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# Leadership Behaviors Which Facilitate Exemplary Instructional Practice From the Perspective of Expert Teachers

Janet Evers-Goodwin

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LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS WHICH FACILITATE  
EXEMPLARY INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE  
FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF EXPERT TEACHERS

JANET EVERS-GOODWIN

Dissertation Committee

Gerard Babo, Ed.D., Mentor  
Daniel Gutmore, Ph.D., Committee Member  
Soundaram Ramaswami, Ph.D., Committee Member  
Barbara Strobert, Ed.D., Committee Member

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree of  
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APPROVAL FOR SUCCESSFUL DEFENSE

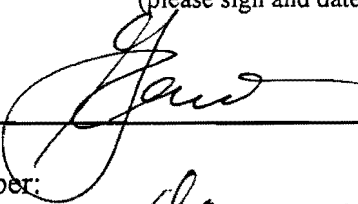
Doctoral Candidate, **Janet Evers-Goodwin**, has successfully defended and made the required modifications to the text of the doctoral dissertation for the **Ed.D.** during this **Spring Semester 2013**.

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

(please sign and date beside your name)

Mentor:

Dr. Gerard Babo



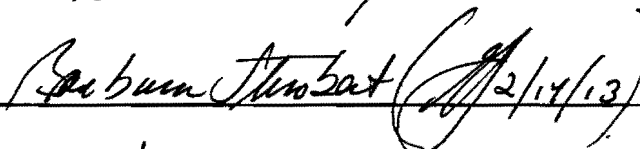
Committee Member:

Dr. Daniel Gutmore



Committee Member:

Dr. Barbara Strobert



Committee Member:

Dr. Soundaram Ramaswami



The mentor and any other committee members who wish to review revisions will sign and date this document only when revisions have been completed. Please return this form to the Office of Graduate Studies, where it will be placed in the candidate's file and submit a copy with your final dissertation to be bound as page number two.

## ABSTRACT

Although there are numerous studies on the effects that principal leadership behaviors have on student achievement outcomes, there is a growing need for continued research on specific behaviors of principals that impact the instructional practice of teachers as determined by teachers themselves. The purpose of this study was to rank order McRel's 21 leadership behaviors on the impact they have on teacher instructional practice as determined by a national sample of expert teachers. This study focused on the 21 leadership behaviors that have previously been determined to have a positive impact on student achievement. Of additional interest was the influence of variables such as teachers' gender, the grade level of the school in which the teacher works, free and reduced lunch rate of the student population, and schools meeting or not meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP).

An online questionnaire was sent to a sample of 365 teachers from all fifty states and U.S. territories who were past recipients of the National Teacher of the Year award at the state level. Demographic characteristics of the participating teachers along with five research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics and non-parametric inferential statistics, which included the Friedman Test of Mean Rank and Chi-Square. Statistically significant relationships between demographics characteristics and leadership behaviors were further investigated utilizing Kendall's Tau-B, the Mann-Whitney Test of Ordinal Data, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test.

Statistical differences existed based on the teachers' gender, the grade level of the school in which they worked, and the free and reduced lunch rate but were not found based on schools meeting or not meeting AYP.



Results of this study can be used to help support principals in their reflective thought on the 21 leadership behaviors which are best modeled to help improve teachers with their instructional practice, assist in principal training programs, and aid in the hiring process of principals. It also expands the overall research on improving instructional practice of teachers through better leadership behaviors of principals.

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Finally to Meisha, who kept me company on many long nights. You, too, are a blessing.

## **DEDICATION**

First and foremost I dedicate this dissertation to my husband and best friend, Stephen. His encouragement and belief in me provided the determination I needed to complete this project. Thank you so much for being in my life. I love you. I would also like to include in this dedication my two children, Ian and Shannon. I hope my work inspires you to never settle for less than what you want, to reach for your dreams, and let faith be your guide. Anything is possible through prayer and persistence.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

This study explores, from the perspective of expert teachers, the behaviors of principals which are most likely to improve the instructional practice of teachers in the classroom. Since the nineteenth century, when Horace Mann led the fight for free public education, there have been a multitude of efforts to improve education. Various trends and policies continued with the publication of the report, *A Nation at Risk (National Commission of Excellence in Education, 1983)*. This document pointed to the decline in education and set the foundation which encouraged educational reform leading to the standards movement in the decades to follow. Problems in public education and finding the right solutions firmly place education in the forefront as a leading national issue.

The beginning of the twenty-first century ushered in legislation that would transform how public schools perform day-to-day operations. The No Child Left Behind Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2002) created major shifts in the way teachers and administrators perform their jobs in an effort to fill in the gaps which often left students falling behind. At the heart of NCLB (2002) is high-stakes accountability whereby the success of students is measured through standardized tests (U.S. Dept. of Education, 2002).

Through NCLB (2002) the position of the school principal has shifted significantly. According to Lashway (2003), the role of the principal has changed dramatically in the last ten years from simply guiding teachers to do their best to leading teachers to meet the required results of NCLB (2002). The principal's role traditionally involved various types of managerial work, including initiating goals, allocating funding for instruction, curriculum management,



reviewing teacher lesson plans, and the evaluation of faculty and staff (Willis, 1980; Martin & Willower, 1981).

Through the legislative initiative of NCLB (2002), principals are being held accountable for meeting state and federal mandates and assume the role as the primary school instructional leader (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001). Principals are challenged to implement strategies for improvements to the educational environment and to put into place the practices which will improve student achievement. This often includes deeper involvement in the "core technology" of teaching and learning, requires a more sophisticated view of providing teachers with professional development, and emphasizes the use of data in decision making (King, 2002). The principal's role has become increasingly more difficult and multi-faceted, and this position requires a new kind of leader (Cross & Rice, 2000; Fullen, 2001). To meet the challenges of NCLB (2002) the principal must not just be content with the status quo but take on the role of instructional leader who is committed to academic achievement (Cross & Rice, 2000).

While NCLB (2002) has increased the pressure to improve student performance, educational leadership could possibly be the most important factor to meet the goals of NCLB and ultimately better performing schools (Kelley, Thornton, & Daughtery, 2005). Findings by Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2005) also support school leadership as an essential factor for improving student achievement. "Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (p.17). These researchers further concluded that the effects of school leadership directly influence school and classroom conditions, as well as teachers themselves, and also indirectly influence student learning. Cotton (2002) indicates that "it would be difficult to find an educational researcher or practitioner who does not believe that school principals are critically

important to school success” (p. 1).

### **Background of the Study**

There are numerous studies which support the idea that the school principal’s leadership is an important factor for improving student achievement. School leaders exert a tremendous amount of influence on student achievement. Research on the impact of the school principal’s role to influence student achievement has been proven to increase when leadership qualities are greater. According to Cotton (2003), “Scores of studies show that student achievement is strongly affected by the leadership of school principals,” (p. 62).

The role of the principal is critical in the academic life of teachers, students, and schools (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). According to Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McRel), there are significant, positive correlations between student achievement and effective school leadership. Strong instructional leadership is among the characteristics identified in successful schools (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Cotton (2003) reports that strong school leadership is an important component in schools which have high student achievement.

Since there have been shifts in the traditional role of the principal through new reform policies and more pressure has been put on the role of the principals, standards have been created to serve as a guide. Led by the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO), a national set of guidelines was initiated to support effective school leadership by establishing the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC). ISLLC has been adopted by more than 43 states and has developed a set of standards for school leadership practice. ISLLC and ELCC standards were developed to measure the success of school leaders and strengthen school leadership.

The standards also noted three key roles that principals need to fulfill. This included instructional leadership, community leadership, and visionary leadership. The standards set by

ISLLC have in part determined that the role of the instructional leader is to promote student achievement by creating instructional programs to help students learn. The ISLLC developed six standards for instructional leaders, and Standard 2 addresses instruction and learning in relationship to instructional leadership.

A school administrator is an instructional leader who promotes the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth: (ISLLC, 2008, p. 14).

The CCSSO-sponsored ISLLC standards suggest that the standards become incorporated into the daily routine of the instructional leader. According to the CSSO website, these standards “provide high-level guidance and insight about the traits, functions of work, and responsibilities expected of school and district leaders”(www.ccsso.org/Documents/2008).

The standards serve as a starting point for the skills principals need and expand on the expectations for principals (Portin, Schneider, DeArmond, & Gundlach, 2003).

There is no opposition to the belief that school principals have an impact on student academic achievement. Additionally, student achievement is also highly influenced by teachers. In fact, according to Wong (1999), “The only factor that increased student achievement was the significance of the teacher. Administrators create good schools and good teachers create good classrooms” (p. 1). Ouyang and Paprock (2006) also indicate the importance of teacher job satisfaction as it contributes to student learning. Teachers’ job satisfaction contributes to their motivation and it consequently helps learning and development in their students (p. 341). The development of teachers’ knowledge and skills, the involvement of the professional community, program coherence, and technical resources are all important factors when led by an effective

instructional leader. Student achievement is the result of a combination of thorough leadership and effective instruction, both of which are vital to the success of schools. Therefore, supporting the work of teachers is essential to make improvements in students learning (Zepeda, 2003).

The role of the principal as an instructional leader is challenging; yet it is through strong school leadership that teachers are inspired to do their best work, which may consequently improve students' academic performance. According to Daresh (2001), an effective principal is resourceful and supports instruction as well as monitors it. Enhancing the quality of teacher instructional practice is therefore an essential role of the principal as the instructional leader. Improving the instructional practice of teachers is an important component to increase student achievement (Cushman & Delpit, 2003; Felner, Kasak, Mulhall, & Flowers, 1997).

The relationship between principals and teachers and the impact it has on instructional practice is important. Principal-teacher relationships vary among schools and even within schools, but these relationships affect student achievement (Walsh, 2005). Newman, King and Youngs (2000) indicated that an emphasis on the principal as the primary instructional leader is vital to increasing student achievement. They found that the overall school capacity is critical as far as influencing instructional quality and ultimately impacting student achievement.

Leadership styles of principals have been viewed as integral to teacher satisfaction, stress levels, teacher retention levels, and school climate (Lee, 1983). The principal's leadership style has been counted as a contributing factor in the successful accomplishments of many teachers (Evans & Virden, 1990). An emerging body of literature, however, also implies the importance of teacher-principal relationships as opposed to just leadership styles (Walsh, 2005). It is widely agreed that strong school leadership coming from the principal affects student achievement and impacts behaviors that motivate teachers, leading to an overall successful school.

Teacher perceptions have a strong impact on the learning environment. An understanding of the teachers' perspective on behaviors that could potentially assist principals in strengthening instructional practice in the classroom is an important criterion of school leadership which could contribute in helping a school become successful. According to Berube, Gaston, and Stephans (2004), the teachers' perception of school leadership has a huge impact on and is an important factor in creating and maintaining a positive school environment. If teachers perceive the principal as a management figure and not as an instructional leader, the culture of the school may be negatively impacted. An examination of the behaviors of instructional leaders which are most beneficial to support instructional classroom practice may lead to increased student performance.

While it has been established that instructional leadership is important to improve student achievement as well as improving the instructional practice of teachers, leadership behaviors which model both areas have not been defined. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) identify some of the ways leadership improves student achievement. Leaders influence learning by promoting a vision and goals and by ensuring that resources and processes are in place to enable teachers to teach well. As schools become more complex, the need is for principals to move beyond making quick fix decisions to adopting and modeling ongoing methods of improvement (Kelly, 2005). Clear identification of the daily practices and behaviors of principals could make a difference in improving schools by ensuring that the goals and expectations of all stakeholders are being met, including those of students, teachers, parents, school boards, and school administrators.

One of the primary tasks of the principal is to be aware of the needs of teachers in terms of motivation and staff development. Blasé and Blasé (1999) indicate that published studies on

the everyday behaviors of the instructional leader from the perspective of teachers are few.

Studies which have addressed teacher and instructional leadership relationships include those from Short (1995), Blasé and Blasé (1996), and Sheppard (1996). According to Blasé and Blasé (1999), "Empirical studies have generated only scant descriptions of the behaviors of effective instructional leaders and their impact on teachers and classroom instruction" (p. 352).

As principals are held accountable for student success, the principal must maintain positive working relationships with other stakeholders, including teachers who directly impact student achievement through instructional practice. For education reforms to be established and implemented in the classroom, the support of the teacher is essential. Pajak (1989), Schon (1988), and Glickman (1985) all conducted studies which emphasized the need for the instructional leader to assist teachers in reaching school goals.

### **Statement of the Problem**

In the past ten years, principals have been held more accountable than ever before for the academic performance of students. Accountability, the hallmark of NCLB (2002) legislation at the school level, is the primary responsibility of the principal. The principal's position has moved from being one of management to assuming the role as an instructional leader responsible for all aspects of meeting the mandates outlined by federal and state legislation (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001). Since the enactment of NCLB (2002), school districts face pressures from both state and federal mandates to meet Annual Yearly Progress (AYP).

While the legislation behind NCLB (2002) was enacted as a means for filling in the educational gaps of poor performing schools under more public scrutiny, it also shifted the way in which educators work, placing greater demands on school administrators and teachers who were now held accountable for students' success (Printy, 2010). NCLB (2002) has had a

tremendous impact on education reform in the United States and directly affects the position of school principals. According to Donaldson (2001), "Districts are tying principal's contracts to test scores. Principals' reputations are forever linked with the public "report cards" on their school's performance. School boards hand down requirements and policies the way a twelve-year-old hands down clothes--expecting principals to "implement" them immediately" (p. 42).

