professional development, (b) monitoring student progress, (c) maintaining high visibility, (d) providing incentives for learning, and (e) supervising and evaluating instruction.

In addition, the following roles were perceived as performed most often by females: (a) framing the school goals, (b) providing incentives for teachers, and (c) communicating the school goals.

When testing for gender differences, it was found that female elementary school principals perceived themselves performing more than males perceived themselves performing in most all of the roles of instructional leadership behavior. Specifically, female elementary school principals performed significantly different than males in the areas of framing the school goals, communicating the school goals, providing incentives for teachers, and promoting professional development. Few significant differences were shown among the groups when examining differences regarding the independent variables of the study.

Order Number 9211826

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am extremely grateful and appreciative to the many individuals who have provided their advice, support, expertise, and time. First, I would like to thank my committee chair, Dr. Charles Warfield, and committee members, Dr. David Cowden and Dr. Lowell Walsworth, for their knowledgeable assistance and guidance.

In addition, the following people have been most helpful to me as I pursued this research. A special thank you goes to: John Reiter for his continual support and to Susan Arledge, Sam Barresi, Nancy Colflesh, Kent Gage, Linda Gantos, Shirley Gregory, Judy Judd, Carol Keeler, Ghada Khoury, Jane Kuckel, Linda McLaren, Lee Pakko, Jo Ann Pastor, and Nellie Stell plus my Livonia Public Schools' friends and colleagues. Also, the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association has provided much needed help and assistance.

Lastly, thank you to Richard and Verla Babcock for always being there, and loving gratitude is given in memory of my parents for teaching me the tremendous value in seeing a project through to completion!

Carol Lynn Babcock

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

Over the past 30 years, the school principalship has been the subject of hundreds of studies. The central role of the principal has been viewed, variously, as building manager, administrator, politician, change agent, boundary spanner, and instructional leader (Smith & Andrews, 1989). During the last decade, research has centered on the principal as instructional leader, accountable for the academic achievement of students. The principal is cited as the key to a successful school and the person having the direct responsibility for improving instruction in the current literature on effective schools.

In his study entitled What Schools Are For, Goodlad (1979) concluded that the principal is central to the direction that the school will take. The principal is the main link between the community and the school. The principal must have an understanding of and feeling for how the community perceives the role of the school in order for that principal to develop a sense of mission and direction. It is the principal, more than any other individual, who articulates the prevailing ambiance and creates a sense of mission (Lazarus, cited in Kuckel, 1989/1990).

The quest for a clearer understanding of what makes certain principals more effective than others has spanned several decades (DeBevoise, 1984). Many researchers have traced the evolution of this inquiry (Greenfield, 1982; Rutherford, Hord, Huling, & Hall, 1983). An even greater number of scholars have attempted to synthesize or categorize the findings of studies that examine principals' traits, behaviors, styles, and contexts (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1981; Greenfield, 1982; Persell & Crookson, 1982).

The concept of instructional leadership is broadly interpreted and described by DeBevoise (1984) as encompassing those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning. Generally, such actions focus on setting schoolwide goals, defining the purpose of schooling, providing the resources needed for learning to occur, supervising and evaluating teachers, coordinating staff development programs, and creating collegial relationships with and among teachers (DeBevoise, 1984).

All school administrators in fulfilling their job responsibilities perform primarily the same activities. However, Shakeshaft (1986) stated:

> There are differences in the ways male and female administrators spend their time, in the ways they interact day to day, in the priorities that guide their actions, in the perceptions of them by others, and in the satisfaction they derive from their work. These differences create a work environment that is qualitatively different for women than it is for men.
>
> Men and women tend to carry out their work similarly; however, they may put a different emphasis on the importance of the tasks. Women are likely to view the job of

> principal . . . as that of a master teacher or educational leader while men view it from a managerial, industrial perspective. In addition, women approach public school administration as a service to the community or to society, while men see the job as an indicator of personal status or achievement. (p. 117)
>
> For many of the characteristics being touted as critical for future success--concern for people, interpersonal skills, intuitive management, and creative problem-solving--are qualities that women as a group are encouraged to develop and rely on throughout their lives. As such, it seems the skills that women were encouraged to leave behind when they entered the world of management are finally being recognized as critical to their companies' long-term health and viability. (Loden, 1985, p. 2)

Dwyer (1984) reported that personal traits, experience, training, and beliefs are influential factors affecting principals' decisions and activities as instructional leaders. A school building must operate smoothly, activities must be coordinated, and students and teachers must feel safe. At the same time, teachers in an effective school expect the principal to serve as an instructional leader who supports their professional development. The literature on effective schools demands that the principal also spend time as an instructional leader--visiting classrooms and working with teachers (Rallis & Highsmith, 1986).

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there are perceived differences between male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior. Presently, there is limited knowledge available on the comparison of male and female principals as instructional leaders.

It is suggested by L. Anderson and Pigford (1987) that it is impractical to apply the instructional leadership concept to building principals because of external factors such as district policies and job descriptions, the nature of life in schools, and the paucity of available research evidence concerning effective teaching practices.

An alternative explanation for the problem would be the source of the impracticality of the instructional leadership concept resides within the principals themselves, individually or collectively. Three arguments that parallel those above can be offered in support of this alternative explanation.

First, building principals tend to be reactive. rather than proactive. Principals are not likely to become instructional leaders until their role and responsibilities are defined to include instructional leadership. To assume a proactive stance on instructional leadership, a certain amount of risk taking on the part of principals is needed. Second, principals tend to be activity oriented, rather than goal oriented. Innovative instructional leadership provides one such purpose. Third, some principals simply do not possess the knowledge and skills to function as instructional leaders (L. Anderson & Pigford, 1987).

Bach (1976) summarized women's styles of leadership, women's culture, and much of what is good for schools when she said:

> The ideal principal must now cultivate all the virtues that have always been expected of the ideal woman. Women have finally lucked out by having several thousand years to train for jobs where muscles are out and persuasion is in! (p. 465)

Persell (cited in DeBevoise, 1984) raised the question of whether "all principals can be equally effective instructional leaders. Are there certain personal traits, skills, knowledge or interpersonal styles that principals need in order to be effective instructional leaders" (p. 17)?

The literature asserts that effective principals are forceful, energetic, and goal-directed (Egerton, 1977; Hall, Rutherford, Hord, & Huling, 1984). Perhaps an important lesson to be learned from an examination of the characteristics of effective principals, relevant to instructional leadership, is the diversity of styles that appear to work (DeBevoise, 1984).

> Male administrators are learning that all persons possess various blends of so-called "male" and "female" leadership traits. They are realizing that organizations still need masculine traits, but that they also need the so-called "feminine" leadership skills as well. Such a healthy attitude should result in fewer generalizations about leadership styles. Out of this modified mindset, genuine progress will be possible. (Jones, 1987, p. 3)

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) studied various individual differences and their influence on principal instructional leadership behavior. Personal variables studied included gender, age, educational training (terminal degree and educational specializations), experience as a principal, administrative training and experience, years at current school site, level of experience as a teacher, and years of teaching experience. None of the personal variables revealed a clear, consistent pattern. However, the personal variable that discriminated best between the groups studied was gender. Their research found the top-ranked principals were women and the

bottom-ranked group was predominantly male. Previous research suggests that women administrators may be more active instructional leaders (Hemphill, Griffiths, & Frederiksen, 1962; Salley, McPherson, & Baehr, 1979). The similar findings concerning the gender variable in this and previous studies suggest further research is warranted. In addition, if substantiated, investigation should be undertaken to investigate why it is that women attend more closely to instructional management functions.

Andrews and Hallet (1983) conducted a study in the state of Washington that found that the size of the school district and size of the school have some bearing on how principals spend their time. Also, size of school relates to the ability of principals to spend their time on activities that they perceive to be most important. The larger the school, the more time the principal devotes to community relations and the more total time the principal spends on the job.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) noted that differences among principals in their instructional management behavior may also be a function of the environment within which they work. Research on organizations often notes the effects that context can have on managerial behavior. Salley et al. (1979) found that a number of organizational variables significantly affect principals:

> Principals are captive of their environments . . . the size of the school system, the size of the school, and the number of grade levels in the school are organizational variables that influence the principal's definition of his or her work and militate against his or her emerging as an innovator. Ethnic and socioeconomic characteristics play

> a significant part in defining the work of the principal. (p. 34-35)

In Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) study, the relationship between instructional leadership and the following organizational variables were examined: school size, school socioeconomic status, special program management, and district office relationship. School size is the only organizational variable consistently associated with principal instructional management activities. Principals of smaller schools with a mean size of 385 pupils were found to be more involved in managing curriculum and instruction than principals in the larger schools with a mean size of 600 pupils. This finding is consistent with other research on the relationship between school size and principal professional leadership (Gross & Herriott, 1965; Salley et al., 1979).

Since Andrews and Hallet's (1983), Hallinger and Murphy's (1985), and Salley's et al. (1979) studies indicate some attitudinal difference based on school and school district size, the question was raised as to whether the principals' instructional leadership behavior was perceived similarly. Would the perceptions of elementary school principals vary, based on the size of the district or the size of the school?

For the purpose of this study, the following questions were selected for investigation:

1. Are there differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior?

2. Are there differences among the male elementary school principals with different years of experience as a principal or as a teacher with regard to their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared to female elementary school principals of the same groups of different years of experience?

3. Are there differences among the groups of male elementary school principals who are employed in school buildings of different student enrollments, in regard to their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared to female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of the same size in terms of student enrollment?

4. Are there differences among the groups of male elementary school principals with different degree level earned, in regard to their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared to female elementary school principals of the same group of different degree level earned?

Significance of Study

The principal, as the instructional leader, has been the focus of much recent research although it remains unclear what an instructional leader actually does. In addition, questions remain as to the similarities and differences of the perception of male and female principals' instructional leadership behaviors. M. Cohen (1981) agreed that research on what principals actually do, and the consequences for student learning is still in the infancy stage.

This study is important for the following reasons:

1. School districts may use the findings to gain knowledge of what the instructional leadership behaviors are of elementary school principals.

2. The findings can provide school boards, superintendents, and principals with a greater understanding of male and female principals' instructional leadership behaviors.

3. The findings can serve as a catalyst for producing further study in the area of principals as instructional leaders and the comparison of males and females in leadership roles.

Explanations and/or Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this study, and to provide a common basis of understanding, the terms used are explained or defined as follows:

Instructional leadership: The major dimensions of instructional leadership or management (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) are:

> Defining the Mission: (a) framing school goals and (b) communicating school goals.
>
> Managing the Instructional Program: (a) supervising and evaluating instruction, (b) coordinating curriculum, and (c) monitoring student progress.
>
> Promoting School Climate: (a) protecting instructional time, (b) promoting professional development, (c) maintaining high visibility, (d) providing incentives for teachers, (e) enforcing academic standards, and (f) providing incentives for students. (p. 221)

Elementary school principal: The chief administrator in a K-5, K-6, or K-8 (kindergarten through fifth, sixth, or eighth grade) school building who is responsible for providing leadership, supervisory, and administrative skills to promote educational development

of each student. The principal supervises instructional staff including teachers; aides and paraprofessionals; and support personnel including custodial, cafeteria, secretarial/clerical, and/or other staff members assigned to the building (Rochester Public Schools, cited in Urbanski, 1988).

Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association (MEMSPA): The professional association in the state of Michigan for elementary and middle school principals.

Limitations

For the purpose of conducting this investigation, this study was limited to a random sample of elementary school principals who hold membership in the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association (MEMSPA). The persons surveyed were employed by public school districts.

MEMSPA members were chosen for this study because it is the largest organization representing the greatest number of elementary school principals in the state. It is recognized that principals who were not members of MEMSPA and were not included in this study might have different perceptions regarding principals' instructional leadership behavior.

The study obtained the perceptions of elementary school principals. It was not determined to what extent respondents differed in terms of knowledge relating to perceptions about principals' instructional leadership behavior. It is recognized that the research methodology and process selected for this study have inherent

weaknesses, as do other methodologies, and consequently must be a study limitation.

Overview

The purpose of this chapter has been to state the problem, the questions for investigation, the definition of terms, the limitations, and the organization of this dissertation. Reviewed in Chapter II are the available literature, studies, and testimony. A review of the problem, the sample, the instrumentation, and procedures used in this study are reviewed in Chapter III. The report of the findings is included in Chapter IV; and Chapter V consists of a summary of the study, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of literature focuses on the elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior and similarities and differences between male and female administrative styles and behaviors.

The Principal as the Building Leader

Principals assume enormous responsibilities and obligations. The most important of these is to build a structure of relationships within the school so that all children have the opportunity to learn. To fulfill this obligation, school principals must create conditions in which each child can grow to his or her full potential and all children are given equal opportunity to succeed in our society (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

Bennis (cited in Smith & Andrews, 1989) stated that there are four competencies of leaders. The competencies are management of meaning, of attention, of trust, and self-management. Bennis described the competencies by the following:

> To be competent as an educational leader, the individual must first be able to manage the meaning of schooling, which means that the leader has a clear understanding of the purpose for schools and can manage the symbols of the organization toward fulfilling that purpose--the primary

> theme about which all activity must be organized. Management of attention is the educational leader's ability to get teachers to focus and expand their talents to teach children. Management of trust means that leaders behave in such a way that others believe in them and their style of leadership does not become an issue. Management of self is simply, "I know who I am; I know my strengths and weaknesses. I play to my strengths and shore up my weaknesses." (p. 5)

Smith and Andrews (1989) pointed out that there has been far more research on the consequences of leader behavior than on the determinants of a leader's behavior. The prevailing view has been that leaders shape organizations--not that organizations shape leaders. Role theorists (Kahn & Rosenthal, 1964; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1975) suggest that the principal's leadership behavior is shaped by the perceptions of how other people (the superintendent, other principals, teachers, students, and parents) want the leader to behave. The principal's perception of role requirements is influenced by prescriptions such as job description, day-to-day requests, and orders and directions from the superintendent. Role expectations of teachers and students are communicated in a more subtle manner; a sensitive principal soon learns to recognize and respond to these role expectations. Also, at times, various people make incompatible demands on the principal, creating "role conflict." In addition to these role expectations from other people, the principal's perception of role requirements depends on the nature of the school's mission and tasks.