In order for principals to try to meet state and federal mandates and to lead successful schools, they need to model behaviors which will result in better instructional practices. This study will explore, from the perspective of expert teachers, the behaviors of principals which are most likely to improve the classroom instructional practice of teachers.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to rank order the 21 leadership behaviors identified and defined by the research of Waters et al. (2003) practiced by current principals that potentially influence the quality of classroom instructional practice as perceived by an exemplary sample of teachers. Teachers directly impact student learning, and principals must be cognizant of the behaviors that generate quality classroom instruction and influence student performance. Principals must be able to model these behaviors to initiate ways to develop the expertise of teachers in order for students to improve. An understanding of the essential leadership behaviors necessary to improve instructional practice from the teacher perspective can assist instructional leadership so that essential behaviors can be modified accordingly. Awareness of teacher perception also allows for a collaborative approach. School leadership that empowers staff and motivates students and staff through high expectations is integral to a successful school.

The importance of the role of principals has long been recognized by educators and researchers, yet empirical studies on the effectiveness of principals have been stalled by the lack

of data, their complex work, and their impact on school outcomes. The study used 21 leadership behaviors previously identified by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2003) which impact student achievement. Using the same 21 behaviors, the teacher perspective was used to identify the most important traits to determine which of these behaviors has an influence on facilitating exemplary instructional practice.

Principals, as the primary instructional leaders of the school, need to be aware of the leadership behaviors which could improve instructional practice, teaching methods, and strategies used by teachers in the classroom and to utilize these behaviors to influence positive learning outcomes in the classroom.

### **Conceptual Framework**

In order for principals to successfully implement behaviors that will strengthen the instructional practice of teachers, they must be able to identify specific behaviors. The outcome of this study was to identify the behaviors which would most likely improve instructional practice in the classroom.

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) analyzed studies using meta-analysis on school leadership and its effects on student achievement. Their research analyzed data from over a 30 year period. From this research they developed a list of 21 behavior characteristics of school leaders which impact student achievement (Waters, Marzano & McNulty, 2003).

The basis of this study was to use the previously identified 21 behaviors by Waters et al. (2003) and select the behaviors which could impact the instructional practice of highly successful teachers. It is the hope of the researcher that by identifying the most effective behaviors which impact student achievement, school leadership may reflect, evaluate, and amend



their current practices, resulting in improving the instructional practice of teachers in the classroom.

From the 21 leadership behaviors described by Waters et al. (2003), two groups were created, first-order change and second-order change, using factor analysis. According to Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005), first-order change enhances the daily practice of school operations, while second-order change is more likely to represent long-term education practices. While both sets of behavior characteristics are useful and may have some type of relationship with each other, first-order change is incremental and important in that it creates the foundation for second-order change to occur.

This study was designed to use the perceptions of an expert panel of teachers on the importance of first-order change on instructional practice. The focus was placed on these particular behaviors because they are essential to managing the day-to-day operation of the school (p. 66). These behaviors may also produce change to improve instructional practice and lead to improvements in overall student achievement. By identifying the influence these behaviors have on instructional practice, principals can assist teachers more effectively in their job performance by influencing positive student achievement outcomes. Once first-order change has become successfully implemented, second-order change, which is more reform-based, is more likely to succeed (Waters et al., 2003).

To learn more about improving the behaviors of principals which could influence better classroom instructional practice of teachers as perceived by a sample of exemplary teachers, the following research questions will be examined:

### **Research Questions**

Question 1: From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership responsibilities and behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice?

Question 2: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice differ by gender and are these potential differences significant?

Question 3: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant?

Question 4: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant?

Question 5: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

### **Study Design and Methodology**

This is a quantitative survey study that used descriptive statistics in order to determine the ranking of behaviors and to summarize data. The survey instrument used analyzed responses.

Data collection was completed through an online survey using surveymonkey.com. Subjects received a Letter of Solicitation through an email inviting them to participate, followed by the survey sent electronically. Volunteers in the study participated by answering an online survey, which consists of three parts and took 10 minutes or less to complete, arranged in a multiple choice format.

The sample of volunteers includes 365 teachers identified as being exemplary in the field of education in public schools throughout the United States. Exemplary educator status was determined as those individuals who have received the honor of being the recipient of the State Teacher of the Year award between the years 2006 through 2012. The selection to become a state recipient of this award is made by local districts that nominate educators based primarily on their expertise in the classroom, peer and community recommendations, demonstrated ability, and overall professionalism. The specific criteria to be awarded this honor can be found at [www.ccsso.org/ntoy/html](http://www.ccsso.org/ntoy/html).

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and provide a summary of results for each of the 21 behavior characteristics. Descriptive statistics will include: Chi-Square, the Friedman Test, Kendall's tau-b, the Mann-Whitney Test, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test.

### **Significance of the Study**

This study is of interest because there is limited information on the relationship between teachers and principals from a teacher's perspective on the leadership behaviors which influence classroom instruction. This study contributes to educational leadership research, which studies the relationship between instructional leaders and teachers in the classroom.

### **Teacher Perspective**

From the teacher's perspective, this study is of interest because it explores an aspect of

school leadership which focuses on what is most important to teachers: how instructional practice can be improved in the classroom to strengthen student achievement. Marks and Printy (2003) report that “transformational leaders may challenge teachers to examine their assumptions about their work and to rethink their instructional process” (p. 376). Through an exploration of principal leadership behaviors which influence the performance of teachers, teachers can use this research to evaluate what works to make positive changes and make efforts to build better relationships with instructional leaders.

Through collaboration between administrators and teachers, meaningful improvements can be made on instructional practice in the classroom. The results also have the potential to guide the professional development of teachers and instructional leaders, including principals, supervisors, and administrative teams. With the current trend toward accountability in school leadership for improvement in student achievement, the results of this study could potentially help to direct and design professional programs for those interested in school leadership.

### **Principal Perspective**

By examining the teacher perspective on leadership behaviors that influence instructional practice, school leaders can strive to make improvements in their behavior which influences classroom instructional practice and thereby improve student performance. Insight gained from the study may provide opportunities for school leaders to reflect upon their current behaviors and consider changes to improve their day-to-day leadership activities. These changes may assist principals’ growth in leadership capacities and allow their schools to improve.

The study results may also assist in strengthening the relationship between teachers and school leaders as principals become more aware of the behavior practices which affect classroom instruction. Most principals report not having enough time in the day to spend in the classroom

and devote to curriculum. This study allows principals to take a closer look at how their behaviors can bring about change in the school, enhance the instructional practice of teachers, and continue to influence student learning. A self-examination of current practices on an individual basis can provide reflection which may improve practices by those in leadership positions to influence students in a positive way.

The impact of NCLB is also relevant to this study. For many schools, attaining the challenging goals of NCLB requires the efforts of teachers and school leaders working together to build positive relationships. Working to understand one another from various perspectives and collaborating on ideas to implement improvements could improve administrative and teacher working relationships and improve the quality of education for students. The results may lead to meeting AYP performance goals.

As teacher and principal evaluations become more tied to student achievement, a collaborative effort and the relationship between teachers and principals becomes more important. Principals may soon face evaluation methods which are directly affected by student test scores. A collaborative approach between teachers and principals is necessary to facilitate the best possible methods and strategies to improve instruction which benefits all students.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The following limitations were present in this study:

- The sample was restricted to public school teachers and therefore cannot be generalized to other types of schools.
- The study was based on teachers who were identified as exemplary in their field as National Teacher of the Year recipients for 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, and 2012.

- It was assumed that every state and U.S. Territory selected its Teacher of the Year recipients based on a rigorous selection process.
- The categories created in the survey for grade level of the school and free and reduced lunch rates were condensed from the original survey to allow for larger sample sizes.
- The sample size created limitations in generalizing it to larger populations.
- Each teacher had to be actively teaching during the 2011-2012 school year.
- The leadership responsibilities and behavior used in the study were based only on those identified from McRel.
- Data were collected through one survey.
- Findings may not be generalized to any group other than the teachers selected for this study.
- This study is based on teacher perceptions and as such cannot be controlled for teacher bias.
- The knowledge and insights obtained by this study may provide reflection for school leaders to examine their practices as instructional leaders and have a positive impact on student academic achievement. It may also allow teachers to examine the behaviors and characteristics that influence their instructional practice in ways that could improve instruction.

### **Delimitations of the Study**

The following assumptions were made by the researcher:

1. A survey instrument was used as an accurate measurement of perceptions regarding the leadership responsibilities and behaviors of school leaders.

2. Subjects in the survey would respond accurately and honestly.
3. Data received on teachers meeting the criteria for selection to participate in the survey were accurate.

### **Assumptions**

The following assumptions were made while conducting this study:

- It was assumed in this study that teachers who were selected as recipients of the State Teacher of the Year award for their respective state and U.S. Territory responded to the survey and answered the questions.
- It was assumed in this study that teachers answered the questions honestly, with integrity, and without bias to support the research being conducted.
- It was assumed that the survey instrument being used to conduct the research was reliable and appropriate for the research being conducted.

### **Definitions of Terms**

**Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)** - A benchmark set by the state based on meeting the requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act's overall goal that all students must be proficient in reading and math curricula by 2014. The goals are met through high-stakes testing administered to students annually. To reach AYP, a school must achieve the guidelines for its student population as well as each demographic subgroup, including students with disabilities.

**Effective Schools** - Used to describe schools that have as their primary goal a well-rounded academic program. They provide instruction that promotes student learning as well as a positive school climate (Sergiovanni, 2006).

**First-Order Change** - The instructional activities of the school, such as monitoring teachers and evaluating students' work (Leithwood, 1992). This term most often refers to principals.

**Free and Reduced Lunch (FRL)** – For the research purposes of this study FRL will be used to identify student populations based on socioeconomics.

**Instructional Leader** - Focuses administrators' attention on "first-order" change--improving the technical and instructional activities of the school through close monitoring of teachers' and students' classroom work (Leithwood, 1992). The term most often refers to principals.

**Mid-Continental Research for Education and Learning (McRel)** - A nationally recognized non-profit organization that identified 21 leadership behaviors to help improve student achievement through leadership practices, strategies, and skills (Waters, Marzano, and McNulty, 2003).

**No Child Left Behind (NCLB)** - An act passed by Congress in 2001 under President Bush which gave states and districts flexibility in how education tax dollars are spent in return for setting and meeting high standards in student achievement, holding educators accountable for the results (U.S. Department of Education, 2002, p. 5).

**Principal** - The person serving as the primary administrative leader of the school.

**State Teacher of the Year** - Selected from each state and U.S. territory, a Teacher of the Year is an exceptionally dedicated, knowledgeable, and skilled teacher in any state-approved or accredited school (pre-kindergarten through Grade12, who is planning to continue in an active teaching status ([www.ccsso.org](http://www.ccsso.org))).

### Summary

This study has merit because it attempts to move past knowledge of what behaviors of



the instructional leader influence student achievement. It attempts to examine from the teacher perspective what behaviors of the instructional leader impact instructional practice that will directly affect students. By identifying what behavior characteristics of school leaders will help teachers enhance classroom instruction, we can hope to improve instructional methods so that more students will succeed academically.

First, the study reveals the necessary background information from the theoretical premises which have influenced the behaviors and practices of school leaders to the importance of the teacher perspective and its impact on providing a school environment conducive to quality instruction. Second, the study reports the behaviors of instructional leadership which impact instruction as reported by teachers who witness the day-to-day activities of both students and school leaders. The results of this study may lead to further investigation of behaviors which impact other aspects of the school that may also increase student achievement. The findings may be useful to help redesign the activities of school leaders to redirect their focus of daily activities to improve instruction.

### **Organization of the Dissertation**

Chapter II consists of the literature review related to the work in this study, which includes leadership theories, the research background on school leadership and student achievement, instructional leadership and effective school research, direct and indirect effects of school leadership behaviors, the importance of using teacher perspective, the 21 leadership behaviors identified by McRel, and the research significance of the study. Chapter III details the methodology and instrument used for collecting data to answer research questions. Chapter IV presents research findings, and Chapter V reports and discusses the conclusions, recommendations, and other implications.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This study investigates the leadership behaviors of principals which impact instructional practice from the perspective of teachers. The review of the literature examines empirical studies and the theoretical base to provide insight into the topic. Analysis of teacher perceptions of principals' behavior characteristics that impact instructional practice is important to help make improvements in school leadership to ultimately affect student achievement. School leadership has a long history, which has evolved throughout the last 40 years from managerial to instructional leadership. Research indicates that principals play a role in improving student achievement. An examination of topics will include the background of instructional leadership, the important behavior characteristics of instructional leaders, and the relevance of the teacher perspective, all of which contribute to continued research.

#### **Literature Search Procedures**

The literature reviewed was accessed through various online databases, including ProQuest, and ERIC, EBSCOhost, Academic Search Premier, and JSTOR. Online print and other print editions from peer-reviewed educational journals were used. Experiment studies, non-experimental studies and quasi-experimental research were all reviewed.

#### **Instructional Leadership and Effective Schools**

The term *instructional leader* was mentioned as early as the 1960s and became more dominant during the 1980s, as school leaders looked more closely at how effective schools operated and principals started to become more involved with curriculum and instructional practices (Lashway, 2002). In the 1980s, as the tasks and responsibilities of principals were reshaped, instructional leadership was defined as a school administrator who provided direct assistance to teachers, provided group and staff support, curriculum development, and action

research (Glickman, 1985). Along with the tasks identified by Glickman (1985), Pajak (1989) included the responsibilities of planning, organizing, facilitating change, and motivating staff.

The idea of the instructional leader grew from the work of Edmonds (1979) and his studies on effective schools. Edmonds (1979) contributed two important concepts, effective schools and instructional leadership. These concepts placed a focus on improving educational outcomes dependent on the leadership provided by the principal. The principal's behavior was noted as having an influence and an impact on student achievement. It was through these studies that the paradigm changed, as research began to indicate that schools that were most effective were those with leadership driven by principals who focused on curriculum and instruction (Lashway, 2002).