History of the Elementary Principalship

The principalship developed as an important position of supervision in the first half of the 19th century. "Head teachers" were appointed in the one and two room schools to handle discipline and assist teachers. The principal had powers of the superintendent and handled superintendent's duties before the superintendent's position was established. Also, the principal attended board meetings and frequently reported on the school and organizational and instructional matters. However, the majority of the principal's time was spent teaching, usually in the upper grades. There was evidence of a movement, documented in 1858, to have the principal be separated from teaching responsibilities. The separation provided the opportunity for the improvement of instruction. Until the 1920s, Elsbree and Reuther (1954) reported, it was the responsibility of the principal to occasionally take over classes, and to demonstrate to the teachers exactly how the job should be done. The training of teachers was especially important in the early days of the principalship because of the near impossibility of obtaining trained teachers.

The first university courses in educational administration emphasizing efficiency as well as efficacy were introduced in the early 1900s. Prospective principals were introduced to age-grade tables, cost analysis, achievement tests, and building management.

Ravitch (1984) indicated that in 1921 the studies and publications of the National Association of Elementary School Principals

stressed the professional potentialities of the principal for educational leadership. The studies called for more leadership and less routine work to improve the quality of teaching and curriculum. The interpersonal and cultural aspects of leadership were recognized as important aspects of school administration and not just management. Rallis and Highsmith (1986) reported that before the 1950s, principals concentrated their efforts on being the educational leaders of their buildings. During the 1950s and 1960s, as schools and school systems grew larger and more complex, the emphasis of administration shifted toward budget, personnel, and public relations. The necessity for today's principals to play multiple roles can make it difficult, perhaps even impossible, to define instructional leadership clearly.

Out of the original concept of "principal teacher" has grown the idea that the elementary principal should devote much of his or her time and work to instructional supervision. However, Manasse (1982) reported that in recent decades the role seems to have evolved in the direction of a more managerial oriented set of functions.

Instructional Leadership and the Elementary School Principal

There are many differing definitions of instructional leadership. It was suggested by Avila (1990) that principals with a clear idea of what instructional leadership is and the tasks they will perform under that label can avoid difficulties with staff and

superiors by communicating that idea to both groups. Further, just as the appropriate leadership style is situational, definitions of instructional leadership may vary to allow principals to realistically meet the demands of the particular context within which they operate.

Many principals believe and define instructional leadership as: making classroom observations, holding pre- and postobservation conferences with teachers, and conferencing with staff about long-range curriculum goals (Litchfield, 1986). However, this definition conflicts with the reality of the day-to-day demands placed on principals. The majority of principals find it difficult, and sometimes impossible, to spend enough time in classrooms plus conferencing with teachers to fulfill the requirements of this definition of instructional leaders. Therefore, by this definition which is also commonly found in the research, most principals cannot be considered instructional leaders.

The problem is compounded by central office personnel who see instructional leadership as a simple and straightforward task. Frequently, the success of an instructional leader is measured alone by the number of classroom observations and conferences held by a principal. Often the number of observations is not high enough to satisfy central office so the principal is told to spend more time as an instructional leader and make more classroom visits. The central office push, with support from the professional journals, does not improve the ability of principals to act as instructional leaders; instead it produces feelings of guilt that they're not

doing what they're supposed to.

Litchfield (1986), who wrote for the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, suggested that principals do not have to spend large blocks of time formally observing teachers and conferencing with them. Litchfield stated, "that effective principals must be constantly aware of what goes on in the classrooms and must observe and understand classroom instruction" (p. 203).

Throughout current literature is the pervasive notion that the principal plays a key role in all phases of school effectiveness. The principal is the critical person in school reform at the building level. The principal of the 1990s, in comparison with the principal of the 1930s, is confronted with a kaleidoscope of demands. The principal of the 1990s must be able to define the mission of the school and put forth the kinds of leadership qualities that will accomplish that mission (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Goodlad, 1979; Lezotte, 1979).

As M. Cohen (1981) stated, research on what principals actually do, and the consequences for student learning is still in the infancy stage.

> However, through observation, common sense and intuition we are helped to formulate an image of a good principal, a strong principal, an effective principal. Such principals are often referred to in glowing terms: "runs a tight ship," "sure keeps the parents at bay," "knows the district inside and out," or "keeps the building ship-shape." However, the imagery seems to be more elusive when we describe the principal as a strong instructional leader. (Smith & Andrews, 1989. p. 7).

Good schools have good principals (L. Anderson & Pigford, 1987). Good principals provide the necessary instructional leadership to make the schools effective and always improving (L. Anderson & Pigford, 1987). These two widely accepted generalizations have led to the necessity of defining the qualities of an instructional leader and what tasks must be accomplished in order for a principal to function as an instructional leader in a school (Brookover et al., 1982; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Sweeney, 1982).

Rutherford (1985) suggested that "more effective" principals differ from "less effective" principals in their possession of the five following leadership qualities:

> 1. Effective principals have a vision or goals for their schools.
>
> 2. Effective principals are able to translate the vision into action.
>
> 3. Effective principals are able to create an environment supportive of efforts to achieve goals.
>
> 4. Effective principals know what's going on in their schools.
>
> 5. Effective principals act on their knowledge. (p. 32)

Despite the general endorsement of these five instructional leadership qualities, the movement toward principals as instructional leaders is not without its critics (Cuban, 1986).

> Although most practicing school administrators see value in the concept of instructional leadership, many question the feasibility or practicality of applying the concept. Three primary arguments are offered in support of this apparent impracticality. First, the actual role and responsibilities of building principals are unclear. Second, principals do not have sufficient time to do all that needs to be done. Third, there is a lack of agreement as

to what constitutes effective teaching. (L. Anderson & Pigford, 1987, p. 68)

The following job description of an elementary principal and list of major functions and responsibilities demonstrates that the principal of today faces a profusion of tasks, responsibilities, and challenges.

Job description:

The principal holds the key leadership position in the operation of the educational program in the building. An effective principal establishes the tone, climate, and direction of the school through careful long-range and short-term assessment, planning, monitoring and evaluation of student progress, and the instructional program. The principal helps teachers do their best in the classroom, helps students succeed in their educational programs, and encourages parents' participation in their children's education.

Major functions and responsibilities:

1. The principal is responsible for directing the professional staff and other resources of the school toward school improvement. As an instructional leader, the principal must possess a holistic view of the elementary curriculum and goals and must lead the professional staff toward these goals. Curriculum development, in-service education, community relations, and operational principles of administration in the building are carried out within a framework of system-wide agreements on philosophy, objectives of education, and operational guidelines.

2. The principal must be a strong advocate for student success and for ensuring that the curriculum accommodates students' academic, exploratory, enrichment, and specialized needs. The principal must be able to motivate teachers to have high expectations for students and themselves.

3. The principal must know the attributes of quality instruction as identified through research in order to validate effective teaching strategies. He or she must be capable of establishing the expectation for good teaching and also possess the skills for supervising and evaluating instruction.

4. The principal must be able to motivate and lead the staff in an ongoing and continual process of staff development and curriculum improvement. The principal should be capable of involving himself/herself and the school staff in identifying staff development needs, setting goals and objectives, developing strategies for change, implementing desired changes, and evaluating program effectiveness.

5. The principal must be capable of developing a safe, orderly, and disciplined school environment that is conducive to teaching and learning. The principal needs to be able to gain the understanding and cooperation of teachers and students in accepting a basic set of rules of conduct. He or she also must be able to establish a climate where those rules are administered uniformly and fairly.

6. The principal is responsible for and should become highly specialized in the field of community relations. The principal should be particularly concerned with the reactions of the community toward the educational program. He or she must be capable of generating parental and community involvement and support.

7. The principal must implement the administration of the building in a democratic manner, believe in utilizing cooperative group processes for problem solving and goal setting, and be a practitioner of motivational theory for staff and students. (Livonia Public Schools, 1990, unnumbered pages)

Lezotte, Hathaway, Miller, Passalacqua, & Brookover (1978), in research on effective schools, found seven practices that distinguish effective schools from noneffective schools: (1) safe and orderly environment, (2) clear school mission, (3) strong instructional leadership by the principal, (4) high expectations for success, (5) opportunity to learn and students' time on task, (6) frequent monitoring of student progress, and (7) home-school relations.

An emphasis of Lezotte's et al. (1978) research was the importance of the role of the principal to develop a clear perception of the role of the school (mission) which is understood and accepted by

the staff and communicated to the school community. Lezotte et al. also stressed the importance of the principal's active role in insuring that instruction reflect strategies that research supports as enhancing learning. The effective principal understands that all students can learn. He or she has high expectations for student achievement and expects teachers to promote the same tenet with their students and continually monitor that process. The effective principal is also involved in curriculum development and implementation.

The following researchers have successfully resurrected an old maxim: effective principal, effective school (e.g., Armor et al., 1976; Brookover et al., 1978; Wynne, 1980). Edmonds (1979), for example, asserted that one of the indispensable characteristics of effective schools is strong administrative leadership. In addition, Edmonds emphasized that the various elements of a good school will not come together without strong administrative leadership.

However, as the effective school researchers argued their position, other researchers found that principals were not strong instructional leaders in their schools. Goldhammer (1971) found that principals themselves complained that their power and autonomy as school leaders had decreased and that they make fewer decisions regarding instruction at the school level. Martin and Willower (1981) concluded that the principal's work is characterized by variety, brevity, and fragmentation and that most of the principal's activities involve purely verbal elements. It was found that the principal's role as an instructional leader is relatively

minor. Morris (1981) and his associates stated that instructional leadership (in terms of classroom observation and teacher supervision) is not the central focus of the principalship. Martin and Willower (1981) found that principals spent 17.4% of their time on instructional matters. The majority of the routine education of youngsters that occurred in the schools was clearly the responsibility of the teaching staff.

In addition, Stronge and McVeain (1986) undertook an on-the-job time allocation study to determine what the role of today's elementary school principal is. Also studied was a comparison of the principal being predominantly that of a middle manager or instructional leader. It was found that a typical principal performs an enormous number of tasks each day. Program development, the category most closely related to instructional leadership accounted for only 6.6% of the time. Staff development took 11% of the time. It was found that the principal's role is still primarily that of an administrative generalist with school management being the predominant focus of the elementary principalship taking 54% of the principal's time. The authors suggested if principals are to heed the call from educational reformers to become instructional leaders, it is obvious that they must take on a dramatically different role (Stronge, 1988).

In August 1985, state legislation mandated that Illinois principals make improvement of instruction their primary responsibility and required them to devote a majority of their time to curriculum planning and staff development. In order to measure the impact of

the legislation, the 1986 study was replicated in 1988. The 1988 study reported that program development took 10% of the principals' time and staff development 14%. School management took 49% of the time of the principal. Therefore, after the mandated legislation, program development increased 3.4%, staff development showed an increase of 3%, and school management decreased by 5%.

A 1987-88 survey from the U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Educational Statistics reported by T. Snyder (1990) that public elementary school principals spent an average of 47.5 hours a week on official duties. Administrative matters occupied the largest share of their time (13 hours), but a wide variety of other activities also took substantial blocks of time.

Working with teachers and students accounted for 11 hours, while teacher supervision and evaluation took about 7 hours, curriculum reviews 6 hours, student discipline 4 hours, and parent and community relations 4 hours. Principals also spent 2 hours a week preparing for or teaching classes, and 1 hour in fund raising activities.

Keefe (1984) suggested, in order for principals to find time for instructional leadership a system for getting things done has to be established and followed. Keefe reported that most principals spend their time in activities that are very short, highly changeable, and often initiated by others. It was found that principals averaged 13 activities or contacts per hour, most limited to 1 or 2 minutes in length. Eighty-five percent of the tasks or interactions necessitated less than 9 minutes of time. Many principals do not

control their time because they fail to plan its use. Indeed, many neglect to set aside quality time for program development and instructional leadership in the face of competing demands. Crises can dominate a principal's life unless alternative plans are made and appropriate collaboration or delegation is exercised.

A study of elementary school principals by Pharis and Banks-Zakariya (1979) challenged principals to define their own role so others (superintendents, state agencies, federal agencies, degree and certification programs, and communities) don't define it for them. The Pharis and Banks-Zakariya report concluded that in the future more principals will be male, schools will be smaller, collective bargaining skills will be more sophisticated, and the school's power structure will be changing.

Another study (Peterson, 1978) reported that principals engage predominantly in service, advisory, and auditing relationships. They tend not to become directly involved in the work flow at the classroom level. This finding (and also many others) confirms that principals do not become involved to any great extent in classroom observation, curriculum development, and staff development. To summarize, principals are not involved in the core tasks of the school. Women principals, however, are reportedly more likely to function as instructional leaders (Duke, 1982; Gross & Herriott, 1965).

Research on the public school principal has found consistently that the principalship is highly interpersonal, full of ambiguous and conflicting expectations, possessed of considerable latitude in

responding to situations, and confronted by a diverse range of problems, many of which are out of the principal's direct influence (Greenfield, 1982).

Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) stated that every principal can be--and, in fact, already is--an instructional leader. An instructional leader is described as someone who has a significant impact, for better or worse, on student opportunities to learn in the classroom. This definition eliminates the leader/manager distinction. Instructional leadership is no longer a separate function distinct from a principal's managerial duties; rather, the easiest most direct way for a school principal to exercise instructional leadership is through the managerial tasks he or she engages in every day.

Indeed, managers inevitably influence instruction and learning whether they intend to or not. Following this definition, all principals are already instructional leaders, though not necessarily good ones. Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990) concluded their article by saying, "All principals are instructional leaders, since all principals inevitably influence what students have an opportunity to do in the classroom" (p. 29). This perspective suggests that the instructional leader/manager distinction is not particularly useful, since one of the most effective ways of influencing instruction--for better or for worse--is through the managerial tasks all principals engage in as a part of their job.

Rallis and Highsmith (1986) offered a contradictory point of view and questioned whether it is practical to expect most principals to perform two roles that are so different and require such

diverse skills. The authors suggested that the first realistic step in school improvement is to recognize that school management and instructional leadership are two separate tasks that cannot be performed by a single individual. The authors stated that in a good school, management and instructional leadership exist simultaneously. Management means keeping the nuts and bolts in place and the machinery working smoothly. Leadership means keeping sight of long-term goals and steering in their direction.

Mendez (1987) presented another view and agreed that the principal cannot be everything to everybody and the principal's position must be structured to fit the function it is meant to serve. Mendez proposed that the principal's main responsibility would be coordinating and allocating resources for the instructional program. Several assistants would be selected from the faculty. These teachers would be given partial released time during the day to carry out their administrative duties. They would be paid small stipends to reflect added responsibilities. Areas of assignment for the administrative assistants might be: administrative assistant for discipline, administrative assistant for support services, administrative assistant for student activities, and administrative assistant for supervision. The number of assistants would depend on the size of the student population and other local concerns.

Since the effective schools movement much has been said about the principal as a leader. Lightfoot (cited in Thoms, 1986), writing near the beginning of the movement, described the principal as one who is bigger than life and one who possesses "vision and

purposeful action" (p. 196). Her observation of the principalship follows:

> The people most responsible for defining the school's vision and articulating its ideological stance are the principals and headmasters of their schools. A principal is said to be the person who must inspire the commitment of his or her faculty, the respect of his or her students and the trust of the parents. He or she sits on the boundaries between school and community, must negotiate with the superintendent and school board, must protect teachers from external intrusions and harassment, and must be the public imagemaker and spokesman for the school. Somehow he or she is bigger than life. (p. 196)

The larger-than-life image has led many to question who is the real instructional leader. In addition to elementary school administrators questioning instructional leadership, secondary school administrators also are concerned about instructional leadership. Thoms (1986) quoted the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) definition of the effective principal as,

> One who gets high marks in problem analysis, judgment, organizational ability, decisiveness, leadership (the ability to perceive the needs and concerns of others), the ability to endure stress, the ability to communicate well orally in the presentation of facts and ideas, and the ability to address ideas clearly in writing. (p. 198).

In addition, NASSP (cited in Thoms, 1986) stated that effective principals have a broad range of interests and understand current events, economics, and the arts. They are people needing to achieve in all the activities they attempt. Effective principals hold education in high regard, stand for something, and know what they stand for.

Granted that the principal's image of being described as "larger than life" (Thoms, 1986, p. 199) is impressive, principals

engage in activities typical of other administrators. Those activities were characterized by brevity, fragmentation, and variety (Mintzberg, 1973).

Pitner (cited in Thoms, 1986) listed a number of typifications of principals:

> (a) one-on-one (up to 80% of day); (b) little time spent in office; (c) spent most of day with subordinates, inward rather than outward focus; (d) engaging in large number of separate events in a day, with numerous interactions; (e) reactive rather than proactive, few self-initiated tasks; (f) interruptions and discontinuity; (g) numerous unimportant decisions, trivial agendas; and (h) preference for the specific, concrete, solvable, and currently pressing. (p. 199)

Thoms (1986) found that instructional leadership happens as a result of routine behavior: actions like goal setting and planning, monitoring, evaluation, communicating, scheduling, staffing, modeling; all those things that were presented by NASSP's definition of an effective principal. Thoms stated that it becomes clear and important to note that these routine behaviors of principals exist within a clear vision of what the principals want for their schools. Burns's (1978) study reinforces this finding--that the leader's fundamental act is to induce people to be so aware or conscious of what they feel--to feel their true needs so strongly, to define their values so meaningfully--that they can be moved into purposeful action. Value inducing, value setting, and value infusing are the fundamental leadership tasks that are accomplished by effective principals through routine behaviors carried out within a context of vision. The principal's overarching vision is what makes the principal the most important person in the school.

The frequent routine situations where principals interact with staff, students, and community members about instruction are important to include in the quest to define instructional leadership. The Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development (Litchfield, 1986) defined instructional leadership with such daily occurrences underscored:

> Principals do not affect the instructional process. We propose that their ability to have an impact varies with their capacity to link their routine management activities to their instructional systems and to perform these actions in accord with their overarching views of schooling. (p. 205)

Similarities and Differences Between Male and Female Elementary School Principals

> Since the 19th century, women's part in education has been significant and substantial. Women have been both educators and among the educated but have not consistently served as leaders. Women have had less power, prestige, position and money than men. (Biklen & Brannigan, 1980, p. vii)

There has been a dramatic shift in the sex ratio among elementary school principals. Women's presence in elementary school management became so common in June 1926 that the editors of School Life, a publication of the United States Bureau of Education (U.S. Department of Interior, 1926), forerunner of the Office of Education, were moved to comment on this phenomenon in an editorial entitled, "The Woman Principal--A Fixture in American Schools." In 1928 the majority (55%) of the administrators of public primary schools were women; three decades later, in 1958, the proportion of women in the elementary principalship had dropped to 38%. However, when the

generations of women administrators, who began their careers between 1900 and 1930, started retiring in the middle decades of the century, they were usually replaced by men. The downward trend persisted during the 1960s with the result that in 1971 only one out of five (21%) of elementary school principals were women. The decline of women in the principalship persisted during the 1960s, a decade in which strong demands were being made by the leaders of the women's rights movement for equality of occupational opportunity for members of their sex. In addition, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, which was passed by Congress in 1964, forbid sex discrimination in the hiring and promotion of personnel (Gross & Trask, 1976). Although the Women's Liberation Movement, which began in the 1960s, drew attention to the underrepresentation of women in traditional positions of leadership in the schools, very little movement occurred for women in school administration during the 1960s and 1970s. The percentage of women in school administration in the 1980s was less than the percentage of women in 1905. The gender structure of males as managers and females as workers has remained relatively stable for the past 100 years.

Social change often is difficult for people and as Douglas (cited in Biklen & Brannigan, 1980) noted, one must expect change to upset the calm order of nature. However, as years pass, what was difficult for one group is not controversial for the next. Education for women is an example. Originally, extending educational rights to women threatened male dominance in society but then it was seen that women's education focused on its usefulness for women's

domestic role (Cott, 1977).

Women had to struggle for access to higher education. The struggle is understandable when one reads the following extreme thinking or prediction by Clarke (cited in Biklen & Brannigan, 1980). Clarke's Sex in Education, published in 1874, predicted that women who went to college would become insane or sterile because protracted study would take energy from the ovaries and give it to the brain.

Teachers' early training during most of the 19th century was minimal with the majority having the equivalent of a high school education. The limited training meshed with the superintendent's image of the preferred teacher--one who would be subordinate and would "toe the line" as did their students (Tyack, 1974).

Women matched both the ideology and the pocketbooks of school officials. Women were preferred by superintendents because of their willingness to comply with regulations and also women's salaries were one-half to three-fourths less than men. In addition, their nurturing, maternal behavior was thought to make them better teachers. These images help explain why the pool has not produced candidates for leadership in the educational field.

An example of discrimination in educational leadership that women have faced is the exclusion from membership in Phi Delta Kappa, the international education honorary organization. As late as 1971, chapters were suspended from the national organization for initiating women.

Female administrators face unique problems. Their socialization causes them to question their ability to lead. In addition, the belief that they must excel in everything they tackle--while balancing a career, schooling, and family responsibilities--tends to become an extremely heavy burden. The prejudices they meet, the stereotyping they experience, and the discrimination they encounter in hiring and promotion erode confidence and even hope (Gabler, 1987). Gabler also stated that, in our society, people are reluctant to accept women as leaders. Consideration should be given to the image of women that has dominated movie and television screens. The typical western can be recalled with its male hero planning, organizing, directing, and controlling the defense of the passive little woman with children clutching her skirts.

Given such views of women, there is little wonder that men were hired as the leaders of educational institutions. Equal employment opportunities are slim in the public schools in the United States. From the July 1985, Executive Educator, Gabler (1987) reported that: (a) "95.8 percent of all superintendents were men," (b) "91.1 percent of all top central office administrators were men," (c) "93.4 percent of all secondary school principals were men," and (d) "81.1 percent of all elementary school principals were men" (p. 67).

Doud (1989) reported the profile of the "typical" K-8 principal as a white male, 47 years old, who was appointed to his first principalship at age 34. The mean age at which women received their first principalship was at age 39. In schools recognized for excellence by the United States Department of Education in 1989-90, 132

principals were women and 89 principals were men--a 60%/40% split. In 1987-88, they were evenly divided--244 women and 243 men--a 50%/49% split. A question that could be asked is: Why were women principals in the majority or represented one-half of the recognized elementary schools when the actual number of practicing women principals was much less?

Studies have provided support for the notion that the day-to-day activities of principals may differ depending on whether the principal is male or female (Shakeshaft, 1986). Female principals interact more with teachers and students. They spend more time in the classroom or with teachers in discussions about the academic content of the school than do males, and they spend more time outside of school hours with teachers (Fauth, 1984; Gilbertson, 1981; Gross & Trask, 1964). In addition, it was found by Gross and Trask (1976) that women derive more satisfaction from supervising instruction than do men, and men derive greater satisfaction from administrative tasks.

A number of researchers have documented differences between male and female language (Kramer, 1974; Lakoff, 1975). Shakeshaft (1986) stated that, "The findings show that the perception of differences as well as behavioral evidence of differences in written and spoken language exists" (p. 119). Shakeshaft explained that, for instance, women have been found to use correct oral speech forms more often than men and they shy away from universal pronouncements that indicate only one way of seeing things or that the way they understand the world is the only way. Also, women tend to use

language that encourages community building and which is more polite and cheerful than the language of men.

Regarding decision making styles, Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen (cited in Shakeshaft, 1986) found "that women principals involved teachers, superiors, and outsiders in their work, while the men tended to make final decisions and take action without involving others" (p. 121).

Shakeshaft (1986) reported that the female world of school administration might be conceptualized in the following ways:

> Individuals are the most important link. Women spend more time with people, communicate more, care more about individual differences, are concerned more with marginal students and teachers, and motivate more.
>
> Teaching and learning is the major focus of women administrators. Women are more instrumental in instructional learning than men are, and they exhibit greater knowledge of teaching methods and techniques. Women administrators not only emphasize achievement, they coordinate instructional programs and evaluate student progress.
>
> Building community is an essential part of a woman administrator's style. From speech patterns to decision making styles, women exhibit a more dramatic, participatory style that encourages inclusiveness rather than exclusiveness in schools. (p. 121)
>
> Some school superintendents interviewed in a previous study argued that it was simple common sense that women principals give more professional leadership than do men, but others took the opposite point of view: that common sense points to the men. Those with a bias toward the female elementary school administrator argued as follows: in comparison with men, women principals typically are more experienced as teachers; they know a great deal more about elementary education; and they know how to handle the problems confronting children more effectively; moreover, male principals are so interested in moving up the administrative ladder that they tend to neglect the professional leadership facet of their relationship with their teachers. (Gross & Herriott, 1965, p. 169)

As administrators, women are predominate in the elementary principalship where there is consistent documentation of their success as administrators. However, the ratio of women to men has diminished in the last 20 years (Gross & Trask, 1976). In 1988, the Educational Research Service reported that 87% of elementary teachers were women while only 27.1% of elementary school principals were women. This imbalance is all the more disquieting when one considers that the woman teacher or administrator is, by and large, more able than the male teacher or administrator (Shakeshaft, 1987). A number of researchers (Brown, 1981; Fishel & Pottker, 1977; Frasher & Frasher, 1979; Shakeshaft, 1981; Tibbets, 1980) have pointed out in studies comparing the effectiveness of male and female teachers and administrators on selected criteria (teaching, evaluations, teacher examination scores, college grade point averages, warmth, administrator functioning, in basket/out basket exercises), when there is a difference, females are rated higher than males.

As Shakeshaft (1986) pointed out, this shouldn't be surprising since teaching has been a profession to which the most able women turned if they were to work outside the home. Because women had few professional options, many of the brightest women chose teaching while the most able men sought professions that offered both higher salaries and higher status. Shakeshaft continued by saying that teaching has been a profession comprised of strong, gifted women whereas the majority of men who entered teaching were either unable to procure other work or were on their way to another profession. Consequently, studies that contrast male and female teachers and

administrators are not examining similar groups, but rather comparing the more capable educators (women) with the less capable ones (men).

Several studies indicate that males in elementary education tend to be inferior to women in the areas of qualifications relevant to the task of providing instructional leadership for the school, in knowledge of teaching methods and techniques, in level of concern with objectives of teaching, pupil participation and the evaluation of learning, and in verbal fluency and number facility (Hemphill et al., 1962). Fishel and Pottker (1975) reported that studies of men and women principals conclude that women perform as well as men on every performance measure and better on some. A University of Florida-Kellogg leadership study team, composed almost entirely of men, attempted to identify and clarify good and poor principal behavior. The team concluded that women were more democratic than men and outscored them in the use of effective administration practices (Grobman & Hines, 1956). A later study by Hemphill et al. (1962) showed at least equivalent capabilities for administering schools among women and men, and in a few instances women were superior to men. While these studies do not indicate that a woman principal should always be preferred to a man, they do indicate that women as a group in elementary education offer an extremely large talent pool in elementary administration. This is the case particularly if the principalship is conceived in a manner that values instructional leadership or supervision of instruction as the major function of the position. The decline in the number of women in elementary

principalships in recent decades, therefore, can be viewed as a serious decline that has negative effects on the potential quality of instruction in the elementary schools (Harris, 1985).

However, one is reminded by Greenfield and Beam (cited in Biklen & Brannigan, 1980) that leadership has no gender. Effectiveness depends on the characteristics of individual leaders and the structure of organizational settings, not on whether one is a man or a woman.

Folmar (1989/1990) reported that female elementary school principals were judged less effective than their male counterparts by predominantly male school boards in a survey of more than 80 central Texas schools. Nearly half of the elementary principals in the survey were female. It was found many of the survey respondents--91% of whom were males--questioned the "supervisory capacities" of female principals and also cast doubt on their commitment of pursuing research. Administrators and teachers were much less likely to perceive differences in the competencies of male and female principals than were board members, and those from small districts ranked women principals lower than those from large districts. The findings may reflect the characteristically "male styles" of leadership promoted in university training and a lack of awareness among school board members of "the diversity of productive leadership styles" (Folmar, 1989/1990, Abstract).

In spite of their competence, however, women do face problems of discrimination. Women have been described as too emotional, not task-oriented enough, too dependent on feedback and evaluations from

others, and lacking independence and autonomy (Cox, 1976). Another discriminatory attitude that hinders women in educational leadership is that women are seen as able to nurture children and follow directions in a tight, bureaucratic, hierarchical structure, but not able to construct or dominate the structure itself. Research on performance counter-balances these stereotypical attitudes.