The term *effective school* is commonly used to describe schools that have as their primary goal a well-rounded academic program. The effective school movement began following the controversial Coleman Report, which challenged socioeconomic status (SES) research on what was needed to make an effective school. Coleman noted that an instructional leader set clear goals, with resources and support for academics that related to improved student achievement. There were also high expectations for teachers and parents to take an active role to support learning as well as high expectations for all instructional practices. Students needed to reach a minimum achievement level, and all students were expected to succeed in basic reading, language, and math skills, which were a priority over activities. The use of standardized tests and classroom assessment monitored the progress of students.

Edmonds (1979) summarized his findings to include five correlates of effective schools:

1. The leadership of the principal is characterized by substantial attention to the quality of instruction

2. There is a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus
3. An orderly, safe climate exists that is conducive to teaching and learning
4. Teacher behaviors convey the expectation that all students are to obtain at least minimum mastery
5. Pupil achievement is used as the measure for program evaluation (Mace-Matluck, 1987, pp. 14-15).

These correlates, according to Edmonds (1979), were interrelated.

Edmonds (1979) suggested that the combination of the principal's and teacher's behavior influences teacher interaction with students and their learning. As teachers' helped students to make improvements in their learning, principals focused on ways to assist teachers. A school principal who demonstrates strong instructional leadership practices is among the qualities found in effective schools.

According to Brookover and Lezotte (1979) and Edmonds (1979), effective schools share common characteristics and qualities. These include staff agreement on goals and purposes, a clear mission, a goal-orientated staff, and articulation of purpose by the principal (p. 195). Other research supports Edmonds (1979) with similar results regarding characteristics of effective schools, including staff agreement on goals, a clear mission and sense of purpose, instruction that promotes student learning, and a positive school climate (Sergiovanni, 2006).

Effective school research indicates that principal leadership indirectly influences school academic achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). However, there are inadequate empirical data to demonstrate the types of activities necessary for the instructional leader to produce greater academic results (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). In addition, there is some disagreement concerning the general behaviors of principals versus understanding and identifying the exact

tasks that are needed to be performed. In addition, there is limited research on how to incorporate curriculum instruction into the studies of leadership (Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012).

Levine and Lezotte (1990) indicated the need for effective schools to establish a clear mission statement, high expectations for student success, an emphasis on mastering basic skills, monitoring student progress, a principal who acts as an instructional leader, and positive parent relationships to share in the mission to attain goals.

In a study conducted by Mortimore and Sammong (1987), effective schools raised student performance regardless of the socioeconomic background. Based on their study, a student from a blue-collar household who attended an effective school had better achievement than a student from a white-collar family attending a less effective school. While there is much research of school effectiveness, generalizations cannot be made because of the lack of methodologies. This includes designs that do not allow for causal inferences; most studies are co-relational and are limited to case studies. There are also a limited number of elementary schools involved in the research (Ginsberg, 2010).

Instructional leadership is one of the most frequently studied models of school leadership (Hallinger, 1999). Instructional leadership focuses on instruction, curriculum, school goals, and improved educational outcomes. It provides a theoretical framework indicating how leaders influence an organization (Blanchard & Hodges, 2005). According to Ginsberg (2010), defining instructional leadership for principals is difficult because creating a model of principal effectiveness is connected to research on school effectiveness and principal instructional leadership.

The role of principal continues to evolve, and the responsibilities have changed with more focus placed on student achievement. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) indicated that the

primary focus of principal supervision was to provide leadership in five ways: (1) to develop mutual goals, (2) to extend cooperative and democratic supervision methods, (3) to improve instruction in the classroom, (4) to promote research into educational problems, and (5) to promote educational leadership.

Characteristics of instructional leaders included setting goals to help motivate students, displaying self-confidence, being more open to ideas of others, and tolerating ambiguity (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980). DeBevoise (1984) noted that this type of leadership defined a purpose for schools by establishing schoolwide goals, creating more collegial relationships with teachers, and providing more staff development activities. As more opportunities grew for the emergence of instructional leaders, researchers began noting factors of commonality among instructional leadership.

High achieving schools and the specific reasons for their success were questioned. Similar students from high achieving schools and low-achieving schools continued to be studied and the biggest difference seems to point to leadership. Principals of high achieving schools establish a commitment of learning goals in what Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) called "assertive achievement-oriented leadership, acquiring and distributing resources as needed to meet school goals" (Cotton, p. 3). It also provided for instructional improvement activities for the staff involving stakeholders in the decision making, modeling behaviors they expect from students and staff, and establishing positive relationships with a focus on achieving the goals of the school (p. 3).

Lashway (1995) noted that schools that were high achieving had principals who were more involved in academic and curricular areas. These principals were strong leaders in setting goals and focusing on academics, staff development and classroom instruction. Leithwood and

Jantzi (1999) confirmed this by noting that instructional leadership focuses on the impact that the leader's behavior has on the behavior of teachers in their daily activities with students.

Heck and Hallinger (1999) stressed the importance of the efforts of the instructional leader to define the school's goals and mission, manage the instructional programs, and provide for a safe school environment. According to Hallinger (2003), there are three dimensions to instructional leadership. This includes defining the school's mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a positive learning climate. A strong background in curriculum design, development, and the evaluation process, as Hallinger (2003) points out, may be problematic for some principals, as they may not be expert in curricular areas and feel more at ease in the administrative role. The principal may also be confined to managerial functions of the school; they may not have time to focus on teaching and curriculum.

Defining instructional leadership is difficult because of its changing dynamics. Smith and Andrews (1989) described the term as having a combination of several tasks, including the supervision of classroom instruction, staff, and curriculum development. Schon (1988) indicated that instructional leadership was a process that emphasized reflective teaching, including guidance and support. The term was described by Leithwood (1992), who defined instructional leadership as that which:

focuses administrators' attention on "first-order" changes--improving the technical, instructional activities of the school through close monitoring of teachers' and students' classroom work. Yet instructional leaders often make such important "second-order" changes as building a shared vision, improving communication, and developing collaborative decision-making processes (p. 8).

Leithwood (1994) later amended the term by including behaviors designed to affect classroom instruction such as modeling, supervising, coaching, and any activities which would influence teachers (Valentine and Prater, 2011).

Principals who are more involved with the school's instructional program can be identified as instructional leaders and consequently have higher achieving students. According to Cotton (2003), principals who are knowledgeable about and actively involved with their school's instructional program have higher-achieving students than principals who manage only the non-instructional aspects of their schools (p. 25). Marks and Printy (2003) described the concept in a more modern way as a "leader of instructional leaders" (Stewart, 2006. p. 6), thereby eliminating a solo role of being independently responsible for all curriculum and instruction initiatives taking place within the school.

In 2001, *21st Century School Administrator Skills*, published by The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), defined its mission as "strengthening the role of the principal as instructional leader." It also listed the criteria that defined instructional leadership for principals, which include the following:

1. Implements strategies for improving teaching and learning, including putting programs and improvement efforts into action
2. Develops a vision and establishes clear goals
3. Provides direction in achieving stated goals
4. Encourages others to contribute to goal achievement
5. Secures the commitment to a course of action from individuals and groups

One of the major studies on principal leadership was conducted by Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004). This study identified three sets of core leadership



practices that are essential to the definition of instructional leader, including setting direction, developing people, and redesigning the organization. Each practice is outlined in their descriptive research and narrative review in *How Leadership Influences Student Learning* (Leithwood et al., 2004). This research provides insight and an explanation using empirical research from Grades K-12 schools.

Based on the framework, school leaders play a crucial role identifying and supporting learning, structuring the social settings, and mediating the external demands. It was found that successful leadership plays a significant and sometimes underestimated role in improving student learning. “Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school (Leithwood et al., 2004, p. 5). According to Leithwood et al. (2004), evidence also supported an additional finding, “Leadership effects are usually largest where and when they are needed most” (p. 5).

The strengths of the findings by Leithwood et al. (2004) supported improving leadership as an essential component to successful school reforms. If leadership has the second largest impact on student learning, it should be analyzed more closely. For schools in need or schools with severe problems, effective leadership will have a strong effect and may contribute to improvement.

A number of studies have indicated that there are factors which point to a connection between principal leadership and student achievement; however, elementary schools have not been well researched (p. 309). Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) address the issue of a connection between school effectiveness and an effective principal. Their study showed that an effective principal was actively involved with teachers and the instructional program in

numerous ways. A more traditional principal did not become involved and was “drowned in a sea of administrivia” (p. 330).

The principal as a model for teaching and instruction is an important element in shaping the school culture and climate. Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) found that student learning was impacted by the principal’s behaviors, which were interconnected with school and classroom-related factors such as school climate. Their work provides a better understanding of the connection between a school administrator’s motivation and student motivation.

Leithwood and Montgomery (1982) described how school administrators progress through different stages as they gain experience. They noted that the principal’s personal motivation can become motivating for students and staff through setting goals. At the highest level, principals believe that people are normally motivated to engage in the types of behavior which will help to reach their goals. The strength of their motivation depends on the importance of the goal and how much they believe they are able to achieve it. Their motivational strength depends on how they feel about the success the behavior will have in moving forward toward achieving the goal. “Personally valued goals are a central element in the principal’s motivational structure--a stimulus for action. Establishing, communicating, and creating consensus around goals related to motivation and educational achievement can be a central feature of a school leader’s own value system” (p. 4).

While there is clearly a relationship between the instructional leader and student achievement, it is not clear what behaviors specifically have the greatest effect. Based on the idea of the principal as instructional leader and supported by research to show that instructional leaders can make a difference, the research should shift its focus from the job responsibilities of the principal to the behaviors necessary for principals to possess in order to be successful in

helping students succeed academically. It makes sense to focus on the behavior characteristics necessary for the instructional leader to positively influence the instructional practice of teachers which directly impact students.

After conducting interviews with principals, vice-principals, and teachers at all levels, Portin et al. (2003) supported this idea by identifying behaviors. Based on Midwestern schools, they noted that all three groups needed someone who could ensure quality of instruction, including a principal, who was able to model teaching practice for others, supervise curriculum, and be able to ensure that teachers had necessary resources (p. 19). The research indicates that one aspect of the behaviors necessary for the instructional leader to be successful is the role they play in the instructional practice of teachers.

To further analyze the role of the principal on student achievement and to understand how instructional practices are related, research on the direct and indirect effects of the principal's influence on student achievement has been conducted and is considered an important element to further explain the behavior characteristics of principals. While studies at times have been contradictory, the current research continues to find that principal leadership has an indirect effect on student achievement. As a result, the methods to measure leadership have increased.

Hallinger and Heck (1998) showed that principals have an indirect effect on student achievement through teachers and the cultural environment of the school. Between 1980 and 1995, Hallinger and Heck (1998) evaluated the principal's connection with school effectiveness. According to the study, "Leadership effect sizes were consistent with other known school-level variables that have received considerable policy attention. The evidence suggests that change in distributed leadership can be empirically linked to change in school improvement capacity and subsequent growth in student learning" (p. 35). This research indicated solid support for

principal influence as being measurable; however, it had at best an indirect effect on school effectiveness and student achievement (Sergiovanni, 2006, p. 52).

A review of studies investigating the principal's role in school effectiveness showed that a principal's effectiveness on student learning came through contextual factors; for example, formulating policy, setting goals, and influencing teachers' practices. Behavior of the principal provides a measurable indirect effect but does not provide a measurable direct effect on student achievement (p. 52). Principals who work to provide a safe, caring environment for students created an environment that is conducive to learning and consequently improves student achievement. The principal's efforts count in making the school an effective culture which will be an investment in student learning (p. 53).

According to Hallinger and Heck (1998) the leadership of the principal is important to student achievement. The principal's influence on student learning includes factors such as being able to effectively work with teachers and influencing a positive school culture. It also supports the idea that in schools where teachers and principals work closely together, student achievement is usually higher (Printy, 2010).

This data continued to be supported. Analyzing data on the effects of school leadership, specifically principal behaviors on student learning, Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) indicated no direct impact on secondary school principal leadership. "Leadership is no longer proposed as having a direct influence on learning outcomes but as having an indirect influence through the way it has an impact on school organization and school culture" (p. 401). Important findings from this research include the reciprocal models in educational leadership studies and the emphasis on the relationship between values and behaviors. Leadership should not only study behaviors but also why they occur. The research analyzes factors such as teachers' working

conditions and organizational factors which are important to leadership behavior (Witziers et al., p. 417). Evidence from this research further supports the indirect effect model. School leaders can work to improve student learning by establishing a vision and setting goals. They can also plan to provide resources and processes to assist teachers (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

Studies on indirect effects were also conducted by Blasé and Blasé (1999). Their study was based on how the actions of the principal allow teachers to feel empowerment. This includes principal and teacher evaluation and monitoring student behavior and progress (Blasé and Blasé, 1999). They concluded that the relationship among instructional leadership, the effects of leader behavior on teacher behaviors and teaching, and the instructional leaders' characteristics are important conditions for effective instructional leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 1999).

Effective instructional leadership is embedded in school culture and allows the integration of collaboration, peer coaching, study groups, and reflective discussion, where educators can engage in professional dialogue. "Principals who are attempting to develop as effective instructional leaders should work to integrate reflection and growth to build a school culture of individual and shared critical examination for instructional improvement" (p. 138).