Another source of attitudinal difficulties that women face are the differential ways in which women are evaluated. The point is made by Epstein (1975) that men are judged on the job by their level of effectiveness at work, women are evaluated according to the many roles they are able to play and to integrate well. Women must be judged competent in their female roles as well as their occupational roles. Research indicates, in spite of teachers' beliefs that no difference in the leadership abilities of men and women principals exists, male teachers prefer working for male administrators. Men teachers who have worked with a woman principal, however, are more favorable to the concept of a woman boss than those men who have not (Fishel & Pottker, 1977).

Winslow (cited in Biklen & Brannigan, 1980) reported that women school administrators are accused of being out of the building too much when in fact men school administrators are actually out of the building more. Winslow suggested that perhaps this evaluation represents the home ethic transplanted to the work place.

The more streamlined the managerial structure of education has become the fewer women leaders there are. The historical development of the managerial mystique has created boundaries that exclude

women. As schooling becomes more of a business, those in administrative positions turn to their image of effective managers: businessmen.

In Gilligan's (1982) In a Different Voice, women's sensitivity to the needs of others and the assumption of responsibility for taking care lead women to attend to voices other than their own and to include in their judgment other points of view. She went on to say that women have an overriding concern with relationships and responsibilities. The reluctance to judge may itself be indicative of the care and concern for others that infuse the psychology of women's development and are responsible for what is generally seen as problematic in its nature. The repeated finding is that the qualities deemed necessary for adulthood--the capacity for autonomous thinking, clear decision making and responsible action--are those associated with masculinity and considered undesirable as attributes of the feminine self. The discovery now being celebrated by men in mid-life of the importance of intimacy, relationships, and care is something that women have known from the beginning.

Smith and Andrews (1987) used an analogy of the tasks which are presented to women in administrative roles to traveling in a foreign land. First, the notion of the foreign culture--that for the most part the world of management is a male world--a male culture. Men working in that world operate under a different set of beliefs and assumptions about themselves and each other and about management as a career. These assumptions are formed early in life and are radically different from the ways in which women view themselves in the

larger world.

Smith and Andrews (1987) pointed out that women who have learned to accept success as a gift, not as an earned achievement, are ill-equipped to assess their own potential within a management environment. Women expect that their competence will be recognized and rewarded and when competence isn't rewarded, the woman becomes frustrated--turning on herself--or is angry at the powers that be who have failed to recognize her merit. The woman has failed to take into account both her own efforts and the organizational environment in which she is working and in which she must be perceived as an essential and highly valuable unit.

"A wild patience has taken me this far" (Rich, cited in Shakeshaft, 1986, p. 9) might well be an appropriate motto for the women who have become school administrators during the last century. A phrase from a poem by Rich (1981, cited in Shakeshaft, 1986), "Wild Patience," evokes an image of dedication, persistence, energy, and expectation constrained by a world that neither values nor rewards the women who live these contradictions.

In summary, researchers believe that many variables exist in the elementary school that influence the principal as an instructional leader. Examples of variables found to influence the principal are the size of the school, size of the district, expectations of central office, or the principal's experience or expertise. The literature reviewed indicated that there apparently is not consensus as to what a principal does to be considered an effective instructional leader. Agreement does appear in the literature that the

principal's day is marked with short, disjointed tasks many of which are of a managerial nature.

Although investigators have examined the principal's role as an instructional leader and the influence of the variables on the principal's performance, the findings appear to be contradictory and inconclusive.

Women continue to be in the minority in educational administration although the majority of teachers are women. The research suggested there are differences between males and females in their approach to school administration. Also, male and female elementary school principals may deal with instructional leadership and management responsibilities differently.

Based on the research questions formulated for this study and presented in the previous chapter, and also based on the review of the literature, the following hypotheses were tested as the basis for determining selected male and female elementary school principals' perceived instructional leadership behaviors.

1. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Defining the Mission.

2. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

3. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

4. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

5. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

6. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experiences in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

7. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

8. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

9. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

10. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school

principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

11. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

12. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Promoting the School Climate.

Summary

The purpose of Chapter II has been to review the literature related to the problem identified in Chapter I. This chapter was divided into four sections: (1) the principal as the building leader, (2) history of the elementary principalship, (3) instructional leadership and the elementary school principal, and (4) similarities and differences between male and female elementary school principals.

The principal as the building leader was discussed and described as was the history of the elementary principalship. The principal, or building leader, should have a clear understanding of the purpose of schools and be able to manage the organization and get teachers to focus and expand their talents to teach children. It was suggested that the principal's leadership behavior is shaped by the perceptions of how other people want the leader to behave.

In the 1800s the principal's position was mostly one of a teacher and demonstrating to other teachers how to teach. Prior to the 1950s, principals concentrated their efforts on being the educational leaders of their buildings. However, as time progressed, the emphasis of their position changed to more management responsibilities.

Instructional leadership and the elementary school principal was examined along with the definition and characteristics attributed to being an instructional leader. Although there are differing definitions of instructional leadership, there appears to be agreement that management responsibilities often interfere with being an instructional leader. Additional agreement exists in the literature that the principal is the key to school improvement and school effectiveness.

Lastly, a review of the similarities and differences between male and female elementary school principals was presented along with the hypotheses under investigation in this study. The reader is reminded that the extent and quality of research on the topic investigated is limited.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The design and methods which were used in this study are presented in five sections: (1) review of the problem, (2) population and sample, (3) instrumentation, (4) procedures, and (5) analysis of data.

Review of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there are differences between selected Michigan male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior in the areas of Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of male and female elementary school principals who held membership in the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association (MEMSPA) in the 1990-91 school year. The principals are distributed between 57 Intermediate School Districts representing all the geographical areas in Michigan. Within the 57 Intermediate School Districts there are 564 local school districts that vary in pupil population size. Thus, for the purposes of this study the population consists

of 1,359 elementary school principals of which 59% are males and 41% are females.

According to the Michigan School Code of 1976, prepared by the Legislative Service Bureau, June 1982, the local school districts were classified into a 5-code classification reflecting the pupils' population size of school districts. The codes are as follows:

1. A school district of the First Class with pupils' population of 120,000 or more.

2. A school district of the Second Class with pupils' population of more than 30,000 and less than 120,000.

3. A school district of the Third Class with pupils' population of more than 2,400 and less than 30,000.

4. A school district of the Fourth Class with pupils' population of more than 75 and less than 2,400.

5. A school district of the Fifth Class with pupils' population less than 75.

Table 1 provides the distribution of the local public school districts by the school district codes First to Fifth in the population of local school districts.

The sample for this study was selected from the list of elementary school principals holding membership in MEMSPA. The elementary principals' schools and districts investigated for this study varied in student enrollment count. Since Andrews and Hallet (1983) reported that the size of the school district and the size of the school have some bearing on how principals spend their time, the

school districts surveyed for this study were categorized into the five codes indicated in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of School Districts in the Population by Student District Code

	School district code					
	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Total
Frequency	1	3	132	412	16	564

The following describes the steps of the sample selection process:

1. The 564 school districts were listed under each of the 57 Intermediate School Districts (ISDs).

2. Twenty-one ISDs were selected to represent different geographical areas of the state and the 14 regions of the MEMSPA.

3. The school districts were classified according to school district code number indicating district enrollment size.

4. A sample of local school districts was selected from the 20 Intermediate School Districts.

5. The districts were selected to represent the different school district sizes.

6. The MEMSPA principals were listed by school district and ISD for male and female elementary school principals, separately.

Based on a presumption of a 75% return rate of mailed questionnaires, 270 elementary school principals were selected to represent the 1,359 MEMSPA members. The random sample drawn was 161 male elementary school principals and 109 female elementary school principals representing the same gender ratio as the population (60% males and 40% females).

Instrumentation

In order to collect data on the male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior, the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS, Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) was utilized.

The variables included in the survey were determined by the authors of the questionnaire to be functions of the principal's behavior as the instructional leader. Each instructional management function listed in Table 2 can be described as a combination of principal policies, practices, and behaviors. Under each of the job functions, examples of policies, practices, and behaviors are described in this section and operationalized in the data collection instrument (see Appendix A).

> Defining the Mission: An important dimension of the principal's role as instructional manager is to define and communicate a mission or purpose for the school. Instructional leaders are often said to have a "vision" of what the school should be trying to accomplish. Defining a school mission involves communicating this vision to the staff and students in such a way that sense of shared purpose exists, linking together the various activities that take place in classrooms throughout the school. The principal's role in defining the mission involves framing

Table 2

Dimensions of Instructional Management

Defining the Mission	Managing Instructional Program	Promoting School Climate
Framing school goals	Supervising and evaluating instruction	Protecting instructional time
Communicating school goals	Coordinating curriculum	Promoting professional development
	Monitoring student progress	Maintaining high visibility
		Providing incentives for teachers
		Enforcing academic standards
		Providing incentives for students

Note. From "Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals" by P. Hallinger and J. Murphy, 1985, Elementary School Journal, 85, p. 221.

schoolwide goals and communicating these goals in a persistent fashion to the entire school community.

Framing school goals: This function refers to a principal's role in determining the areas in which school staff will focus their attention and resources during a given school year. Instructionally effective schools often have clearly defined goals that focus on student achievement. The emphasis is on fewer goals around which staff energy and other school resources can be mobilized. A few coordinated objectives, each with a manageable scope, appear to work best. The goals should incorporate data on past and current student performance and include staff responsibilities for achieving the goals. Staff and parent input during the development of the school's goals seems important. Performance goals should be expressed in measurable terms (Brookover et al., 1978; Clark, 1980;

Edmonds, 1979; Gauthier, 1982; Lezotte, Hathaway, Miller, Passalacqua, & Brookover, n.d.; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).

Communicating school goals: This function is concerned with the ways in which the principal communicates the school's important goals to teachers, parents, and students. Principals can ensure that the importance of school goals is understood by discussing and reviewing them with staff periodically during the school year, especially in the context of instructional, curricular, and budgetary decisions. Both formal communication (e.g., goal statements, staff bulletins, articles in the principal or site-council newsletter, curricular and staff meetings, parent and teacher conferences, school handbook, assemblies) and informal interaction (e.g., conversations with staff) can be used to communicate the school's mission (Brookover et al., 1978, 1982; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1978; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).

Managing the Instructional Program: This dimension of instructional management involves working with teachers in areas specifically related to curriculum and instruction. It consists of several related job functions. These are supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress.

Supervising and evaluating instruction: A central task of the principal is to ensure that school goals are translated into classroom practice. This involves coordinating the classroom objectives of teachers with those of the school, providing instructional support to teachers, and monitoring classroom instruction through numerous informal classroom visits. Feedback to teachers for both supervisory and evaluative purposes is concrete and related to specific instructional practices carried out by the teachers (Stallings, 1980). This function, although currently popular, receives only limited support from research on school effectiveness (Levine & Stark, 1982; Lipham, 1981; New York State Office of Performance Review, 1974). There is little evidence that close supervision of instruction results in greater student achievement. This function is included because it follows the general management model of coordination and control, and some districts expect principals to engage actively in instructional supervision.

Coordinating curriculum: A characteristic that stands out in instructionally effective schools is the high degree of curricular coordination. School curricular objectives are closely aligned with both the content

taught in classes and with achievement tests. In addition, there appears to be a fairly high degree of continuity in the curriculum across grade levels. This aspect of curricular coordination is often supported by greater interaction among teachers within and across grade levels on instructional and curricular issues (Brookover et al., 1978, 1982; Clark, 1980; Cohen & Miller, 1980; Cooley & Leinhardt, 1980; Eubanks & Levine, 1983; Freeman et al., 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, n.d.; Levine, 1982; Levine & Stark, 1982; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).

Monitoring student progress: Instructionally effective schools emphasize both standardized and criterion-referenced testing. Tests are used to diagnose programmatic and student weaknesses, to evaluate the results of changes in the school's instructional program, and to make classroom assignments. Principals play a key role in this area in several ways. They provide teachers with test results in a timely and useful fashion, discuss test results with the staff as a whole and with grade-level staff and individual teachers, and provide interpretive analyses that describe the test data in a concise form for teachers. They use test results for setting goals, assessing the curriculum, evaluating instruction, and measuring progress toward school goals (Brookover et al., 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1978; Gauthier, 1982; Hallinger et al., 1983; Levine & Stark, 1982; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rutter et al., 1979; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Stallings, 1980; Stallings & Mohlman, 1981; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).

Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate: School learning climate refers to the norms and attitudes of the staff and students that influence learning in the school. This dimension consists of primarily indirect, though important, activities. The principal communicates expectations for students and teachers through the policies and practices promulgated by the school (Murphy et al., 1982). Principals can influence student and teacher attitudes through the creation of a reward structure that reinforces academic achievement and productive effort; through clear, explicit standards embodying what the school expects from students; through the careful use of school time; and through the selection and implementation of high-quality staff development programs.

Protecting instructional time: Research conducted during the late 1970s and 1980s indicates the substantial effects of time on student learning (Cotton & Savard, 1980; Denham & Lieberman, 1980; Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1984; Stallings, 1980; Stallings & Mohlman, 1981). In

particular, work of Stallings and others on allocated learning time calls attention to the importance of providing teachers with blocks of uninterrupted instructional time. Teachers' classroom management and instructional skills are not used optimally if instruction is frequently interrupted by announcements, tardy students, and requests from the office. The principal can control this area of activity through the development and enforcement of schoolwide policies. Principals who successfully implement policies that limit interruptions of classroom learning time can increase allocated learning time and, potentially, student achievement (Stallings, 1980).

Promoting professional development: Principals have several ways of supporting teachers' efforts to improve instruction. They can inform teachers of opportunities for staff development and lead in-service training activities. They can ensure that staff development activities are closely linked to school goals and that participation is either schoolwide or centered on natural groupings (e.g., primary or upper elementary grades). This function also involves helping teachers integrate skills learned during staff development programs and assisting in classroom implementation (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978; Brookover et al., 1982; Clark, 1980; Lambert & Lambert, 1983; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Little, 1982; McCormack-Larkin & Kritek, 1982; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Miles, 1983; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rutter et al., 1979).

Maintaining high visibility: Although a significant portion of their time is taken up by mandatory meetings and functions, principals can set priorities for how the remaining time is to be spent. Visibility on the campus and in classrooms increases interactions between the principal and students as well as with teachers. Informal interaction of these types provides the principal with more information on the needs of students and teachers. It also affords the principal opportunities to communicate the priorities of the school. This can have positive effects on students' and teachers' attitudes and behaviors (Bossert et al., 1981; Brookover et al., 1982; Casey, 1980; Clark, 1980; Laskey & Wayson, 1982; Wynne, 1980).

Providing incentives for teachers: An important part of the principal's role in creating a positive learning climate involves setting up a work structure that rewards and recognizes teachers for their efforts. Principals have few discretionary rewards to use with teachers. The single salary schedule and the tenure system severely limit principals' ability to motivate teachers. However, research has begun to show that money is not the only way

> to reward high levels of performance. In one study, money was only slightly more effective than praise as an incentive (Letham & Wexley, 1981). This finding has been substantiated in different types of organizations (Latham & Wexley, 1981; Lawler, 1971). Other forms of reward available to principals include privately expressed praise, public recognition, and formal honors and awards.
>
> Developing and enforcing academic standards: Clearly defined, high standards reinforce the high expectations necessary for improving student learning. One study that compares successful and less successful schools found that academically successful schools tended to require mastery of a defined set of skills prior to entry into the following grade (Wellisch et al., 1978). High standards are also promoted when increasing numbers of students are expected to master basic skills (Brookover et al., 1982; Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Clark, 1980; Edmonds & Frederiksen, 1978; Levine & Stark, 1982; Murphy et al., 1982; Rutter et al., 1979; Venezky & Winfield, 1979).
>
> Providing incentives for learning: It is possible to create a school learning climate in which students value academic achievement by frequently rewarding and recognizing student academic achievement and improvement. In low-income schools, students need frequent, tangible rewards. The rewards need not be fancy or expensive; recognition before teachers and peers is the key. Students should have opportunities to be recognized for their achievement both within the classroom and before the school as a whole. The principal is a key actor in linking classrooms and school reward systems, ensuring that they are mutually supportive (Brookover et al., 1978, 1982; Lasley & Wayson, 1982; Rutter et al., 1979; Wynne, 1980). (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, pp. 221-224)

These job functions constitute the conceptual definitions for the principal variables examined in this study. These definitions were used to help generate the specific policies, practices, and behaviors that form the questionnaire used to collect data on principal behavior (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The intent of the instrument was to differentiate and compare the responses of the male and female elementary principals. The individuals were requested to indicate the total years of experience

as an elementary principal and the school building and school district enrollment and the degree level attained. The information was used to make comparisons between the responses of male and female elementary principals based on years of experience in the principalship, the size of the school building enrollment, and the degree level attained.

The question concerning total years of experience as an elementary school principal related to Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6. The question regarding school district enrollment was relevant to Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9. The question regarding degree level attained related to Hypotheses 10, 11, and 12.

Respondents were then requested to respond to a series of questions in the following three areas which were previously described. These three areas were: (1) Defining the Mission, (2) Managing the Instructional Program, and (3) Promoting School Climate. The respondents were asked to respond by indicating the extent to which they believed they had demonstrated the specific job behavior or practice during the past school year. They were asked to indicate their response by circling 5--almost always, 4--frequently, 3--sometimes, 2--seldom, or 1--almost never.

Questions 1-10 related to framing school goals and communicating school goals and were under the heading of Defining the Mission. The items addressed in this category were associated with Hypotheses 1, 4, 7, and 10.

Questions 11-25 related to supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, and monitoring student progress and

were under the heading of Managing Instructional Program. The items addressed in this category were associated with Hypotheses 2, 5, 8, and 11.

Questions 26-50 related to protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, enforcing academic standards, and providing incentives for students and were under the heading of Promoting School Climate. The items addressed in this category were associated with Hypotheses 3, 6, 9, and 12.

The questionnaire had been validated by its author. Eighty percent of the people to whom the questionnaire had been sent agreed that the items measured the concepts of instructional leadership. To test the survey instrument the researcher pilot tested the instrument using 23 members of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association. Twenty-two members were elementary school principals and one was a Director of Elementary Education. The investigator mailed the survey questionnaire with a letter of explanation and directions (see Appendix B). Each respondent was asked to review the survey and record opinions regarding the clarity, comprehensiveness, and face validity of the instrument. After the responses were collected, the comments of the respondents were reviewed. To avoid contamination of the study, those individuals who participated in the pilot test were not included further in the study population. Eighty percent agreed that the items under each area measured that area.

In addition to the pilot test, an item analysis of reliability was conducted to ensure that each item under each category was significant to that category. A Cronbach Alpha Analysis of Reliability was utilized. Table 3 demonstrates the value of the Cronbach alpha analysis for the different categories of the survey questionnaire. The principals' practices and behaviors ranged between .64 and .82 as shown in Table 3. This compares to a reliability coefficient of at least .75 found by the author of the survey instrument.

Table 3

Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient for the Different Categories of the Survey Questionnaire

Category	Survey item numbers	Alpha
Framing the school goals	1-5	.82
Communicating the school goals	6-10	.75
Supervising and evaluating instruction	11-15	.69
Coordinating the curriculum	16-20	.72
Monitoring student progress	21-25	.64
Protecting instructional time	26-30	.65
Maintaining high visibility	31-35	.66
Providing incentives for teachers	36-40	.76
Promoting professional development	41-45	.68
Providing incentives for learning	46-50	.76

Procedures

Upon the completion of the pilot test of the survey instrument and the Cronbach Alpha Analysis of Reliability, the questionnaire survey was mailed with a self-addressed, stamped envelope to 161 (59%) male and 109 (41%) female elementary school principals holding membership in the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association and representing the population. Enclosed with the survey was a letter introducing the study, the questionnaire, and the investigator (see Appendix A).

To insure the confidentiality of each respondent as well as to manage the collection of the data, the surveys were number coded. Principals who did not respond by the imposed deadline were mailed a follow-up letter accompanied by another survey (see Appendix C). Overall, 79% of those selected for participation in the study responded by completing and returning the instrument.

Analysis of Data

The survey instrument was designed to enable the investigator to categorize responses into several cells. Based on the information received which described each respondent and the school district and school building, the data were analyzed by (a) gender of the principal, (b) the years of experience of the principal, (c) experience as a teacher, and (d) school enrollment.

The 50 questions pertained to the three areas of concern of the study. The data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential

statistical testing for those areas classified as Defining the Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate. Mean scores were computed for these categories. The mean scores were determined by assigning a point value of 5 to almost always response, a value of 4 to frequently response, a value of 3 to sometimes response, a value of 2 to seldom response, and a value of 1 to the almost never response to each question relating to each of the three categories under consideration. The mean was obtained by totaling the value of the responses pertaining to each set of questions and dividing by the number of responses given.

To test the differences among the various groups of the study, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) at the .05 alpha level for Type I error was used in testing each of the hypotheses. Other data relating to the individual questions, and to each of the hypotheses, were reported in a descriptive manner. Percentages were utilized to report the perceptions of the male and female elementary principals' instructional leadership behavior.

Hypotheses

The research hypotheses designed for this investigation were stated in the previous chapter. For the purposes of this study, the null hypotheses are:

1. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Defining the Mission.

2. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

3. There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

4. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

5. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

6. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

7. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

8. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

9. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

10. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

11. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

12. There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Promoting the School Climate.

Summary

The intent of Chapter III was to define the methodology of this study. The statement of the problem was reviewed and the sample was identified. The instrument developed for this study was presented. The procedures for implementing the survey were described. The factors to be analyzed and the presentation of the data were also noted. Lastly, the null hypotheses of this investigation were presented.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

In this chapter, the findings of this study are reported as they relate to each hypotheses. The analyses and interpretation of the data gathered from the responses of 213 elementary school principals are presented. The findings are reported by the gender factor, as it is the main relevant factor in the study.

Review of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there are differences between selected Michigan male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior in the areas of Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical testing for the roles of the three areas of instructional leadership behavior classified as (1) Defining the Mission, (2) Managing the Instructional Program, and (3) Promoting School Climate. To accomplish the comparisons between the sample means, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) at the .05 level for Type I error was used in testing each hypothesis of the study. Other data relating to individual questions relating to each of the hypotheses were reported

in a descriptive manner. The mean and standard deviation of the perceived importance of each role of leadership behavior were calculated for male and female elementary principals, separately. Percentages were utilized to report the perceptions of the male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior.

Characteristics of the Survey Sample

Two hundred and seventy elementary school principals were mailed the survey instrument. Two hundred and thirteen surveys were returned for a response rate of 79%. The respondents were 127 males (60%) and 86 females (40%). These figures are consistent with the actual percentages of males and females in the population of 1,359 elementary school principals who are members of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association (MEMSPA). The principals association membership is 59% males and 41% females. At the time of the study, the total membership of MEMSPA was 1,644; however, that number included middle school principals, central office administrators, and other members who were not included in the sample population.

In Tables 4-11 the sample of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association members is described by gender for each of the following characteristics: age, years of experience as a principal, years of experience at the present school, years of experience as a teacher, grade levels taught, grade levels at school

Table 4

Distribution of Participants by Age

Age group	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Less than 30			2	2.3
30-40	17	13.4	5	5.8
41-50	61	48.0	57	66.3
51-55	26	20.5	12	14.0
Over 55	23	18.1	10	11.6
Total	127	100.0	86	100.0

Table 5

Distribution of Participants by Years of Experience as a Principal

Years of experience	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
0-5	27	21.3	32	37.2
6-10	16	12.6	25	29.1
11-15	16	12.6	15	17.4
16-20	23	18.2	9	10.5
Over 20 years	44	34.9	5	5.8
Total	126[a]	99.6	86	100.0

[a]Does not equal 127 because of one nonresponse.

Table 6

Distribution of Participants by Experience as a Teacher

Years of experience	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
0-5	22	17.3	6	7.0
6-10	65	51.2	27	31.4
11-15	19	15.1	21	24.4
16-20	10	7.0	15	17.3
Over 20 years	10	7.9	17	19.9
Total	126[a]	99.4	86	100.0

[a]Does not equal 127 because of one nonresponse.

Table 7

Distribution of Participants by Grade Level(s) Taught

Grade level(s) taught	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
K-6	69	54.3	65	75.6
7-9	9	7.2		
9-12	4	3.1		
Other	45	35.4	19	22.1
Total	127	100.0	84[a]	97.7

[a]Does not equal 86 because of two nonresponses.

Table 8

Distribution of Grade Levels at School Where Principal

Grade levels	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
K-5	58	45.7	34	39.5
K-6	46	36.2	33	38.4
K-3	3	2.4	3	3.5
K-4	2	1.6	4	4.6
Other	18	14.1	12	14.0
Total	127	100.0	86	100.0

Table 9

Distribution of Participants by the Size of the Enrollment of Building Where Principal

Student enrollment	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Less than 299	16	12.6	14	16.3
300-499	69	54.3	55	64.0
500 or more	42	33.1	17	19.7
Total	127	100.0	86	100.0

Table 10

Distribution of Participants by the Size of Student Enrollment of School District

Student enrollment	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Less than 2,399	32	25.2	21	24.4
2,400-29,999	87	68.5	58	67.5
Less than 119,999	7	5.5	5	5.8
Missing	1	0.8	2	2.3
Total	127	100.0	86	100.0

Table 11

Distribution of Participants by Degree Held

Degree held	Males		Females	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Master	81	63.8	63	73.2
Specialist	28	22.0	14	16.3
EdD	12	9.4	6	7.0
PhD	6	4.8	3	3.5
Total	127	100.0	86	100.0

where a principal, student enrollment of the school where a principal, and highest degree held.

Results of the Research Questions

Four major research questions were investigated for the purpose of this study. In the following pages, each research question is restated, followed by a set of hypotheses and a report of the data pertaining to the question and the related hypotheses.

Research Question 1

Are there differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior?

For descriptive purposes, the elementary school principals' perceptions by gender for each of the 10 roles of instructional leadership behavior are presented in Tables 12 and 13.

As shown in Table 12, male elementary school principals' perceptions of the importance of these roles ranged from almost never (1, 2, or 3 on the scale) to almost always (5 on the scale). Promoting professional development, with a mean score of 4.27, was identified as the role perceived performed most often, followed by monitoring student progress with a mean score of 4.21, maintaining high visibility with a mean score of 4.14, providing incentives for learning with a mean score of 4.13, and supervising and evaluating instruction with a mean score of 4.03.

In comparison, the female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles of instructional leadership behavior ranged from

Table 12

Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of the 10 Roles of Instructional Leadership Behavior as Related to the Three Main Areas of This Study

Areas Roles	N	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
I. Defining the Mission					
1. Frame the school goals	127	2	5	3.94	0.64
2. Communicate school goals	125	1	5	3.75	0.62
II. Managing Instructional Program					
3. Supervise and evaluate instruction	125	2	5	4.03	0.59
4. Coordinate the curriculum	126	2	5	3.85	0.58
5. Monitor student progress	126	2	5	2.41	0.50
III. Promoting School Climate					
6. Protect instructional time	125	3	5	3.85	0.52
7. Maintain high time visibility	125	2	5	4.14	0.57
8. Provide incentives for teachers	126	2	5	3.94	0.62
9. Promote professional development	127	2	5	4.27	0.49
10. Provide incentives for learning	127	1	5	4.13	0.62

Table 13

Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of the 10 Roles of Instructional Leadership Behavior as Related to the Three Main Areas of This Study

Areas Roles	N	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
I. Defining the Mission					
1. Frame the school goals	86	3	5	4.24	0.57
2. Communicate school goals	86	2	5	4.00	0.63
II. Managing Instructional Program					
3. Supervise and evaluate instruction	86	3	5	4.14	0.56
4. Coordinate the curriculum	86	2	5	3.91	0.58
5. Monitor student progress	85	3	5	4.31	0.47
III. Promoting School Climate					
6. Protect instructional time	85	2	5	3.93	0.63
7. Maintain high time visibility	86	2	5	4.20	0.53
8. Provide incentives for teachers	86	3	5	4.10	0.55
9. Promote professional development	86	3	5	4.43	0.45
10. Provide incentives for learning	84	2	5	4.22	0.68

almost never (2 or 3 on the scale) to almost always (5 on the scale). (See Table 13.) In the case of female principals, 8 out of the 10 roles showed a mean score of 4.00 or greater, indicating a high perception level of performance of these roles, while only 5 out of the 10 roles showed a mean score of 4.00 or greater in the case of male principals (see Table 12). For female elementary school principals, again, promoting professional development, with a mean score of 4.43, was identified as the role perceived performed the most often, followed by monitoring student progress, with a mean score of 4.31; framing the school goals, with a mean score of 4.24; providing incentives for learning, with a mean score of 4.22; maintaining high visibility, with a mean score of 4.20; supervising and evaluating instruction, with a mean score of 4.14; providing incentives for teachers, with a mean score of 4.10; and communicating the school goals, with a mean score of 4.00.