However, there are some earlier studies which contradict the indirect findings. In the late 1970s, research conducted by Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Wisenbaker (1979) found that the direct effects of the principal may have an impact on student achievement. This included activities in which principals engaged directly with students, demonstrating instructional leadership behaviors such as routinely visiting classrooms, monitoring student work, meeting regularly with students, and discussing academic issues. The research from this study indicated that educational leadership is important for schools to be effective and principals should have, among other things, high expectations for their teachers and coordinate the

curriculum while emphasizing basic skills and monitoring student progress (Brookover et al., 1979).

### **School Leadership and Education Reform**

In 1970, a United States Senate Committee singled out the principal as the most important and influential person in a school. Research continued to indicate that the effects of school leadership on student academics provide higher levels of student achievement (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). There are a number of studies which show a positive relationship between principal behavior characteristics and student academic achievement (Cotton, 2003). Studies in the last fifteen years prove that a relationship exists. Seldom disputed, the principal is a critical factor in the effort to help a school improve. In fact, educational leadership may be the most important factor of an effective learning environment (Kelley, Thornton, & Daughtery, 2005).

Research on the types of activities that principals performed in the 1980s found that the majority of principals spent most of their day in their offices with only 9% of their time in the classroom (Martin & Willower, 1981; Willis, 1980). They indicated that while 17% of the principals' time was devoted to their schools' academic programs, the time was more likely to be described as passive or supportive rather than active or directive (p. 84). Researchers, including Hannaway and Sproull (1979), found that 90% of a high school principal's activities were spent on activities that were unrelated to curriculum and instruction, and only 12% of the school principals felt that they had authority or decision power on issues such as instructional methods used by teachers. This was also noted by Deal and Celotti (1980).

Additionally, principals usually conducted infrequent classroom observations of teachers on instructional practices. These evaluations were usually unsystematic, subjective, and

consisted of generalities and subjective approval (Cohen & Miller, 1980). Even though the principals considered classroom instruction to be a top priority, in practice they did not take the opportunity to influence the teaching and learning taking place in the classrooms.

The role of the principal and the potential of those in the position to affect student outcomes did not come into focus until a major shift in the way educators perceived the purpose of education, which resulted from a study that was conducted on school resources. The *Coleman Report* is widely considered the most important education study of the twentieth century (Kiviat, 2001). Research conducted by Coleman (1966) utilized data from over 600,000 teachers, students, and schools from every part of the country. The report indicated that academic achievement was less related to the quality of the school a student attended and more related to other factors (Kiviat, 2001). The report showed that school resources were not significant factors when it comes to student achievement; however, socioeconomic status, including that of ethnic groups, was indeed a primary factor in relation to successful schools (Coleman, 1966). While equality of opportunity focused on equal school resources, what emerged from the study for the first time were test scores being used as an indicator of student performance. Coleman used test scores to better understand what was being produced by the school to show student achievement (Kiviat, 2001).

The school principal of the twentieth century faces many additional challenges that his or her predecessors were unlikely to encounter fifty years ago. Valentine and Prater (2011) indicate that the role of the principal has grown in complexity due to the structure of society, political expectations, and a change in the overall structure of schools as an organization.

The passage of the No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB, 2002) had a huge impact on the role of the principal. Stemming from the work of prior reform efforts, including *A Nation*

*at Risk* (1980), NCLB issued state and federal mandates which held the principal accountable as the primary person for improving student achievement. Accountability, the hallmark of NCLB (2002) was imposed to prevent education gaps. The use of standardized test scores was initiated as the means for measuring success, and scores were presented to the public in the form of a school report card to allow for more transparency.

Traditionally, the principal was seen as the manager of the school; and within that position he or she was responsible for everything from financial operations, maintaining the building, personnel issues, public relations, school policy regarding discipline, coordinating instructional programs, and many other school-related matters (Buckner, 2002). The job has since been placed in the larger setting of society and has undergone a transition from bureaucratic and humanistic to that of instructional leader (Beck & Murphy, 1994).

The position of the principal since NCLB (2002) has taken on a whole new role with diverse responsibilities, including leadership, that has impacted the success of schools and, most importantly, student achievement. The principal must make every attempt to ensure that teachers are equipped with the necessary tools to provide effective instruction. The principal must also assist teachers to develop professionally and to continue to meet the instructional needs of their students. The role of the school principal today has become more significant in shaping and facilitating the needs and growth of the school as well as initiating procedures and policies which improve student learning. NCLB, in particular, has had a huge effect on holding principals accountable for students' success

Clearly defined goals for staff and students, as well as a clear sense of vision, are necessary for principals to communicate with school stakeholders, (Harris, 2007; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Cotton, 2003; Lashway, 2003). Hallinger and Heck (1996) indicated



a need for empirical support for setting school goals, which was consistent with the studies they reviewed on instructional leadership. Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) confirmed that instructional leadership focuses on the impact of the principal's behaviors on teachers as they perform activities which directly result in the growth of students.

### **Teacher Perspective**

The role of the school principal has a powerful influence on the achievement of students and the quality of instruction. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) indicate that the effects are so great that school leadership is second only to the effect of quality of curriculum and teachers' instruction. The empirical data supports leadership and student achievement; however, there are few empirical studies which identify the specific practices that improve conditions for teachers to extend into their classroom instruction. Without this important research, improvements to the strategies and programs which could provide higher levels of academic success for students cannot be realized.

A Committee Report on Equal Educational Opportunity recognized the school principal as the most influential person in the school, whose leadership sets the tone and climate of the school and who is responsible for all of the activities which occur there (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). The report also indicated that the principal sets a level of professionalism for teachers and influenced their morale. The principal serves as a crucial link between the school and the entire community, with substantial influence over the attitudes of parents and students (p. 5).

Studies on the role of the school principal are numerous. Most suggests skills and qualities necessary for the school principal to successfully lead the school and raise student achievement. Studies have been conducted to improve leadership, including analyzing patterns

of influence, the relationship between principals and teachers in terms of job satisfaction, longevity, and the effects on school culture. Many studies analyze the perspective of various stakeholders including principals, superintendents, students, and parents.

To be truly effective in terms of implementing the necessary steps for reform to take place within the classroom, the viewpoint of the teacher is essential and must be considered. According to Blasé and Blasé (1999), the perspective of teachers on the leadership of the school is influenced by the principal's daily actions. However, published studies on the everyday behaviors of the instructional leader from the perspective of teachers are few.

Studies that have been conducted include Pajak, (1989) Schon (1988), and Glickman, (1985) who emphasized the need for the instructional leader to assist teachers in reaching school goals. One of the primary tasks of the instructional leader is to be cognizant of the needs of teachers in terms of motivation and staff development. Schon (1988) indicates that instructional leadership emphasizes collegial classroom observations and specifically focuses on support, guidance, and encouragement of reflective teaching (Blasé & Blasé, 1999, p. 351).

Blasé and Blasé (1999) found that "empirical studies have generated only scant descriptions of the behaviors of effective instructional leaders and their impact on teachers and classroom instruction" (p. 352). Studies which have addressed teacher and instructional leadership relationships include those from Short (1995), Blasé and Blasé (1996), and Sheppard (1996). Blasé and Blasé (1999) conducted studies on the teacher perspective of everyday instructional leadership characteristics. They examined the characteristics of principals that enhance classroom instruction. The findings of their study included talking with teachers to promote reflection and professional growth as the major dimensions of effective instructional leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). "Overall, the data indicate that each of the instructional

leadership strategies described have strong ‘enhancing effects’ on teachers, emotionally, cognitively and behaviorally” (p. 137). The study also described specific ways that principals could improve, including modeling teaching skills, talking frequently with teachers about instruction, making suggestions and providing feedback, and seeking teachers’ advice and opinions about classroom instruction (p. 138).

Other studies on teacher perceptions include Nakornsri (1977), who studied the perceptions of teachers in regard to the role of the principal on behavior and administrative performance. The difference between the teachers’ perceptions of their principal’s administrative performance and their role behavior was dependent on the educational level of the teachers.

A study by Branscum (1983) focused on the competencies of school principals in Oklahoma rural schools. They found that teachers rated competencies in areas such as community relations, pupil personnel services, student discipline, and personnel services as the most important functions of the principal. The study also showed a low priority on school finances, plant operations, and auxiliary services. This indicates a focus on human relationship factors and less on the physical and maintenance aspects of the school.

Studies and methodologies used to evaluate principal leadership have varied over the years. A study of 25 years of research by Hallinger and Heck (2008) used a collection of dissertation abstracts that utilized the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). It found differences in the perceptions across role groups with teacher perceptions providing the most valid data (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Most importantly it showed that teacher perceptions constitute the strongest source of data on principals’ instructional leadership (p. 31). Teacher perceptions were more closely matched with results obtained from interviews, indicating

strong validity. Principal self-reports and supervisor reports were skewed compared to other sources, giving the teacher in the survey a greater confidence level.

Another study which focused on behaviors of instructional leaders was conducted by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003), using meta-analysis on school leadership as practiced by principals (Waters et al., 2003, p. 28.) Between 1978-2001 they examined the relationship between the leadership of the principal and student academic achievement (p. 29). Teacher ratings were also used in the study. Teachers are known to provide the best and most valid information because they experience the daily operation of the school and observe the daily behavior of the principal (Ebmeier, 2003; cited in Waters et al., 2003, p. 30). A variety of leadership factors were discussed in the study, including school culture, faculty motivation, and instructional support. Overall, Waters et al. (2003) found that on average the effect size was significant and that there was a substantial relationship between leadership and student achievement (p. 30).

Relationships between teachers and instructional leaders are important in creating a school environment conducive to learning. Bolman and Deal (1997) found that leadership reinforces the values and behaviors they desire for people in the organization through daily interactions. Relationships are a key factor between principals and teachers. “Additionally, the prominence of teaching and leading as factors related to student learning underscores the importance of learning more about the relationship of leadership to teaching” (Printy, 2010).

Collins and Hanson (1991) noted the importance of teachers and principals working together and the conflict that occurs if strong personalities fail to work together. They emphasize a need to be team players, following rules to benefit all. According to Printy (2010), “Principals play a key role in encouraging teacher involvement and learning through their transformational

influence and by creating conditions where peer influence can flourish. When instructional goals are focused, for example, through paced instruction or test preparation, teachers' decisions coincide with the direct influence of principals" (p. 117).

While the studies are limited on the perceptions of teachers by gender, a study by Shareatpanahi (1982) suggests that male and female teachers respond differently to the leadership behaviors of a female principal than to those of a male principal. Nogay and Beebe (2008) found significant differences between the perceptions of teachers on leadership behaviors based on gender. Most notably, male teachers perceived female principals as being more effective at supervising and evaluating instruction than male principals. Both genders of teachers found female principals to be more effective with coordinating school curriculum (Nogay & BeeBe, 2008).

A study presented by Valentine (2005), sponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP), focused on leadership of highly effective middle schools. Programs were implemented in selected schools that were reflective of current research about middle level education. These schools were conscientious in their efforts to improve programs as knowledge grew and used achievement data and school data to make purposeful changes. Findings included a continuous vision among teachers who shared common values and beliefs. Teachers shared in collaboration and continuous learning, and there was an environment of trust and mutual respect shared by teachers and administrators. Over time, the principal's leadership will shape the school, positively or negatively. Without high-quality leadership, high-quality schools cannot exist. The significance of leadership was found in the data and it was even more apparent in the in-depth study of six schools that were site-visited (p. 7).

Today, standards-based accountability challenges traditional assumptions about instructional leadership. Instead of encouraging teachers' efforts, principals must lead teachers to produce tangible results on academic standards. This requires not just innovative practices, but a different mindset (Jamentz, 2002). There are several implications. Given the conflicting demands for education reform, leaders must design coherence into improvement efforts (Supovitz & Poglinco, 2001). This is referred to as sharing a common vision, but it basically means that stakeholders have a mutual understanding for a common goal to which everyone is accountable. It includes policies, practices, and resources which are aligned with meeting goals. The instructional leader serves as the glue which holds everything together.

The distributed nature of leadership requires administrators to achieve a balance of mandate and empowerment. On one hand, change is not optional, and common goals may require teachers to give up individual preferences. On the other hand, goals cannot be imposed. Effective instructional leaders create a safe environment for teachers, using dialogue rather than dictates to keep the focus on core instructional issues (Supovitz & Poglinco, 2001).

Leaders must also model learning. Jamentz (2002) notes that principals must be able to recognize whether lessons are aligned with standards, develop classroom assessments consistent with standards, and evaluate student work for evidence that standards have been achieved. Their knowledge should be deep enough to let them coach teachers using explanations, practical examples, and demonstration lessons. Just as important, leaders must demonstrate the same learning traits that they expect in teachers, such as being open to new ideas, being driven by results, and acting with persistence in the face of difficulty.

Teachers possess many leadership skills and expect leadership behaviors from the school leader (Lewis, 1986). An example of the effect a principal has on a successful school can be

traced back to Gallagher's study (1984). In this study a school possessing all the desirable facilities showed low teacher job satisfaction. Teachers in the study preferred a principal who had consideration for others, was an open communicator, and believed in shared decision making. Although the principals perceived themselves as possessing these particular qualities, teacher perceptions proved differently.

Specific characteristics of school administrators have been identified which seem to be prevalent in successful schools. Perceptions of the teachers are important to note as they are relied upon to be change agents in the classroom, to motivate learning, and to take an active leadership role in their classroom. The role of the principal is changing, with more responsibilities being placed as well as greater accountability for the academic success of students. It is very important for the instructional leader to build positive relationships with teachers, who are most likely to influence student learning.