To summarize, for both male and female elementary school principals, five roles were reported as most always perceived as performed (greater than 4.00 on the scale). They were: (1) promoting professional development, (2) monitoring student progress, (3) maintaining high visibility, (4) providing incentives for learning, and (5) supervising and evaluating instruction.

In addition, three more roles were also reported as most always perceived as performed (greater than 4.00 on the scale) by female elementary school principals. They were: (1) framing the school goals, (2) providing incentives for teachers, and (3) communicating school goals.

To test whether there were any significant differences between male and female principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior in the roles, a series of null hypotheses were formulated and a one-way analysis of variance was performed.

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Defining the Mission.

To test whether there were any significant differences, a one-way analysis of variance was performed. Table 14 shows the results of the one-way analysis of variance for gender differences in the area of Defining the Mission. Significant gender differences emerged. Female elementary principals perceived they performed significantly different than males perceived they performed in the two roles of this area. On the basis of the computed statistics, Hypothesis 1 was rejected for the two roles: frame the school goals ($p < .01$) and communicate the school goals ($p < .01$). Female elementary school principals tended to perceive these two roles significantly more often demonstrated than did male elementary school principals.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

Table 15 shows the results of the one-way analysis of variance for gender differences in the area of Managing the Instructional Program. Although females scored slightly higher than males, no significant gender differences were found. Therefore, Hypothesis 2

Table 14

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Perception of the Roles in the Area of Defining the Mission and Gender

Area Roles	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
Defining the Mission						
1. Frame the school goals	Male	127	3.94	.64	12.51	.0005*
	Female	86	4.24	.57		
2. Communicate the school goals	Male	125	3.75	.62	8.41	.0041*
	Female	86	4.00	.63		

*Significant at the .01 level.

Table 15

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Perception of the Roles in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Gender

Area Roles	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
Manage the Instructional Program						
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	Male	125	4.03	.59	1.98	.1612
	Female	86	4.14	.56		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	Male	126	3.85	.58	0.47	.4947
	Female	86	3.91	.58		
3. Monitor student progress	Male	126	4.21	.50	1.92	.1679
	Female	85	4.31	.47		

was not rejected for these roles of this area of leadership ($p > .05$).

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences between male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

Table 16 shows the results of the one-way analysis of variance for gender differences in the area of Promoting School Climate. Two significant differences, favoring the female elementary principals, emerged for the two roles of providing incentives for teachers and promoting professional development. These differences were significant at the .05 level. Female elementary principals perceived they performed higher in the remaining roles of the area of leadership behavior but no significant differences were found ($p > .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was rejected specifically for the roles of providing incentives for teachers and promoting professional development.

Tables 14, 15, and 16 presented the results of the comparison of male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behavior. Tables 17-28 are comparisons within each gender and for each variable investigated in the study.

Research Question 2

Are there differences among the groups of male elementary school principals with different years of experience in regard to their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared

Table 16

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Perception of the Roles in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Gender

Area Roles	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
Promoting School Climate						
1. Protect instructional time	Male	125	3.85	.52	0.95	.3313
	Female	85	3.93	.63		
2. Maintain high visibility	Male	125	4.14	.57	0.63	.4299
	Female	86	4.20	.53		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	Male	126	3.94	.62	3.86	.0507*
	Female	86	4.10	.55		
4. Promote professional development	Male	127	4.27	.49	6.06	.0146*
	Female	86	4.44	.45		
5. Provide incentives for learning	Male	127	4.13	.62	0.96	.3272
	Female	84	4.22	.68		

*Significant at the .05 level.

to female elementary school principals of the same groups of different years of experience?

The following hypotheses were formulated and again the one-way variance was used to test differences by years of experience groups for both male and female elementary school principals, separately.

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

Tables 17 and 18 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male elementary school principals' and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles of instructional leadership in the area of Defining the Mission, separately, for experience as a school principal. Statistically, no significant differences were found among the five groups for the two roles of instructional leadership in the area of Defining the Mission for either group (see Tables 17 and 18). The null hypothesis of no significant differences was not rejected at the .05 level for framing the school goals and communicating the school goals for both the male and female principals. Based on this result, it appears that years of experience, as a principal, do not affect the perceptions of male and female elementary principals, alike, in the area of Defining the Mission.

Tables 19 and 20 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male elementary school principals' and female elementary school principals' perceptions of instructional leadership for the roles in the area of Defining the Mission for years of experience as a teacher.

Again, statistically no significant differences were found among the five groups for the two roles of instructional leadership in the area of Defining the Mission for either males or females.

Table 17

One-Way Analysis of Variance on the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	0-5	27	3.89	.62	1.51	.2037
	6-10	16	3.74	.55		
	11-15	16	4.26	.61		
	16-20	23	3.97	.48		
	20+	44	3.93	.74		
2. Communicate school goals	0-5	27	3.84	.69	0.51	.7316
	6-10	16	3.66	.54		
	11-15	16	3.81	.47		
	16-20	23	3.82	.55		
	20+	42	3.67	.69		

The null hypothesis was not rejected at the .05 level which indicated there was no significant influence in regard to the years of experience as a teacher.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

Table 18

One-Way Analysis of Variance on the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	0-5	32	4.16	.59	0.52	.7222
	6-10	25	4.22	.61		
	11-15	15	4.33	.49		
	16-20	9	4.36	.63		
	20+	5	4.44	.33		
2. Communicate school goals	0-5	32	4.01	.69	0.31	.8724
	6-10	25	3.98	.61		
	11-15	15	4.15	.46		
	16-20	9	3.87	.85		
	20+	5	3.96	.38		

Tables 21-24 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance in the area of Managing the Instructional Program and the years of experience as a principal or as a teacher for both males and females, separately. Again, statistically no significant differences were found among the five groups with regard to years of experience as a principal or as a teacher for all the roles of instructional leadership in the area of Managing the Instructional Program. The results were the same for both males and females, which

Table 19

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	0-5	22	4.07	.72	1.67	.1616
	6-10	65	3.92	.65		
	11-15	19	4.12	.51		
	16-20	10	3.54	.63		
	20+	10	3.86	.44		
2. Communicate school goals	0-5	20	3.82	.62	0.61	.6534
	6-10	65	3.70	.62		
	11-15	19	3.93	.58		
	16-20	10	3.72	.63		
	20+	10	3.64	.69		

indicated no influence of the years of experience in the perceptions of male and female elementary principals of their instructional leadership behavior in the areas of Managing the Instructional Program.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals with different years of experience in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

Table 20

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	0-5	6	3.87	.39	2.23	.0728
	6-10	27	4.39	.56		
	11-15	21	4.20	.60		
	16-20	15	4.01	.57		
	20+	17	4.40	.48		
2. Communicate school goals	0-5	6	3.53	.78	2.05	.0953
	6-10	27	4.13	.51		
	11-15	21	4.06	.63		
	16-20	15	4.06	.63		
	20+	17	4.13	.64		

Tables 25-28 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance in the area of Promoting School Climate and years of experience as a principal and as a teacher for both males and females. Few significant differences emerged among the five groups of different years of experience. As for the groups of years of experience as a principal, male principals of 11-15 years of experience showed the highest score (mean = 4.34) in the roles of maintaining high visibility ($p < .05$). In comparison, female principals of 20 or more

Table 21

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	0-5	27	4.02	.54	0.65	.6279
	6-10	16	4.13	.66		
	11-15	16	4.13	.55		
	16-20	22	4.10	.55		
	20+	43	3.92	.63		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	0-5	27	3.81	.64	1.32	.5529
	6-10	16	3.99	.63		
	11-15	16	3.80	.59		
	16-20	23	3.98	.43		
	20+	43	3.78	.59		
3. Monitor student progress	0-5	27	4.30	.43	1.32	.2680
	6-10	16	4.24	.50		
	11-15	16	4.29	.43		
	16-20	23	4.30	.41		
	20+	43	4.07	.59		

Table 22

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	0-5	32	4.09	.57	0.43	.7859
	6-10	25	4.17	.58		
	11-15	15	4.12	.50		
	16-20	9	4.16	.71		
	20+	5	4.44	.52		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	0-5	32	3.91	.48	1.06	.3808
	6-10	25	3.78	.74		
	11-15	15	3.88	.48		
	16-20	9	4.16	.50		
	20+	5	4.20	.49		
3. Monitor student progress	0-5	31	4.27	.44	0.09	.9846
	6-10	25	4.34	.45		
	11-15	15	4.29	.46		
	16-20	9	4.36	.70		
	20+	5	4.32	.50		

Table 23

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	0-5	21	3.85	.40	1.17	.3283
	6-10	64	4.01	.63		
	11-15	19	4.18	.72		
	16-20	10	4.18	.48		
	20+	10	4.18	.41		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	0-5	21	3.91	.42	0.30	.8742
	6-10	65	3.81	.60		
	11-15	19	3.94	.75		
	16-20	10	3.80	.54		
	20+	10	3.94	.48		
3. Monitor student progress	0-5	21	4.21	.50	0.11	.9788
	6-10	65	4.26	.42		
	11-15	19	4.19	.50		
	16-20	10	4.16	.40		
	20	10	4.24	.43		

Table 24

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	0-5	6	3.73	.83	1.27	.2882
	6-10	27	4.26	.56		
	11-15	21	4.10	.46		
	16-20	15	4.07	.57		
	20+	17	4.22	.57		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	0-5	6	3.70	.28	0.92	.4579
	6-10	27	4.04	.61		
	11-15	21	3.76	.62		
	16-20	15	3.89	.35		
	20+	17	3.98	.70		
3. Monitor student progress	0-5	6	4.30	.49	0.73	.5774
	6-10	27	4.39	.43		
	11-15	20	4.32	.45		
	16-20	15	4.13	.51		
	20+	17	4.31	.53		

Table 25

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	0-5	27	3.84	.57	0.82	.5143
	6-10	15	3.73	.46		
	11-15	16	3.78	.44		
	16-20	23	4.01	.39		
	20+	43	3.83	.59		
2. Maintain high visibility	0-5	26	4.31	.42	3.04	.0201*
	6-10	16	4.21	.60		
	11-15	16	4.34	.45		
	16-20	23	4.17	.66		
	20+	43	3.91	.57		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	0-5	27	3.90	.68	1.05	.3822
	6-10	16	3.75	.46		
	11-15	16	4.15	.75		
	16-20	23	4.02	.47		
	20+	43	3.89	.62		
4. Promote professional development	0-5	27	4.37	.40	1.50	.2058
	6-10	16	4.19	.38		
	11-15	16	4.48	.43		

Table 25--Continued

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
	16-20	23	4.17	.46		
	20+	44	4.21	.58		
5. Provide incentives for learning	0-5	27	4.04	.75	0.70	.5940
	6-10	16	4.18	.54		
	11-15	16	4.20	.49		
	16-20	23	4.28	.57		
	20+	44	4.05	.64		

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 26

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Years of Experience as a Principal

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	0-5	31	3.99	.57	0.90	.4659
	6-10	25	3.76	.68		
	11-15	15	3.89	.70		
	16-20	9	4.09	.49		
	20+	5	4.20	.71		

Table 26--Continued

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
2. Maintain high visibility	0-5	32	4.28	.51	1.54	.1984
	6-10	25	4.26	.43		
	11-15	15	4.01	.72		
	16-20	9	3.96	.40		
	20+	5	4.48	.59		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	0-5	32	4.13	.59	0.17	.9536
	6-10	25	4.02	.46		
	11-15	15	4.12	.45		
	16-20	9	4.13	.76		
	20+	5	4.16	.65		
4. Promote professional development	0-5	32	4.51	.38	0.87	.4868
	6-10	25	4.34	.48		
	11-15	15	4.44	.49		
	16-20	9	4.33	.51		
	20+	5	4.64	.54		
5. Provide incentives for learning	0-5	31	4.28	.62	2.79	.0317*
	6-10	24	4.40	.64		
	11-15	15	4.04	.58		
	16-20	9	3.67	.94		
	20+	5	4.56	.36		

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 27

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	0-5	21	3.84	.45	0.07	.9905
	6-10	64	3.84	.56		
	11-15	19	3.90	.47		
	16-20	10	3.90	.47		
	20+	10	3.82	.44		
2. Maintain high visibility	0-5	21	3.80	.63	3.35	.0699
	6-10	64	4.21	.51		
	11-15	19	4.19	.52		
	16-20	10	4.46	.39		
	20+	10	4.08	.76		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	0-5	21	3.74	.57	1.10	.3588
	6-10	65	3.95	.58		
	11-15	19	3.95	.77		
	16-20	10	4.02	.72		
	20+	10	4.22	.50		
4. Promote professional development	0-5	22	4.14	.49	1.04	.3898
	6-10	65	4.26	.50		
	11-15	19	4.33	.47		

Table 27--Continued

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
	16-20	10	4.40	.45		
	20+	10	4.46	.41		
5. Provide incentives for learning	0-5	22	4.13	.51	0.09	.9861
	6-10	65	4.11	.66		
	11-15	19	4.20	.68		
	16-20	10	4.12	.61		
	20+	10	4.18	.68		

Table 28

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Years of Experience as a Teacher

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	0-5	6	4.00	.61	1.23	.3067
	6-10	27	4.07	.62		
	11-15	20	3.80	.69		
	16-20	15	3.69	.65		
	20+	17	4.02	.52		

Table 28--Continued

Role	Years of experience	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
2. Maintain high visibility	0-5	6	4.20	.40	0.88	.4795
	6-10	27	4.18	.66		
	11-15	21	4.10	.41		
	16-20	15	4.15	.57		
	20+	17	4.02	.52		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	0-5	6	3.53	.35	3.35	.0138*
	6-10	27	4.31	.52		
	11-15	21	3.99	.43		
	16-20	15	4.01	.58		
	20+	17	4.18	.60		
4. Promote professional development	0-5	6	4.13	.53	1.65	.1686
	6-10	27	4.50	.38		
	11-15	21	4.31	.46		
	16-20	15	4.43	.45		
	20+	17	4.53	.49		
5. Provide incentives for learning	0-5	5	3.72	.66	1.77	.1423
	6-10	27	4.19	.81		
	11-15	20	4.27	.52		
	16-20	15	4.05	.65		
	20+	17	4.51	.56		

*Significant at the .05 level.

years of experience as a principal scored the highest (mean = 4.56) for providing incentives for learning.

No significant differences emerged for the male principals for years of experience as a teacher in any of the roles of Promoting the School Climate. In comparison, female principals showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) for the roles of providing incentives for teachers. The female group of 6-10 years of experience scored the highest (mean = 4.31) among the groups of different years of experience as a teacher. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was rejected specifically for providing incentives for teachers.

Research Question 3

Are there differences among the male elementary school principals who are employed in school buildings having different student enrollments, in regard to their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared to female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of the same size in terms of student enrollment?

The following hypotheses were formulated and, again, one-way analysis of variance was used to test differences by school size in terms of enrollment for both male elementary school principals and female elementary school principals, separately.

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student enrollment in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

Tables 29 and 30 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male elementary school principals' and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles in the area of Defining the Mission, separately, for male and female principals.

Table 29

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and School Building Size in Terms of Student Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	<299	16	3.91	.54	2.25	.1099
	300-400	69	3.85	.62		
	500+	42	4.11	.68		
2. Communicate school goals	<299	16	3.79	.82	0.24	.7880
	300-499	67	3.72	.59		
	500+	42	3.80	.58		

Statistically no significant differences were found among the different groups for either male or female principals. Thus the null hypothesis for no significant differences was not rejected in the area of Defining the Mission.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student

enrollment in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

Table 30

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and School Building Size in Terms of Student Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	<299	14	4.51	.39	2.04	.1363
	300-499	55	4.21	.55		
	500+	17	4.14	.68		
2. Communicate school goals	<299	14	4.33	.46	2.29	.1075
	300-499	55	3.93	.55		
	500+	17	3.96	.89		

Tables 31 and 32 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles in the area of Managing the Instructional Program for student enrollment.

Again, no significant differences were found among the various groups for either male or female elementary school principals. Thus, the null hypothesis of no significance was not rejected.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals employed in school buildings of different student

Table 31

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and School Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	<299	16	3.99	.77	0.15	.8618
	300-499	69	4.02	.58		
	500+	40	4.07	.52		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	<299	16	4.00	.65	1.54	.2192
	300-499	68	3.77	.59		
	500+	42	3.93	.52		
3. Monitor student progress	<299	16	4.29	.48	0.59	.5579
	300-499	68	4.17	.55		
	500+	42	4.25	.41		

enrollment in their perceptions of Promoting School Climate.

Tables 33 and 34 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles in the area of Promoting School Climate for student enrollment.

The results showed that for male elementary school principals no significant differences were found for school size, thus the null hypothesis of no difference was rejected at the .05 level. In comparison, one significant difference emerged for the female group

Table 32

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and School Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	<299	14	4.37	.48	1.58	.2121
	300-499	55	4.08	.53		
	500+	17	4.18	.70		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	<299	14	3.97	.54	0.44	.6461
	300-499	55	3.87	.62		
	500+	17	4.00	.48		
3. Monitor student progress	<299	14	4.34	.51	0.27	.7668
	300-499	54	4.28	.49		
	500+	17	4.36	.40		

in the role of maintaining high visibility. Female principals working in relatively smaller school buildings (enrollments less than 500) scored higher (mean = 4.28) than those working in larger buildings (enrollments greater than 500). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was rejected specifically for maintaining high visibility.

Research Question 4

Are there differences among the groups of male elementary school principals with different degree level earned, in regard to

Table 33

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and School Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	<299	16	3.94	.51	0.46	.6344
	300-499	67	3.81	.55		
	500+	42	3.88	.47		
2. Maintain high visibility	<299	16	4.11	.66	0.19	.8271
	300-499	67	4.17	.58		
	500+	42	4.10	.53		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	<299	16	4.14	.61	2.75	.0678
	300-499	68	3.82	.61		
	500+	42	4.05	.60		
4. Promote professional development	<299	16	4.26	.48	1.37	.2578
	300-499	69	4.21	.47		
	500+	42	4.37	.52		
5. Provide incentives	<299	16	4.06	.61	0.62	.5395
	300-499	69	4.10	.64		
	500+	42	4.22	.60		

Table 34

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and School Enrollment

Role	School enrollment	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	<299	14	4.07	.47	0.51	.6017
	300-499	54	3.91	.64		
	500+	17	3.85	.73		
2. Maintain high visibility	<299	14	4.27	.27	3.77	.0272*
	300-499	55	4.28	.50		
	500+	17	3.89	.70		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	<299	14	4.20	.57	0.36	.6960
	300-499	55	4.07	.57		
	500+	17	4.13	.46		
4. Promote professional development	<299	14	4.53	.36	0.51	.6001
	300-499	55	4.40	.47		
	500+	17	4.47	.45		
5. Provide incentives for learning	<299	14	4.54	.57	1.95	.1485
	300-499	53	4.15	.72		
	500+	17	4.18	.56		

*Significant at the .05 level.

their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior, as compared to female elementary school principals of the same group of different degree level earned?

The following hypotheses were formulated and, again, one-way analysis of variance was used to test differences by degree earned for both male elementary school principals and female elementary school principals, separately.

Hypothesis 1: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Defining the Mission.

Tables 35 and 36 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles in the area of Defining the Mission and degree held.

Statistically, no significant differences were found among the different groups for either male or female principals. Thus, the null hypothesis of no significant differences was not rejected in the area of Defining the Mission.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Managing the Instructional Program.

Tables 37 and 38 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for both male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles in the area of Managing the Instructional

Table 35

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	Master's	81	3.94	.63	1.12	.3432
	Specialist	28	3.82	.68		
	EdD	12	4.13	.64		
	PhD	6	4.23	.37		
2. Communicate school goals	Master's	80	3.75	.59	1.22	.3060
	Specialist	28	3.63	.71		
	EdD	11	3.98	.52		
	PhD	6	4.00	.59		

Program and degree held.

Statistically, no significant differences were found among the different groups. The null hypothesis was not rejected in the area of Managing the Instructional Program.

Hypothesis 3: There are no significant differences among the groups of male elementary school principals or female elementary school principals of different degree level earned in their perceptions of Promoting the School Climate.

Tables 39 and 40 show the results of the one-way analysis of variance for male and female principals' perceptions in the area of Promoting the School Climate and degree held.

Table 36

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Defining the Mission and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Frame the school goals	Master's	63	4.25	.53	1.36	.2605
	Specialist	14	4.11	.66		
	EdD	6	4.60	.44		
	PhD	3	3.93	.90		
2. Communicate school goals	Master's	63	4.02	.65	0.89	.4483
	Specialist	14	3.86	.64		
	EdD	6	4.30	.40		
	PhD	3	3.73	.42		

One significant difference was found at the .05 level in the role of providing incentives for teachers favoring the EdD group. This difference was noted for female elementary principals only. There were also slight differences in the other roles favoring the EdD group, but none of these were significant.

Summary

Discussion in this chapter focused on the investigation of the perceptions of male and female Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association members' instructional leadership behavior in the areas of Defining the Mission, Managing the Instructional

Table 37

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	Master's	79	4.03	.61	0.80	.4952
	Specialist	28	4.07	.60		
	EdD	12	4.13	.36		
	PhD	6	3.70	.58		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	Master's	80	3.86	.56	0.55	.6479
	Specialist	28	3.84	.66		
	EdD	12	4.00	.48		
	PhD	6	3.63	.59		
3. Monitor student progress	Master's	80	4.19	.48	1.53	.2111
	Specialist	28	4.19	.55		
	EdD	12	4.48	.46		
	PhD	6	4.03	.45		

Program, and Promoting School Climate. This was achieved by comparing responses by gender, years of experience as a principal, years of experience as a teacher, student enrollment in the building where principal, and degree held.

Four research questions were studied and 12 hypotheses were tested in the study. The data were analyzed using descriptive and

Table 38

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Managing the Instructional Program and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Supervise and evaluate instruction	Master's	63	4.20	0.60	1.07	.3670
	Specialist	14	3.90	0.47		
	EdD	6	4.13	0.45		
	PhD	3	4.20	0.20		
2. Coordinate the curriculum	Master's	63	3.94	0.55	0.35	.7872
	Specialist	14	3.87	0.58		
	EdD	6	3.87	0.72		
	PhD	3	3.60	1.11		
3. Monitor student progress	Master's	63	4.32	0.47	0.52	.6666
	Specialist	14	4.17	0.59		
	EdD	6	4.37	0.59		
	PhD	3	4.47	0.23		

inferential statistical testing. To test the differences among the various groups of the study, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) at the .05 level for Type I error was used in testing each of the hypotheses.

When examining the individual roles of instructional leadership behavior in the three areas addressed in this study, the most

Table 39

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Male Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	Master's	79	3.80	.50	2.09	.1057
	Specialist	28	4.00	.53		
	EdD	12	3.98	.58		
	PhD	6	3.53	.45		
2. Maintain high visibility	Master's	79	4.17	.53	1.53	.2109
	Specialist	28	4.10	.65		
	EdD	12	4.27	.61		
	PhD	6	3.70	.58		
3. Provide incentives for teachers	Master's	80	3.89	.62	2.96	.0352*
	Specialist	28	3.96	.58		
	EdD	12	4.37	.63		
	PhD	6	4.13	.41		
4. Promote professional development	Master's	81	4.23	.49	0.91	.4362
	Specialist	28	4.35	.43		
	EdD	12	4.42	.60		
	PhD	6	4.13	.41		

Table 39--Continued

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
5. Provide incentives for learning	Master's	81	4.03	.65	2.36	.0752
	Specialist	28	4.26	.57		
	EdD	12	4.47	.52		
	PhD	6	4.20	.28		

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 40

One-Way Analysis of Variance of the Female Elementary School Principals' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership in the Area of Promoting School Climate and Degree Held

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
1. Protect instructional time	Master's	63	3.92	.67	0.18	.9124
	Specialist	13	3.88	.56		
	EdD	6	4.10	.40		
	PhD	3	3.93	.70		
2. Maintain high visibility	Master's	63	4.23	.52	1.05	.3764
	Specialist	14	4.26	.45		
	EdD	6	3.83	.83		
	PhD	3	4.20	.40		

Table 40--Continued

Role	Degree	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	F-ratio	p
3. Provide incentives for teachers	Master's	63	4.10	.53	0.23	.8777
	Specialist	14	4.03	.67		
	EdD	6	4.23	.46		
	PhD	3	4.47	.12		
4. Promote professional development	Master's	63	4.47	.45	0.66	.5794
	Specialist	14	4.31	.48		
	EdD	6	4.30	.55		
	PhD	3	4.47	.12		
5. Provide incentives for learning	Master's	62	4.31	.65	1.79	.1564
	Specialist	13	3.88	.80		
	EdD	6	4.00	.61		
	PhD	3	4.40	.40		

frequently perceived roles (mean score < 4.00) reported by male and female elementary school principals were: (a) promoting professional development, (b) monitoring student progress, (c) maintaining high visibility, (d) providing incentives for learning, and (e) supervising and evaluating instruction.

In addition to the above roles, the following were also identified among the most frequently perceived roles (mean score < 4.00) by female elementary principals: (a) framing the school goals, (b) providing incentives for teachers, and (c) communicating the school

goals.

When testing for gender differences, the result of the analysis showed that female elementary school principals perceived themselves performing more than males perceived themselves performing in most all the roles of instructional leadership behavior. However, there were only four significant differences. They were in the following roles: (a) framing the school goals, (b) communicating the school goals, (c) providing incentives for teachers, and (d) promoting professional development.

When examining differences in regard to the independent variables of the study, years of experience, school enrollment, and degree held showed few significant differences among the various groups with regard to that variable. An example of a significant difference for male elementary school principals, who have 11-15 years of experience as a principal, was the role of maintaining high visibility. An example of a significant difference for female elementary school principals, who have 20 or more years of experience, was in the role of providing incentives for learning.

Few differences were found in regard to experience and degree when comparisons were made between male and female elementary school principals.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous four chapters of this study have included an introduction to the problem, a review of the related literature, the design and methodology of this study, and a presentation of the data. This chapter consists of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, and recommendations.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether there were differences between male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior as perceived by selected members of the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association. As a result of a comprehensive search of the literature, 12 hypotheses were devised. The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), a survey instrument, was utilized to collect the data needed for analysis.

To validate the questionnaire, the survey instrument was pilot tested with 22 elementary school principals and one Director of Elementary Education. After the responses were collected, some modifications were made. With the completion of the pilot testing, the questionnaire was mailed to 161 male and 109 female elementary school principals holding membership in the Michigan Elementary and

Middle School Principals Association as selected by a stratified random sample.

The responses of the male and female elementary school principals were analyzed and examined for differences in their perceptions of instructional leadership behavior in the areas of Defining the Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting School Climate. Comparisons of male and female responses were completed on the following: (a) the years of experience as a principal, (b) years of experience as a teacher, (c) student enrollment in building where principal, and (d) the highest degree held. The data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical testing. To test the differences among the various groups of the study, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test each of the hypotheses.

Male and Female Principals' Perceptions of Roles

An analysis of the responses of male and female elementary school principals' perceptions of the roles of instructional leadership behavior showed the principals perceived they performed the following roles the most often: (a) promoting professional development, (b) monitoring student progress, (c) maintaining high visibility, (d) providing incentives for learning, and (e) supervising and evaluating instruction.

In addition to the above roles, the following were also perceived as performed by females the most often: (a) framing the

school goals, (b) providing incentives for teachers, and (c) communicating the school goals.