The research on teacher perspective is important, as teachers are major stakeholders in helping student achieve academically. The research on teachers' perspectives of principals' instructional leadership skills which promote better instructional practice begins with an understanding that effective schools realize the importance of principals' instructional leadership behaviors in promoting higher levels of students achievement. According to Hallinger and Heck (1998), to encourage excellence in student performance, school administrators support extending positive working relationships to all stakeholders, including teachers, students, board of education members, and parents, to create a school community in which all students learn. It is important to understand that the relationship between the instructional leader and various stakeholders are all important ones; however, the relationship they have with teachers in particular are especially important if they hope to lead as change agents.

There are variations in the views of the instructional leadership which can have a direct or indirect impact. Sheppard (1996) called these the narrow perspective and the broad perspective. The narrow view can be identified as a separate component of the principal's responsibilities and actions. These behaviors directly affected curriculum, teacher instruction, and supervision. In the broad perspective, instructional leadership includes activities that affect student learning. Research conducted by Leithwood (1994) defined instructional leadership in a similar way, which included behaviors that affect curriculum directly but excluded a focus on school climate and the mission of the school. The broad perspective was further categorized into areas of responsibility, including resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence in the school (Andrews & Soder, 1987).

Hallinger and Murphy (1987) concluded that leadership must be defined through observable practices and behaviors which are implemented by principals (p. 55). Based on the research, it is apparent that teacher perspective on principal behaviors is important, as teachers strongly influence the classroom and their observation on the behaviors of instructional leaders provide valuable information. Gaining an understanding of the best practices and behaviors from the teachers' perspective allows principals to become better instructional leaders and improve opportunities for student achievement. In order for the instructional leader to perform better and to understand where improvements can be made, feedback from teachers is essential.

To further the research and identify specific behaviors which show statistical significance in their effect on student achievement, Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) used meta-analysis to conduct research extending over a 30-year period. It involved K-12 students, 2,802 schools, 1.4 million students, and 14,000 teachers. The study examined the relationship between the leadership of the principal and student academic achievement and included a framework on



school leadership, placing the activities of the school leader at the forefront. The statistical data measured the daily activity of the school leader. Academic achievement was measured using either standardized tests, a state test, or a composite index based on one or both. The effect sizes in correlation form were reported or could be computed (p.28). These findings show how student achievement can be positively impacted by skills, strategies, and practices which are vital to the instructional leader (Marzano et al., 2005). From this data, 21 behavior characteristics were identified that were found to be related to principal leadership and correlated to student academic achievement.

These behavior characteristics included the following: *Affirmation; Change Agent; Contingent Rewards; Communication; Culture; Discipline; Flexibility; Focus; Ideals/Beliefs; Input; Intellectual Stimulation; Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Monitoring/Evaluating; Optimizer; Order; Outreach; Relationships; Resources; Situational Awareness; and Visibility* (pp. 42-43).

The results included the following based on the study:

- There were 21 research-based responsibilities and practices identified that were significantly associated with student achievement.
- A substantial relationship exists between leadership and student achievement, with an average effect size of .25 expressed as a correlation between leadership and student achievement.
- There is an increase in leadership ability. This translates into a mean student achievement, for example, at a hypothetical School b that is 10 percentile points higher than hypothetical school A. (Marzano et al., 2005).

Using meta-analysis, Marzano et al. (2005) established  $r$  values for principal behaviors and student achievement. The 21 responsibilities and their correlation  $r$  with student academic achievement are as follows: (pp. 42-43).

**Affirmation .19**--Recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures

**Change agent .25**--Is willing to and actively challenges the status quo

**Contingent Rewards .24**--Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments

**Communication .23**--Establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students

**Culture .25**--Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation

**Discipline .27**--Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time and focus

**Curriculum, Instruction, Assessment .20**--Directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices

**Flexibility .28**--Adapts leadership behaviors to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent

**Focus .24**--Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention

**Ideals/Beliefs .22**--Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling

**Input .25**--Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies

**Intellectual stimulation .24**--Ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school culture

**Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment .20**--Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices

**Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, Assessment .25**--Knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices

**Monitoring/Evaluation .27**--Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning

**Optimizer .20**--Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations

**Order .25**--Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines

**Outreach .27**--Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders

**Relationship.18**--Demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff

**Resources .25**--Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs

**Situational Awareness .33**--Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems

**Visibility .20**--Has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students

Additional findings suggest that school leaders can have a positive impact on student achievement, a marginal impact, or a negative impact. Two primary variables determine whether or not leadership will have a positive or a negative impact.

The first variable is the focus of change, whether leaders are able to successfully identify and focus on improving the school and classroom practices that are most likely to have a positive impact on student achievement. The second variable is whether a leader can successfully understand the "order" of change they are leading and adjust accordingly. When leaders select to focus on the wrong problem, they can actually do more harm to the school and/or students.

First-order and second-order changes are important concepts to understand. According to Leithwood (1992), first-order changes include the instructional activities of the school, such as

monitoring teachers and evaluating students' work. Second-order changes include activities such as improving the lines of communication and collaborative decision making. These leadership responsibilities were recognized as either first- or second-order change. Both types of change can lead to positive or negative results depending upon the order in which they are acted.

"Taken at face value these findings are compelling. A highly effective school leader can have a dramatic influence on the overall academic achievement of students" (p. 10). There are some issues which should be noted, including that caution is needed on the estimates of principal effects on student learning. The data are all co-relational; however, cause and effect assumptions are usually required to understand the effects of leadership improvement on student learning. Also, the estimated effects on student achievement described in the study depend on the instructional leader improving his or her capacities across all 21 practices at the same time (Leithwood et al., 2004). This would be very difficult and unlikely to occur. The study showed similarities in the behaviors identified by Cotton (2003), which reported 25 behavior characteristics. Overall, the study is an examination of data which provide greater insight. It enables school leaders to look at practices that are necessary, with specific skills needed to make improvements.

In contrast, Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) conducted a study based on research between 1986 to 1996 which examined the quantitative relationship between school leadership and student academic achievement, using meta-analysis. The study used a correlation coefficient between leadership and student achievement and found almost no correlation or a .02 (Marzano et al., 2005). They concluded there was only a weak relationship on average but noted that an indirect relationship may be more substantial (p. 26).

Other studies by Leithwood, Seashore Lewis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004), as well as Cotton (2003) used a narrative to conduct studies. Both found crossovers on individual behaviors. Leithwood et al. (2004) note behavior practices including setting direction, developing people, and redesigning the organization, all of which can be found within the 21 behaviors identified by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005, p. 26).

These studies continue to show that instructional leaders have an effect on student achievement and there is a positive relationship with statistical findings. However, using research data guided by the perspective of teachers, more validity is placed on the outcome. This research should be expanded to include the teacher perceptions on the behavior characteristics of the instructional leader which affect instructional practice.

The data are further expanded through the research on the behavior characteristics identified by Marzano et al. (2005). These behaviors, in part, are what have already been determined in research conducted by Cotton (2003), who identified 25 behavior characteristics, some of which are the same. These studies support each other in identifying the essential behaviors and characteristics that are necessary for the instructional leader to be able to impact student learning. Showing similar results in the behaviors validates that the findings are related and important.

The 21 behavior characteristics should also be compared and integrated with the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), which developed a set of six standards for instructional leaders. The standards were adopted as a set of guidelines as to what is important for school leaders to know and understand as well and essential activities that can make a difference to help students become successful. Based on research from the field, the

standards are components of what makes effective leadership in the school environment. Both are designed to improve educational administration and school leadership.

One concern in particular with most of the studies being reviewed is that principals continue to be assessed with instruments developed 10 to 20 years ago. According to Condon and Clifford (2010), within the last eight years only two new assessments have been developed; most were designed 10 to 20 years ago (p.10). There are new assessments being designed to study principal performance. Given the emphasis on the role of the instructional leader and the type of accountability that is now expected, newer assessment methods are desirable to keep current with the trends in the field.

The leadership behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) have not been tested to see if they are useful to improve instruction. The behaviors have been identified as being instrumental to leadership behavior and they have been identified from the principal's perspective (Valenti, 2010). The 21 leadership behavior characteristics are important and statistically significant toward improving student achievement. Research is further necessitated, from the teacher perspective, on the impact these same behaviors might have on teacher instructional practice.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

Many leadership models and theories have emerged from studies on principal leadership and much has been written on various aspects of the school. Leithwood and Duke (1999) indicate that well over a half dozen models appear in educational leadership literature. Researchers suggest there is no single theory which can be applied to every situation. Principals must identify a theoretical foundation based on what fits the situation (Bamburg & Andrews, 1991; Cuban, 1988; Deal & Person, 1994; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; cited in Valentine & Prater, 2011, p. 8).

Therefore, there are various leadership styles, models, and theories which provide the foundation for this study, including transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Transformational leadership has proven validity in describing effective leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transformational leadership is usually defined as a type of leadership provided by someone who motivates others to follow him or her through a sense of enthusiasm, high energy, and a strong sense of passion for what they believe. Essentially, principals “transform” their schools based on their efforts “by touching deeper issues of human performance and communal norms” (Stone, 1992, p. 3). The transformational leader is highly involved in the leadership process and is focused on helping all those involved succeed.

Transformational leadership was first introduced by James Burns (1978) who felt that this type of leadership was identified when “leaders and followers make each other advance to a higher level of moral and motivation” (Stewart, 2006, p. 8). Burns’ stance was that leaders evolve from a sense of motivation, values, and goals. Leithwood (1994) continued studying its application to education. He argued that this type of leadership was well suited for twenty-first century challenges (Valentine & Prater, 2011, p. 8). According to Leithwood, “Leadership primarily manifests itself during times of change, and the nature of change is the critical determinant of the most helpful forms of leadership” (cited in Valentine & Prater, 2011, p. 8). Leithwood stressed that school change would continue into the twenty-first century.

According to Bass and Avolio (2002), transformational leadership is defined according to the impact it has on followers. Leaders are able to develop trust and respect from those they lead. It utilizes the values that are shared by staff members. According to Cotton (2003), “It is concerned with influencing staff members to transcend their self-interest and focus on the best interests of their students” (p.60). In a school setting, the principal acts as a change agent and

attempts to transform the school culture as well as perform the tasks normally related to the educational system. Leithwood (1994) advocated it based on the assumption that leadership manifests itself during times of change, which is the critical determinant of the most useful forms of leadership. Leithwood (1994) also believed that the era of school reform would likely extend into the near future (Valentine & Prater, 2011).

Seven dimensions are outlined by Leithwood (2000) which describe transformational leadership. These include “building school vision and establishing school goals, providing intellectual stimulations, offering individualized support, modeling best practices and important organizational values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture, and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions” (Leithwood, 2000, p. 114). This model is more reflective of the principal sharing leadership with teachers and providing support with personal vision.

Leithwood (1994) added that in the traditional school culture, autonomy and isolation exist, which prohibits measures for reform. Having a shared culture empowers teachers and encourages collaboration as well as other important improvements. Transformational leadership draws attention to a variety of school and classroom situations which may require change if learning is to take place. As a change agent, the principal takes the leadership role to a new level and is able to initiate reforms. He exerts the ability to influence changes within the school environment by creating a shared vision and creating a sense of urgency.

The principal must meet the needs of the staff and offer personal attention including encouraging others to find new solutions to old problems (Marzano et al., 2005). “Through a powerful and dynamic presence, the effective school administrator must communicate high



expectations for teachers and students alike” (p. 15). Finally, through personal accomplishments, the effective principal provides a model for teacher behaviors.

The transformational theory has proven useful for educational organizations demonstrated in studies by Geisel, Slegers, Leithwood, and Jantzi (2003); Leithwood and Jantzi (1990); Southworth (1998); and Mullin and Keedy (1998). It has also been successful in some large-scale reform efforts in schools such as Day et al. (2000). Leithwood et al. (1999) has compiled 34 studies of published and unpublished empirical studies from elementary and secondary schools; 21 of them relate to transformational leadership in schools, including both qualitative and quantitative studies. Evidence can be accounted for in 20 of the studies, including the effects it has on students and leaders (Stewart, 2006, p. 16).

Contingent rewards are present with transformational leadership and include both psychological and material ones (Bass, 2008). Transformational leadership goes beyond basic needs and includes added emphasis on psychological rewards. Positive feedback or verbal praise from the leader or, in the case of a school setting, the principal, are typically the rewards from transformational leadership. Transformational leadership goes beyond just monitoring the performance of followers and being reactive (providing negative feedback and corrective action when noticing an issue). It also puts a great emphasis on being proactive, establishing long term goals, facilitating change, seeking continuous improvement, and giving the followers an opportunity to learn from their mistakes.

In summary, Leithwood concludes that the three goals of transformational leadership are to help staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; foster teacher development; and assist teachers to effectively problem solve together. A strong vision and personality are key attributes of the transformational leader, which helps to inspire those

they lead to make changes and become motivated to reach common goals. Transformational leadership theory will most likely continue to evolve with additional empirical studies to support and expand the ideas and practices behind it.

Transactional leadership also responds to the needs of those in the organization, and tasks are recognized as the focus on the functions of the organization and in the work setting. According to Bass (1990), there are basic managerial competences which are necessary to maintain the organization. Two factors identified by Bass and Avolio (2002) reflect this type of leadership. The first is Contingent Reward, which is an active exchange of positive and negative reinforcement between the leader and follower (Stone, p. 4). The second factor is Management-by-Exception, which is passive, and intervention occurs only when goals are not achieved.

Transactional leadership practices alone do not enable the organization to reach its full potential. However, transactional leadership is important when combined with transformational approaches. To transform schools, a leader takes individual responsibilities and concerns and shapes them to meet goals, working from within the organization (Stone, 1992).

Another more recent theory, Situational Leadership Theory, was developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard and can also be an approach to leadership. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2007), situational leadership is based on the leader adapting to each situation as it arises and follows two key leadership behaviors: task behavior where there is one-way communication and the leader tells subordinates what tasks must be done and how they are to be completed, and relationship behavior, where there is two-way behavior and the leader provides socio-emotional support and facilitates behavior (143).