Male and Female Perceptions in the Areas of Defining the Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting the School Climate

Significant gender differences emerged from the one-way analysis of variance in the area of Defining the Mission. Female elementary school principals tended to perceive the two roles of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals significantly more often demonstrated than did male school principals.

Females perceived themselves as performing more often than males in the area of Managing the Instructional Program but no significant differences were found. However, two significant differences emerged for the female elementary principals in the roles of providing incentives for teachers and promoting professional development in the area of Promoting the School Climate.

Male and Female Elementary Principals' Perceptions Based on Experience as a Principal and as a Teacher

Years of experience as a principal and as a teacher were found to not affect the perceptions of male and female elementary principals in the area of Defining the Mission. In the area of Managing the Instructional Program, no significant differences were found for males or females with regard to years of experience as a principal or as a teacher. In the area of Promoting the School Climate, few significant differences emerged for different years of experience.

However, male principals with 11-15 years of experience as a principal showed the highest score in the role of maintaining high visibility. In comparison, female principals of 20 or more years of experience as a principal perceived themselves the highest in providing incentives for learning and promoting professional development.

No significant differences emerged for the male principals for years of experience as a teacher in any of the roles of Promoting the School Climate, although female principals showed a significant difference for the roles of providing incentives for teachers.

Male and Female Elementary Principals' Perceptions Based on School Building Student Enrollment

There were no statistical significant differences found for male or female elementary school principals in the areas of Defining the Mission or Managing the Instructional Program based on school building student enrollment. In the area of Promoting the School Climate, no significant differences were found for male elementary principals based on student enrollment. In comparison, one significant difference emerged for the female elementary school principals in the role of maintaining high visibility. Female principals in buildings with student enrollment of less than 500 perceived themselves higher than those who were principals in buildings having more than 500 students.

Male and Female Elementary Principals' Perceptions Based on Degree Level

No statistical differences were found for either male or female elementary school principals in the areas of Defining the Mission or Managing the Instructional Program. In the area of Promoting the School Climate, one significant difference was found in the role of providing incentives for teachers. The difference was found for female principals holding the doctorate of education (EdD) degree. Also, slight differences in the other roles favored the EdD group, but none were significant.

Conclusions

There were differences found between male and female elementary school principals in the perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior. The data from the survey indicated that female elementary school principals perceived themselves performing more additional roles than the male elementary principal perceived themselves as performing. A score was interpreted to mean the perception of how much a particular instructional leadership practice was performed during one school year by the responding principals.

The findings of this study provided evidence that male and female elementary school principals perceived their performance of the roles of instructional leadership behavior differently. It was found that females perceived they performed significantly more often than males perceived they did in the roles of (a) framing the school goals, (b) providing incentives for teachers, and (c) promoting

professional development.

The conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data of this study were as follows:

1. Male and female elementary school principals were reported as perceiving they performed many of the same instructional leadership roles.

2. Female elementary school principals were reported as perceiving they performed additional roles than the male elementary school principals perceived they performed.

3. Female elementary principals perceived they performed significantly different than males perceived they performed in the areas of (a) framing the school goals, (b) communicating the school goals, (c) providing incentives for teachers, and (d) promoting professional development.

4. Years of experience as an elementary teacher or elementary school principal, size of the building based on student enrollment, or degree held did not appear to be a major factor for either male or female elementary school principals' perception of their instructional leadership behavior.

Recommendations

The findings of this investigation provided answers to the questions raised in the first chapter. As a result of this study, additional questions have been raised. Further research is needed in the area of comparing male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior. The following are

suggestions for possible areas to research as well as practices to be implemented.

1. Since differences existed in the perceptions of male and female elementary principals' instructional leadership behavior, further research is needed to determine the extent and causes of these differences.

2. An expanded study including the perceptions of middle school and high school principals would provide additional insights into this topic.

3. Another expansion of this study is to analyze elementary school teachers° perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership behavior.

4. In addition, supervisors' perceptions of principals' instructional leadership behavior could be analyzed, thereby increasing the knowledge of central office personnel in the area of instructional leadership.

5. Further research must be undertaken of the causes of differences of male and female instructional leadership behavior. This study could serve as a basis for such research.

6. Since this investigation examines the perceptions of the respondents, it is recommended that further research analyze the correlation between the perceptions of this study and the actual differences gender has on instructional leadership behavior.

7. A parallel study might be undertaken in other areas of the country. The study of instructional leadership is still in its infancy as is the comparison of administrative behavior of males and

females. The new study will enable the findings of this study to have either greater generality or will regionalize their scope.

8. The Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association should share the findings of this study with those members wanting additional information on instructional leadership and/or male and female similarities and differences of instructional leadership or administrative behavior.

9. The findings identify a need for the Michigan Association of School Administrators, the Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals, and the Michigan Elementary and Middle School Principals Association to sponsor a joint study of instructional leadership and/or a comparison of male and female administrative behavior.

10. This survey could have substantial impact on school districts. The findings of this study could help school principals and central office management better understand the dynamics between male and female school administrators in their role of instructional leadership behavior. Also, it is recommended that school districts compare and contrast the perceptions of the respondents with those of their own district school principals.

11. Additional research could be done utilizing a different instrument or change the wording of the instrument used in this study to decrease biases.

12. An expanded study could be done with a larger sample because of the limited differences found between males and females.

13. Further research is recommended in the areas of this study that indicated differences between males and females.

14. Universities should examine their administrative training programs to ensure that administrative theory courses include leadership characteristics which are common in both male and female educators.

15. There should be encouragement and support given to research the styles and behaviors of women administrators.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Letters of Transmittal

Ulysses S. Grant Elementary School

9300 Hubbard Road
Livonia, Michigan 48150
(313) 523-9480

Lynn Babcock, Principal

April 29, 1991

Dear

The principal, as the instructional leader, has been the focus of much recent research although it remains unclear what an instructional leader actually does. In addition, questions remain as to the similarities and differences of male and female principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behavior. Research on what principals actually do, and the consequences for student learning is still in the infancy stage. It is for these reasons that I have chosen to compare the perceptions of male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior as my dissertation study at Western Michigan University.

I am asking your cooperation in completing the enclosed survey. The Principal Instructional Rating Scale (PIMRS) assesses instructional leadership behavior. You're asked to indicate the degree to which you perceive you've performed a particular instructional leadership practice during this school year. Your responses will provide necessary information for further knowledge of instructional leadership.

Your personal confidentiality and the anonymity of your building and school district will be preserved in this study. Neither your name nor the building or district's name will be identified in the survey results or write-up of the research. The numbered instrument is merely intended to maintain accurate record keeping. Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope by May 10, 1991.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Lynn Babcock

Enclosures

MEMSPA
MICHIGAN ELEMENTARY AND MIDDLE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ASSOCIATION
Unified With The National Association of Elementary School Principals ◆ Affiliated With The American Student Council Association

Dear MEMSPA Member:

We hope you will cooperate by filling out the enclosed questionnaire.

This relates to a research project by a fellow MEMSPA member. This research can assist us in understanding more about the Principal as the Instructional Leader.

Sincerely,

William Mays, Jr.
Executive Director

WM/ae
Enc.

ROOM 10, MANLY MILES BLDG. • 1405 S. HARRISON RD. • EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN 48823 • (517) 353-8770 / 800-227-0824 • FAX (517) 336-1063

Appendix B

Survey Instrument

THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE

PART I: Please provide the following information about yourself and school district:

(A) How many years have you been a principal?
____0-5 ____6-10 ____11-15 ____16-20 ____Over 20 Years

(B) How many years of experience have you had as principal at this school at the end of this school year?
_____ years

(C) How many years of experience have you had as a teacher?
____0-5 ____6-10 ____11-15 ____16-20 ____Over 20 Years

(D) What grade level(s) have you taught?
____K-6 ____7-9 ____9-12 _____Other

(E) What are the grade levels at your present school?
____K-5 ____K-6 ____K-3 ____K-4 _____Other-please specify.

(F) What is the enrollment of the elementary where you are principal?
____less than 299 ____300-499 ____500 or more

(G) What is the enrollment of the school district where you are principal?

__Less than 75 ___75-2,399 _____2,400-29,999 _____30,000-119,999 _____120,000 or more

(H) What is your gender? ____Male ____Female

(I) What is your age group?
____less than 30 years of age ____30 to 40 years of age ____41 to 50 years of age
____51 to 55 years of age ____over 55 years of age

(J) What is the highest degree you have earned?
____Master's ____Specialist's Degree ____Ed.D. ____Ph.D.

PART II: This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal instructional 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 instructional leadership behavior over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that indicates the extent to which you feel you have demonstrated the specific job behavior or practice during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represents Almost Always;
4 represents Frequently;
3 represents Sometimes;
2 represents Seldom;
1 represents Almost Never.

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.

Thank you.

Principal Form 1.3
Philip Hallinger 1984

To what extent do you . . .?

I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals with staff assistance that are congruent with district 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 of other systematic methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student academic performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals with staff that can be easily translated into classroom objectives by teachers	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					I. ___
6. Communicate the school's mission to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's cognitive and affective goals with teachers at staff meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's cognitive and affective goals when making instructional decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's cognitive and affective goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g. posters or bulletin boards emphasizing reading or math) and depict children positively.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals in student assemblies	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISE & EVALUATE INSTRUCTION					II. ___
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the stated goals of the school and district	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 (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a 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 or omissions in teacher instructional practices in post observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM					III. ___
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, assistant principal or teacher-leader)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of student assessments and/or results of standardized tests when making instructional decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's or district's instructional obectives	1	2	3	4	5

CONTINUED

To what extent do you..?

	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
19. Assess the overlap between the school's instructional program and the school's or district's standardized achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss the item analysis of tests with the staff to identify instructional strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use test results as one measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results (e.g., MEAP Test)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform school community of school's test results	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					VI. ___
26. Limit interruptions of 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 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					VII. ___
31. Take time to talk 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					VIII.___
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers publicly and 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

CONTINUED

To what extent do you . . .?

	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that in-service activities attended by the staff are consistent with the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use of skills acquired during in-service training in the classroom	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 staff meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
					IX. ___
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior academic 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 and celebrate learning for all academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize student achievement or improvement by seeing students in the office 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
					X. ___

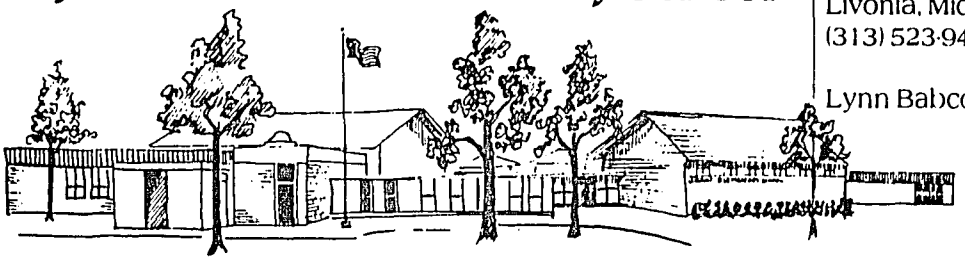
Appendix C

Follow-up Letter of Transmittal

Ulysses S. Grant Elementary School

9300 Hubbard Road
Livonia, Michigan 48150
(313) 523-9480

Lynn Babcock, Principal



May 16, 1991

Dear

Two weeks ago you received a response instrument entitled, "The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale." If you have not had the opportunity to complete and return it, I would appreciate you spending the fifteen minutes necessary to complete the attached questionnaire.

As a result of the small sample size being asked to participate in this study, it is very important that each person respond. Your personal confidentiality and the anonymity of your building and district will be preserved in this study. The numbered instrument is merely intended to maintain accurate record keeping.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Lynn Babcock

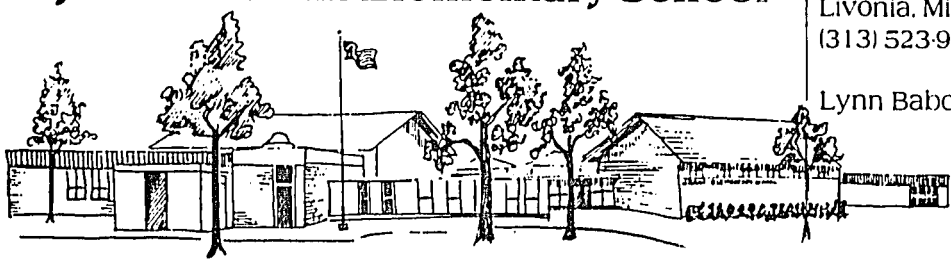
Appendix D

Letter of Transmittal for Pilot Study

Ulysses S. Grant Elementary School

9300 Hubbard Road
Livonia, Michigan 48150
(313) 523-9480

Lynn Babcock, Principal



March 14, 1991

Dear

The principal, as the instructional leader, has been the focus of much recent research although it remains unclear what an instructional leader actually does. In addition, questions remain as to the similarities and differences of male and female principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behavior. Research on what principals actually do, and the consequences for student learning is still in the infancy stage. It is for these reasons that I have chosen to compare the perceptions of male and female elementary school principals' instructional leadership behavior as my dissertation study at Western Michigan University.

I would appreciate it if you would review the enclosed instrument - the Principal Instructional Rating Scale - and provide feedback relating to its clarity and comprehensiveness. Please write your comments on the survey and return it in the enclosed envelope.

For the purposes of reveiwing this questionnaire, the following terms are intended to serve as a guide in examining it.

Clarity: If you were a respondent do you understand each question?

Comprehensiveness: Does each question limit its focus in order to obtain a clear response?

Appropriateness: Does each question appear to measure instructional leadership responsibilities?

Completeness: Is each question sufficiently narrowed to obtain a clear response?

I really appreciate your assistance in this matter. If you could return it to me by March 27 I'd be eternally grateful!

Sincerely,

Lynn Babcock

Appendix E

Approval Letter From Human Subjects
Institutional Review Board

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008-3899

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: March 11, 1991

To: C. Lynn Babcock

From: Mary Anne Bunda, Chair Mary Anne Bunda

Re: HSIRB Project Number: 91-02-10

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research protocol, "A Comparison of Male and Female Elementary School Principals Perception of their Instructional Leadership Behavior," has been approved under the exempt category of review by the HSIRB. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the approval application.

You must seek reapproval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

xc: Charles Warfield, Educational Leadership

Approval Termination: March 11, 1992

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