In a school setting utilizing situational theory, the principal would respond to each situation as he or she faces each. Different leadership skills are applied to every situation, and the

principal works within the capability of other people in each situation. There are four leadership practices, including directing, coaching, supporting and delegating. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2007), depending on the situation, one of these four styles is matched with the various people involved in the situation and is based on their maturity (pp. 143-144). There are several leadership behaviors which are important for the leader to demonstrate using this particular leadership style, and that include relationships, resources, and communication with an emphasis on the organizational culture.

All of these theoretical perspectives are important and are part of the foundation for instructional leadership and improving instructional practice. While each theory can be identified with its own special characteristics, linked together, the combination of theories allows for ideas to work together under unique circumstances and broaden the perspective by which we can better understand the processes which are necessary.

### **Practical and Research Significance**

In an era of high stakes accountability, the leadership traits most vital to the improvement of instructional practice need to be assessed. A better understanding of how these behaviors impact instruction is likely to improve student success and to improve the effectiveness of schools. Research on the teacher perspective of behavioral characteristics of school leaders and their impact on instructional practice could provide a better understanding of the needs of schools to improve student achievement.

NCLB (2001) set high standards of accountability for all students to achieve 100 percent proficiency in math and language arts by 2014. As of 2011, 38% of schools were not meeting AYP, and the number was expected to increase (McNeill, 2011). Studies on specific leadership behaviors which impact instructional practices of teachers in schools in relation to meeting or not

meeting AYP are limited. With the challenges many schools face today in meeting AYP, an understanding of leadership behaviors which impact instruction is important.

Schools who do not meet AYP often have high percentages of students on free and reduced lunch. The percentage of students receiving free or reduced lunch is a strong predictor of AYP status, as shown in research by Machtinger (2007) and Olson (2005.) Schools with low socioeconomic populations are usually inadequately funded, and students do not perform as well as students from higher social classes (Eamon, 2005). Studies have repeatedly found that socioeconomic status plays a huge role in the success of student academic achievement (McNeal, 2001; Eamon, 2005). Teachers from schools with low socioeconomic neighborhoods may view leadership behaviors differently than teachers from schools in more affluent areas.

The leadership of principals has been shown to be significantly effective in creating effective schools that help students become successful (Leithwood et al., 2004). If principals are to use their leadership qualities to improve student performance, they need to be aware of the behaviors that will meet these results (Leadwood, 2000). It is also important to assess principals' beliefs on how NCLB should influence curriculum and instructional practice. In the same way, it is also important to understand, from the teachers' perspective, the effect of NCLB on their teaching and student learning (Powell, Higgins, Aram, & Freed, 2009).

In addition, by understanding the impact that the school principal has on instruction, it may in fact impact hiring practices by school districts. It can provide insight into training and education preparation programs for education administrators. In essence, knowledge of the specific leadership practices of principals may also help those already serving in the profession. It also alerts stakeholders, including parents, teachers, students, and school boards, of the need to see the changes occurring within the profession and to rethink the role of the principal as an

instructional leader. Finally, it may assist principals themselves with ways that they can improve in their role as an instructional leader with the ultimate goal of increasing the levels of student achievement. They can reflect on their current leadership practices and gain an understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, focusing their attention on ways to improve.

With standardized testing and student achievement, along with reform initiatives, coming to the forefront at the turn of the century, the relationship of the principal's leadership style to student achievement became a central focus. Performance standards and accountability continues to rest upon principals, who are increasingly under pressure to produce expected results. "Principals again find themselves at the nexus of accountability and school improvement with an increasingly explicit expectation that they will function as instructional leaders" (Hallinger, 2008).

The number of studies conducted on the effect between instructional leaders and student achievement is important. However, research needs to be extended to other areas to allow for changes in policy and practice; for example, by grade level. Of the 24 studies found by Robinson, only seven included a mix of all grade levels of schools. Cotton (2003) found that nine out of 81 between 1985 and 2003 were at the secondary level. As the previous middle school study showed, to become an effective school, change needs to happen; and the major change agent in our schools is the instructional leader, the principal, (Valentine, 2005).

There are limited studies which compare leadership behaviors of principals across grade levels. Research conducted will normally study one particular grade level, such as elementary, and make generalizations. Middle schools have provided more research on middle school principals since the 1980s, when the middle school philosophy became more popular. In

general, elementary principals focus more on curricular issues than secondary principals, who, according to the research, spend most of their time on administrative responsibilities.

According to Seashore Louis, Wahlstrom, Michlin, Gordon, and Thomas (2010), teachers and principals generally agree on instructionally important leadership behaviors, which include focusing on school goals; meeting teacher professional development needs, and creating ways for teachers to collaborate. Identifying behaviors which are instructionally helpful within school grade levels may provide insight which could make additional improvements and result in better student performance. Leadership practices between elementary schools and secondary schools may be different due to size and organizational structure (Seashore-Louis et al., 2010). A breakdown of these traits by the various school levels, location, and other demographic factors would be beneficial to provide a match between a particular type of leadership and a specific school level.

### **Conclusion**

Research which appeared to be valid 20 years ago needs to be challenged with additional, updated research to raise the bar and provide additional insight on current trends and practices. Since *A Nation at Risk* (1983), all indications began to point to an educational system in need of reform. With new trends emerging, a widespread, persistent interest was growing in understanding the relationship between school leadership and learning (Bossert, Rowan, & Lee, 1982).

According to Hallinger (2008), "Among the educational trends that emerged during that era, few have been more significant or widespread than the continuing focus on principal effectiveness" (p. 2). Research continued to find a link between quality leadership and positive

school outcomes, including student achievement (Andrews & Soder, 1987; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003).

School effectiveness and school improvements evidenced the strong belief that principal leadership made a significant difference in school performance (Bossert et al., 1982). The successful principal continually made attempts to improve the performance of the staff by showing concern for instruction, supporting the staff and collaborating with teachers, thereby improving morale.

NCLB (2002), one of the most significant federal education policies, made a huge impact on schools by using high-stakes accountability to encourage improvements in student achievement levels and using student assessments based on the state's curriculum content standards. Meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) is ultimately the goal, and student achievement is linked with the instructional leadership of the school. The law specifies that principals are to have the "instructional leadership skills necessary to help teachers teach and students learn" (Lockwood, 2005 p. 3).

As federal and state mandates began to make schools become more accountable for student performance by using national and state assessments, this ultimately changed the responsibilities of school principals. Changes at the beginning of the twenty-first century placed more responsibilities on principals as instructional leaders. While a distinction can be made between management and school leadership, they are rarely considered separately. "Educational leadership is seen as developing strategies so that a variety of management instruments can be used to achieve a school's most important primary task: the desired student results" (Kruger, 1995).

With job performance evaluation methods being developed and redesigned for both principals and teachers, more knowledge is needed, especially from the teacher perspective on the behavior characteristics of school principals to improve instructional practice. It is warranted on many levels, as it will provide information to principals on how to deal with improving their behaviors to enhance teacher instructional practice and, ultimately, improve student achievement. Collaborative efforts between principals and teachers to assist students in meeting academic performance levels is essential, as both principals and teachers may be evaluated accordingly to student success and the overall success of their school.

Principal leadership behaviors influence the school's goals and help to attain the highest level of achievement for students. The research continues to point out that the role of the principal is an extremely important one and that the effect it has on student achievement is undeniably strong.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to rank order the 21 leadership behaviors identified and defined by the research of Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) practiced by current principals that potentially influence the quality of classroom instructional practice as perceived by an exemplary sample of teachers. This study utilized the 21 leadership behaviors identified by Waters et al. (2003) in their study, *Balanced Leadership: What 30 Years of Research Tells Us about the Effect of Leadership on Student Achievement*. The 21 characteristics were selected because they are associated with significantly improving student achievement with strong effect sizes associated with leadership behaviors and student achievement. This chapter describes the instrument, the sample of participants, materials, and procedures which were used in this study. It will also include information on a pilot study, data collection, data analysis, and a summary.

Several researchers have identified the qualities which are important to good school leadership, while others have identified teacher perception as a more effective way to describe school leadership (Bass, 1985; Greenfield, 1995; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996). As the primary school leader, the principal is held accountable for the success of students, most importantly in meeting the requirements of NCLB, which requires that all students be proficient in reading and math. Therefore, principals must strive to find the most effective administrative practices and procedures to be implemented into their schools. By using a sample of expert teachers' perceptions to help principals facilitate better classroom instruction, principals may be able to modify or expand their leadership behaviors to impact the success of individual students and

ultimately their schools. Teachers' perspective is vital in assisting principals with identifying the leadership behaviors which encourage best practices to ensure overall student success.

### **Research Questions**

Question 1: From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership responsibilities and behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice?

Question 2: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ by gender and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on gender.

Question 3: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on assigned school grade level.

Question 4: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional

practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in respondent's assigned school.

Question 5: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the respondent's school AYP status.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The need for strong principal leadership has been recognized through empirical evidence. However, the actions and behaviors of principals that will facilitate and promote quality instructional practice of teachers are not established. Exploration on ways principals can contribute to the improvement of the instructional practice of teachers, which has a direct impact on student performance, is necessary to meet the growing demands of NCLB.

This study will explore, from the perspective of expert teachers, the behaviors of principals which are most likely to improve classroom instructional practice of teachers. Nearly a decade has passed since NCLB legislation was passed, and many schools continue struggle to meet the requirements. According to the Center of Education Policy, 48% of schools nationwide

did not meet Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) during 2010-2011. The research indicates that instructional leadership of principals has an indirect, positive impact on student learning (Bossert et al., 1982; Boyan, 1988; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Duke, 1999; Pitner, 1988). This influence is only second to teacher classroom instruction (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1996). Examining the perceptions of teachers on the behaviors and characteristics of school leadership is important, as it may help principals to improve their leadership behaviors which impact instructional practices of teachers and ultimately improve student performance.

### **Research Design**

The research design used in this study was an exploratory quantitative survey method which attempted to identify leadership behaviors of principals, as perceived by an expert sample of teachers, which best facilitate exemplary classroom instructional practice. This particular method provides for statistical analysis of data through the use of a descriptive rating survey as a structured means of data collection from elementary, middle, and secondary school teachers. This methodology is an effective method to acquire data because it limits the threats to reliability which can occur with other types of collection (Suskie, 1996). Additionally, quantitative research design helps to control bias and inconsistency, and the researcher is able to receive and analyze data through an impersonal and objective means. A quantitative study was also more practical due to the sample size of 365 teachers and their residential locations, which are dispersed across all 50 states and various U.S. territories.

Using the 21 behavior characteristics of principals, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, an online survey was used to identify the teacher perceptions of leadership characteristics of school principals which best facilitate exemplary classroom instructional practice. A Likert scale, a forced response instrument, was developed for several reasons, most

notably because respondents are generally familiar with using this format. This instrument permits comparisons among those responding, it is usually less complicated to analyze, and it allows for the possibility of exploring the overall mean rank of each participants' response. Respondents were asked to state their agreement with each statement by answering Very Important, Important, Somewhat Important, or Not Important.

### **Participants**

Participants in the study were selected from a database of state recipients of the Teacher of the Year Award. A teacher list comprised 365 teachers who received the Teacher of the Year award from their respective state or territory between 2006- 2012. The teachers were from public schools in the United States or a U.S. territory. This could have included the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, the American Virgin Islands, American Samoa, and the Northern Mariana Islands. The list of recipients and their email addresses were obtained through the Council of Chief State School Officials website <http://www.ccsso.org> (See Appendix A). The names and schools with which they are associated remain anonymous to protect the privacy of schools and teacher participants.

Teacher of the Year recipients are selected every year based on the criteria of the National Selection Committee representing major educational organizations nationwide, which includes having exceptional knowledge, being a skilled, articulate, and dedicated teacher, and one who inspires students to learn. The National Teacher of the Year Award is the oldest and one of the most prestigious programs which honors teacher excellence ([http://www.ccsso.org/ntoy/About\\_the\\_Program/html](http://www.ccsso.org/ntoy/About_the_Program/html)).

### **Framework of the Study**

This study attempts to rate in order of importance the 21 behaviors identified by Waters et al. (2003) from the expert teacher perspective which facilitate exemplary classroom instructional practice. “Quality schooling indeed leads to quality learning and an important key to quality schooling is the amount and kind of leadership that school principals provide directly and promote among teachers and supporting staff” (Sergiovanni, 2003, p.190).

Teachers participating in this study completed an online survey and rated the importance of the 21 behavior characteristics of school leadership and their potential influence on exemplary instructional practice. The 21 behaviors were selected for this study because these behaviors were previously identified as those most likely to influence school leadership behaviors impacting student achievement from an earlier study conducted by Waters et al. (2003) and published in *Balanced Leadership: What 30 Years of Research Tells us About the Effects on Student Achievement*. This meta-analysis drew from over 5,000 previous studies and indicated a strong relationship between behaviors and characteristics of principal leadership which are significantly associated with student achievement.

The meta-analysis indicated that there is a substantial relationship between leadership and student achievement expressed as an average effect size of .25 (Waters et al., 2003). Their studies further indicated that the 21 behaviors significantly correlate with student achievement as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

*McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors and Effect Sizes*

Responsibility	Effect Size
Culture	.29
Order	.26

Discipline	.24
Resources	.26
Curriculum, instruction Assessment	.16
Focus	.24
Knowledge of curriculum, instruction, assessment	.24
Visibility	.16
Contingent rewards	.15
Communication	.23
Outreach	.28
Input	.30
Affirmation	.25
Relationship	.19
Change Agent	.30
Optimizer	.20
Ideals/Beliefs	.25
Monitors/Evaluates	.28
Flexibility	.22
Situational Awareness	.33
Intellectual stimulation	.32

(Waters et al., pp. 36-37), used with permission.

The Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) study further indicates two different types of change which can positively or negatively affect student achievement. These were described as first-order and second-order change. While the 21 behaviors may indicate what a principal needs to be doing as a first-order change, concentrating on the wrong practice may have a negative impact (Waters et al., 2003). Leaders must properly identify the appropriate leadership responsibility which will most likely make the necessary improvements. Using the teacher perspective has many advantages, including that this perception of school leadership is an important factor for creating a positive school environment (Berube, Gaston, & Stephens, 2004).

To determine if the survey being distributed would be clear to those responding, the questionnaire was piloted to a group of teachers and administrators using the online format. Following permission from the Seton Hall University Institutional Review Board (IRB) (See Appendix B), the researcher tested the survey with trained professionals in the field of curriculum research. Following the approval of professionals in the field, a group of teachers who received recognition as Teacher of the Year recipient at the local school district level in Grades K-12 in New Jersey, were invited to complete the online survey (See Appendix C). After surveys were received by those electing to participate, the pilot was completed by making minor revisions based on recommendations to improve the clarity in the directions and with the wording of some of the questions. Every effort was made to promote integrity in order to develop a valid survey instrument which would benefit educators in the field. The pilot study was tested for validity and reliability using Cronbach's Alpha, and survey reliability was found to be .83.

### **Instrumentation**



Instrumentation for the data collection for this study was through a three-part survey (See Appendix D). Using the McRel 21 principal leadership responsibilities, the survey looked at the 21 behaviors identified as first-order change which were most closely associated with the day-to-day practice of instructional leaders and might have an indirect effect on student achievement. Permission to replicate was granted by Waters et al. (2003) to use the behaviors and characteristics identified from their research in *Balanced Leadership: What 30 Years of Research Tells Us about the Effect of Leadership on Student Achievement* (See Appendix E).

The first part of the survey addressed the specific ratings of behavior characteristics identified by Waters et al. (2003) which teachers identified as the most important for a school principal to demonstrate and which they perceived as positively impacting their instructional practices. Data were collected using a Likert 4 point forced response rating scale, which consisted of rating the 21 behaviors as either Very Important (4), Important (3), Somewhat Important (2), or Not Important (1). This part of the survey included 21 questions and took about five minutes to complete.

The second part of the survey asked for demographic information, including the respondents' gender, age, grade level of their school, years of experience, professional education, school location, student population, years working with their principal, AYP status, and Free and Reduced Lunch percentage (FRL) of their student population. This part of the survey was used to collect data on the participants to identify any association between teachers' perceptions of principals' behaviors based on their individual background information such as age, gender, or years of experience. The demographic section took less than two minutes to complete.

The third part of the survey asked participants to look at all 21 behaviors identified by Waters et al. (2003) and select the top five behaviors most important for school leaders to model

to improve classroom instructional practices of teachers. This part of the survey took less than 3 minutes to complete.

### **Data Collection**

The researcher used survey methodology to collect quantitative data. Following approval from the Seton Hall University Institutional Review Board, the researcher accessed a list of names for Teacher of the Year recipients from all 50 states and participating U.S. territories through an online website, [www.ccsso.org/ntoy/State\\_Teacher.html](http://www.ccsso.org/ntoy/State_Teacher.html). The teachers included were those who were honored at the state level for this award in their respective state or territory between 2006 and 2012.

A letter of solicitation was sent electronically (See Appendix F), explaining the study and asking for their participation to respond to an online survey. The letter provided directions on how to access the survey, which was housed on [surveymonkey.com](http://surveymonkey.com), and a statement of confidentiality if they chose to participate. Participants were free to discontinue their participation at any time.

The web-based survey tool allowed participants to electronically submit the completed questionnaire. One week was allotted for the teachers to receive the initial invitation to participate and access the survey. Email reminders were sent to those who did not respond in the following weeks. A total of 365 invitations to participate were sent out, with 17 opting out of the study and 178 choosing to participate. This was a response rate of 48%.

The protection of the participants' anonymity was of great importance. In order to maintain participant anonymity, all names, school locations, and any other identifying information was excluded. After the participants completed the survey, they clicked a submit button and it was electronically stored on the web-based survey tool.

### **Data Analysis**

This study investigated the research question regarding principal leadership behaviors that facilitate exemplary classroom instructional practice, based on the perceptions of expert teachers in the field of education from Grade K-12 public schools, using the 21 leadership behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003). The researcher used descriptive statistical analyses and the following non-parametric statistical tests to analyze the data: the Friedman Test of Mean Rank, the Mann-Whitney Test, the Kruskal-Wallis Test, and Kendall's Tau-B. The Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0 to analyze the data was also used. Findings of the study are presented in Chapter IV.

### **Summary**

This chapter provided information on the research design, sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis used in this study. The study specifically investigated the leadership behaviors of principals, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors that facilitate exemplary classroom instructional practice as perceived by an expert sample of teachers. The research used a descriptive design which incorporated an online survey completed by a sample of expert teachers who were Teacher of the Year recipients between 2006 and 2012 at the state level from all 50 states and U.S. territories. The quantitative data was analyzed through the SPSS data 20.0 analysis program.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **THE FINDINGS**

#### **Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to determine specific behaviors of principals which would facilitate quality classroom instructional practice of teachers, as perceived by a national sample of expert teachers. Teachers have the most influence on student achievement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). Therefore, principals must be cognizant of the behaviors that generate quality classroom instruction that might influence student performance. Principals must model these behaviors to assist in the development of the expertise of teachers in order for students to improve. An understanding of the leadership behaviors necessary to improve instructional practice from the teacher perspective can assist instructional leadership so that essential behaviors can be modified accordingly. Awareness of the teacher perception also allows for a collaborative approach. Leadership is an interactive process where teacher cooperation and involvement are necessary (Hart, 1995).

This study was guided by five research questions. The research questions were as follows: (1) From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership responsibilities and behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional

practice? (2) How does the ranking of McRel's leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ by gender and are these potential differences significant? (3) How does the ranking of McRel's leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant? (4) How does the ranking of McRel's leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant? (5) How does the ranking of McRel's leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

Following the methodology described in Chapter III, the researcher used an online survey tool which was distributed electronically to 365 elementary, middle, and high school teachers who were recipients of the state Teacher of the Year award from the 50 United States and U.S. territories between 2006 and 2012. The recipients of this award were recognized as expert teachers in their field. The selection process varies by state; however, in order to qualify, every teacher must meet a rigorous selection process to validate his or her classroom abilities and level of professionalism. The list of teachers was obtained through the organizations website at [www.cccso.org](http://www.cccso.org). The list provided a diverse sample of school districts across the country. Out of approximately 365 teachers surveyed, 178 responded. This represented a return rate of 48%.

This chapter will provide the results of a survey which was designed around the 21 leadership behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) as being the most

effective toward improving student academic achievement. The survey was piloted with a sample of local teachers who had received the Teacher of the Year award in their respective districts and expert review by a group of education professionals in the fields of curriculum and instruction provided construct validity of the instrument. The pilot study was tested for validity and reliability using Cronbach's Alpha. The survey reliability was found to be .83, well above the criterion of .70.

The survey includes demographic background, how behaviors were rated in terms of importance, and the rankings of each of the behaviors. The survey was divided into three sections. Section 1 provided demographic information about the respondents, including their gender, age, years of experience, level of education, their principal, the years of experience of their principal, their school location, student population, and whether their school achieved AYP status. Section 2 provided a listing of the 21 behaviors, described in the literature as being important for principals to have in order to improve student achievement. Respondents rated 21 individual behaviors, using a Likert rating scale, as being either 4-Very Important, 3-Important, 2-Somewhat Important, or 1-Not Important. In Section 3 of the survey, using the same 21 behaviors, respondents selected the top five behaviors and ranked them in order of importance.

The demographic background of the teacher respondents included the following characteristics: gender, age, years of experience, gender of their principal, their principal's years of experience, highest level of education achieved, whether or not their school met AYP, school population, type of school location, and percentage of students receiving free and reduced lunch,

### **Gender**

The majority of respondents to the survey were female teachers while the principals of the respondents were predominately male.

Table 2

*Gender of Teacher Respondents (n=175)*

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	44	25.1
Female	131	74.9

**Gender of Respondents' Principals**

Table 3 shows the gender of the school principals of those who responded to the survey.

Table 3

*Gender of Respondents' Principals r (n=172)*

Gender Category	Frequency	Percent
Male	98	55.1
Female	74	41.6

**Age**

Table 4 shows the reported ages of the respondents.

Table 4

*Respondents' Age (n=174)*

Age Category	Frequency	Percentage
21-30	8	4.5
31-40	47	26.4
41-50	59	33.1
51-60	45	25.3
60+	15	8.4

**Teachers' Years of Experience**

Table 5 indicates the respondents' years of teaching experience. As the survey indicates, those responding to the survey were teachers with numerous years of teaching experience.

Table 5

*Years of Respondents' Teaching Experience (n=175)*

Years of Experience	Frequency	Percent
0- 5years	7	3.9
6-10years	24	13.5
11-15 years	37	20.8
16-20 years	45	25
21-25 years	31	17.4
25+ years	30	16.9

**Principals' Years of Experience**

Table 6 indicates the number of years the principals have served in their position.

Table 6

*Years of Principals' Experience (n=172)*

Years of Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1	23	12.9
2	22	12.4
3	14	7.9
4	16	9.0
5	23	12.9
6	12	6.7
7	10	5.6
8	10	5.6
9	4	2.2
10	8	4.5
11	2	1.1
12	3	1.7
13	2	1.1
15	9	5.1
16	1	.6
17	3	1.7
18	1	.6
19	1	.6
20	4	2.2
24	2	1.1
25	1	.6
30	1	.6



### School Location

Table 7 shows the school location background of the respondents. As the survey

indicates, there was no one area of concentration of the school location of respondents. The three types of school locations were each well represented.

Table 7

*School Location (n=174)*

Location	Frequency	Percent
Rural	55	30.9
Suburban	79	44.4
Urban	40	22.5

### Annual Yearly Progress (AYP)

Table 8 indicates the percentages of schools meeting or not meeting Annual Yearly Progress.

Table 8

*Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) (n=165)*

School Meets AYP Requirements	Frequency	Percent
Yes	107	60.1
No	57	32.0

### School Population

Table 9 reports the school population of those who responded. Schools with less than 1000 students were predominately represented in the survey with more than half of all respondents working in schools where there were 1,000 students or less.

Table 9

*School Population (n=175)*

Student Population	Frequency	Percent
0-500	60	33.7
501-1000	66	37.1
1001-1500	25	14.0
1501-2000	15	8.4
2001-2500	6	3.4
2500+	3	1.7

#### **School Grade Level**

Table 10 indicates the grade levels of the respondents. The percentages show a fairly equal distributed range from Grades K-8, with a higher percentage of teachers working in traditional Grade 9-12 high schools.

Table 10

*School Grade Level (n=175)*

Grade Level	Frequency	Percent
K-5	27	15.2

K-6	23	12.9
K-8	19	10.7
6-8	29	16.3
7-8	4	2.2
9-12	63	35.4
10-12	10	5.6

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### Highest Degree Earned by Respondents

The respondents were asked to identify their highest earned education degree. Table 11 shows the level of the highest degree earned by the respondents with most respondents having earned an advanced degree or higher. The population of teachers surveyed included highly educated professionals with more than half having attained the equivalent of more than a master's degree.

Table 11

#### *Highest Degree Earned by Responding Teachers (n=175)*

Highest Degree Earned	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	13	7.3
Master's Degree	39	21.9
Master's Degree +	112	62.9
Doctorate Degree	11	6.2

### Free /Reduced Lunch (FRL)

Table 12 shows the breakdown of free and reduced lunch and indicates the respondents were largely representative of schools with diversity in terms of socioeconomic background.

There is no strong concentration in any one particular area. The highest percentage is in the over 81% range but for only 15.7% of respondents.

*Table 12*

*Free and Reduced Lunch (n=173)*

Free and Reduced Lunch		
	Frequency	Percent
10% or Less	14	7.9
11-20%	20	11.2
21-30%	25	14.0
31-40%	28	15.7
41-50%	18	10.1
51-60%	15	8.4
61-70%	12	6.7
71-80%	13	7.3
81% or more	28	15.7

The demographic information compiled by the survey indicates a sample of predominately female respondents who are highly educated, with the majority having earned a master's degree and having at least 10 years or more of teaching experience. These teachers

work in diverse school settings with mostly male principals (55%) in school populations where 70% of those responding work in school populations of 1,000 students or less. Slightly more than 40% of respondents who completed the survey work in school districts where almost half of the students or more come from low socioeconomic backgrounds.

### **Survey Result Descriptive Statistics Frequencies**

The first research question asked respondents which of the 21 leadership behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) improves instructional practice. The following 21 behaviors were listed and briefly defined on the survey: *Affirmation; Communication; Change Agent; Contingent Rewards; Visibility; Situational Awareness; Resources; Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Culture; Discipline; Flexibility, Focus; Outreach; Optimizer; Monitoring/Evaluation; Input; Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Ideals/Beliefs; Intellectual Stimulation; Order; and Relationships* (Marzano, Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Teacher respondents rated the 21 behaviors using a four-point scale. Number values for each descriptor were to be assigned as follows: 4-Very Important, 3-Important, 2-Somewhat Important, and 1-Not Important.

Table 13 shows the behaviors identified by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2003) and how the 178 respondents rated the behaviors. All of the behaviors had a mean value between 4.0, Very Important and 3.0, Important. The higher the mean scores were, the higher the percentage of teachers who responded that this behavior was important to instructional practice. The standard deviation (SD) ranged between .26-.82. As mean scores decreased, SD increased, indicating that inverse relationship between mean and standard deviation.

The behavior which earned a ranking of Very Important by 93.8% of the respondents was *Contingent Rewards*, indicating a high priority by teachers of a preferred principal characteristic that facilitates exemplary classroom instruction.

Other behaviors which were rated as being Important to improving instructional practices of teachers included *Relationships*, an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff, which was rated at 85.4% (160), and a mean score of 3.86 (SD =.41). *Visibility* was identified at 84.3% (160) and a mean score of 3.84 (SD=.41). Out of 178 responses, *Contingent Rewards* and *Visibility* had no responses indicating Not Important, while *Relationships* had one responding Not Important. Three other behaviors were rated as Very Important by more than 75% of those teachers responding. These behaviors included *Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment*, 80.9%, M= 3.78, SD=.48; *Intellectual Stimulation*, 78.1%, M=3.78, SD=.44; and *Optimizer*, 75.8%, M=3.74, SD=.47.

Teachers were asked to identify the behaviors which were Important to impacting instructional practice. Of the 178 teachers responding, those behaviors identified as Important were *Ideals/Beliefs* (46.6%), followed by *Input* (76%), *Flexibility* (73%), *Resources* (69%), and *Focus* (66%). The means and standard deviations for these five behaviors were *Ideals/Beliefs* (M=3.31, SD=.68), *Input* (M=3.38, SD=.67), *Flexibility* (M=3.41, SD=.65), *Resources* (M=3.51, SD=.59), and *Focus* (M=3.07, SD=.85). Table 13 identifies how the behaviors were rated by teachers according to their responses.

Table 13

*Behaviors Rated by Respondent Teachers*

Behavior N=178	Very Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
	Percent (%)			
Contingent Rewards	93.8	4.5	.6	

Relationships	85.4	12.4	.6	.6
Visibility	84.3	12.9	1.7	
Knowledge of Curriculum	80.9	15.2	2.8	
Instruction & Assessment				
Intellectual Stimulation	78.1	19.1	1.1	
Optimizer	75.8	20.2	2.2	
Discipline	74.7	21.3	2.8	
Involvement in Curriculum	71.9	23.6	2.8	
Instruction & Assessment				
Communication	69.7	24.7	3.4	.6
Affirmation	69.1	25.8	3.9	
Monitoring/Evaluation	64.0	29.2	4.5	
Outreach	62.9	29.2	5.6	
Order	61.8	33.7	2.2	
Culture	61.8	28.7	6.7	1.1
Change Agent	57.3	34.8	6.7	
Resources	53.9	38.8	3.4	.6
Situational Awareness	53.9	33.7	9.6	1.1
Flexibility	48.3	41.0	7.3	
Input	47.2	42.7	7.3	
Ideals/Beliefs	42.1	46.6	9.0	
Focus	36.0	37.1	21.9	3.4

There were several behaviors marked as Somewhat Important by teacher respondents.

The highest of these was *Focus*, 21.9% (39); *Situational Awareness*, 9.6% (17); *Ideals/Beliefs*, 9% (16); *Flexibility*, 7.3% (13); and *Outreach*, 5.6% (10). Of the 21 behaviors, very few behaviors received a Not Important rating by the teachers responding to the survey. There were 6 behaviors that received a Not Important rating, including *Focus*, 3.4% (6). *Focus* also had the lowest mean score (3.07) and the highest standard deviation (.82). This possibly indicates that the respondents consider focus, establishing clear goals, and keeping those goals in the forefront of the school the least important of the 21 behaviors needed to improve instructional practice. Other Not Important ratings included: *Situational Awareness*, 1.1% (2); *Culture*, 1.1% (2); *Resources*, .6% (1); *Relationships*, .6% (1); and *Communication*, .6% (1).

Table 14 reports the descriptive statistics for all 21 behaviors as reported by the expert teachers in the survey. As the results show, *Contingent Rewards* was the behavior identified by teachers as being the most important to improving instructional practices of teachers. *Contingent Rewards*, which recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments (Waters et al., 2003), had a mean of 3.93, which suggests that the teachers responding to the survey believe it is essential to improving instructional practice, and a median score of 4.0. It had a standard deviation of .267, the lowest of all 21 behaviors, implying a strong level of agreement among the respondents.

Table 14

*Descriptive Statistics on McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors for All Respondents*

Behavior n=160	Mean	Median	SD
Contingent Rewards	3.93	4.0	.267
Relationships	3.86	4.0	.411
Visibility	3.84	4.0	.412
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	3.78	4.0	.484
Intellectual Stimulation	3.78	4.0	.443
Optimizer	3.76	4.0	.478
Discipline	3.71	4.0	.518
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	3.70	4.0	.521
Communication	3.65	4.0	.584



Affirmation	3.65	4.0	.563
Outreach	3.61	4.0	.592
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.60	4.0	.606
Order	3.60	4.0	.574
Culture	3.53	4.0	.681
Change Agent	3.51	4.0	.603
Resources	3.50	4.0	.603
Situational Awareness	3.42	4.0	.731
Flexibility	3.41	3.0	.667
Input	3.38	3.0	.672
Ideals/Beliefs	3.32	3.0	.668
Focus	3.12	3.0	.829

### Research Questions and Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to determine, based on McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, what a sample of exemplary teachers identified as having an impact on instructional practice. The analyses conducted began by ranking the behaviors, utilizing the Friedman Test. According to Leech, Barrett, & Morgan (2008) the Friedman Test uses rank-ordering for non-parametric data when there are more than two levels of one related sample. For this study the Friedman Test was conducted to determine differences in the mean ranks of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors and, based on the information provided by the respondents, whether or not this ranking was statistically significant.

Based on the Friedman Test and the particular research question being addressed, additional analyses were conducted including Kendall's tau-b. This particular analysis looked at the significant relationship between two sets of ordinal data. Kendall's tau-b measures the strength of the association when both variables are ordinal and the sample size is small (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2013).

Following this analysis and depending on the number of variables, either a Mann-Whitney Test or Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed. The Mann-Whitney Test is utilized when there are two levels of independent variables to make comparisons. such as with gender and schools meeting or not meeting AYP. As with the Mann-Whitney Test, the Kruskal-Wallis Test uses the mean ranks to compare the dependent variables. However, Kruskal-Wallis is used when there are more than two categories (Morgan et al., 2013).

### **Research Question 1**

Question 1: From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice?

The survey design asked expert teachers nationwide what behaviors they consider most important for principals to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice. The teachers rated each behavior using a Likert Scale with the following indicators: 4-Very Important, 3-Important, 2-Somewhat Important, and 1-Not Important. The following 21 behaviors were included in the survey: *Affirmation; Communication; Change Agent; Contingent Rewards; Visibility; Situational Awareness; Resources; Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Culture; Discipline; Flexibility; Focus; Outreach; Optimizer;*

*Monitoring/Evaluation; Input; Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment; Ideals/Beliefs; Intellectual Stimulation; Order; and Relationships.*

A Friedman Test was used to analyze how respondents ranked the 21 leadership behaviors. Table 15 indicates the mean and mean rank of all 21 behaviors. These are listed according to mean rank and were found to be statistically significant. The chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2(20, N=160) = 434.965, p < .001$ .

Table 15

*Friedman Mean Rank Test of McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors for all Teacher Respondents*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>n=160</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>
Contingent Rewards		3.93	13.99
Relationships		3.86	13.28
Visibility		3.84	13.13
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.78	12.55
Intellectual Stimulation		3.78	12.47
Optimizer		3.76	12.43
Discipline		3.71	11.90
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.70	11.79
Communication		3.65	11.37
Affirmation		3.65	11.29
Outreach		3.61	11.12
Monitoring/Evaluation		3.60	10.88

Order	3.60	10.80
Culture	3.53	10.45
Change Agent	3.51	10.06
Resources	3.50	10.03
Situational Awareness	3.42	9.65
Flexibility	3.41	9.27
Input	3.38	9.01
Ideals/Beliefs	3.32	8.27
Focus	3.12	7.29

The ranking of the leadership behaviors helps to provide an overview of which behaviors school leaders should emphasize in terms of helping teachers improve instructional practice. While there is no one-size-fits-all, an understanding of where each leadership behavior is ranked by expert teachers may assist principals to improve the quality of leadership in their schools.

### **Research Question 2**

Question 2: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice differ by gender and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on gender.

The Friedman Test was conducted by gender. The mean rankings listed in Table 16 show the responses of female teachers which were found to be statistically significant. The mean rank

of *Focus* (7.73) was the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. However, *Contingent Rewards* (13.90) had the highest mean rank. The chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2(20, N=119) = 293.960, p < .001$ . Table 16 shows the leadership behaviors by females based on the Friedman Test.

Table 16

*Friedman Mean Rank Test on McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors for All Female Teachers*

Behavior	n=119	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards		3.93	13.90
Relationships		3.87	13.33
Visibility		3.84	13.09
Intellectual Stimulation		3.79	12.57
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment		3.75	12.28
Optimizer		3.73	12.10
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment		3.72	11.85 (tie)
Discipline		3.71	11.85 (tie)
Affirmation		3.65	11.32 (tie)
Outreach		3.64	11.32 (tie)
Communication		3.63	11.21
Order		3.60	10.74
Monitoring/Evaluation		3.55	10.41

Culture	3.53	10.29
Change Agent	3.52	10.09
Resources	3.49	9.88
Situational Awareness	3.44	9.81
Flexibility	3.43	9.44
Input	3.43	9.25
Ideals/Beliefs	3.36	8.53
Focus	3.18	7.73

The identical Friedman Test was performed for male teachers. The mean rankings are listed in Table 17, which shows the responses of male teachers which were found to be statically significant at  $p < .05$ . The least important behavior to impact instructional practice was also *Focus* (5.79), and *Contingent Rewards* also had the highest mean rank (14.21). The chi-square associated with this Friedman Test was  $\chi^2 (20, N=40) = 155.718, p < .001$ .

Table 17

*Friedman Mean Rank Test on McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors for All Male Teachers*

Behavior n=40	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards	3.95	14.21
Optimizer	3.85	13.33
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	3.85	13.28

Visibility	3.82	13.18
Relationships	3.82	13.05
Intellectual Stimulation	3.75	12.36
Discipline	3.72	12.21
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.72	12.15
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	3.67	11.78
Communication	3.70	11.73
Affirmation	3.65	11.34
Order	3.60	11.13
Culture	3.50	10.79
Resources	3.55	10.60
Outreach	3.52	10.41
Change Agent	3.47	9.85
Situational Awareness	3.37	9.28
Flexibility	3.35	8.61
Input	3.25	8.39
Ideals/Beliefs	3.22	7.56
Focus	2.92	5.79

Table 18 shows the ranking in order of behavior preferences by female teachers and male teachers. Using the Friedman Test, results indicate a statistical significance ( $p < .05$ ) for all 21 behaviors. Table 18 is a comparison by gender of both Friedman Tests to illustrate the congruity between the two genders.

Table 18

*Mean Rank for Female Teachers and Male Teachers*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Female Mean Rank N= 119</b>	<b>Male Rank N= 40</b>
Affirmation	9 (tie)	11
Communication	11	10
Change Agent	15	16
Contingent Rewards	1 (highest)	1 (highest)
Visibility	3	4
Situational Awareness	17	17
Resources	16	14
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	5	3
Culture	14	13
Discipline	7 (tie)	7
Flexibility	18	18
Focus	21 (lowest)	21 (lowest)
Outreach	9 (tie)	15
Optimizer	6	2
Monitoring/Evaluation	13	8



Input	19	19
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	7 (tie)	9
Ideals/Beliefs	20	20
Intellectual Stimulation	4	6
Order	12	12
Relationships	2	5

Based on the comparative findings displayed in Table 18, the results provided a rationale to extend the exploration of data. A Kendall's tau-b correlations analysis was performed on the mean rank results based on gender. Kendall's tau-b is used to determine the strength of the relationship between two or more variables when the data is ranked and the data set is small, as in this case,  $n=21$  (Field, 2009). The analysis revealed a strong, positive, and significant relationship ( $\tau(21) = .813, <p < .001$ ) between male and female teachers mean rank ordering of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors. This indicates that both genders ranked the behaviors similarly. This is interesting to note and could be due to a variety of reasons. The respondents were selected because they were all considered expert teachers and as exemplary educators, for the most part, feel strongly about the field of education and their profession. Because of this, gender may not be as influential as it might be if another group of teachers were ranking the behaviors.

To further analyze the data on how female teachers responded and how male teachers responded, the Mann-Whitney Test for Ordinal Data was used. As the rankings indicate, *Contingent Rewards* received the highest ranking. Of all 21 behaviors ranked by female and male teacher respondents, only one behavior ranking was discovered to have a statistically

significant difference between genders, and that was *Focus*. The Mann-Whitney U associated with this test was  $U=2264.500$ ,  $p \leq .041$ . According to Waters et al. (2003), *Focus* was described as a behavior which “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.”

The 131 female teachers responding had a much higher mean rank for *Focus* ( $m=91.71$ ) compared to the 43 male teachers who responded ( $m= 74.66$ ). No other behaviors were statistically significant based on gender differences. Mann-Whitney analysis was used to test mean rank comparisons for all 21 behaviors (See Appendix G).

Of the 21 behaviors identified by McRel’s 21 leadership behaviors as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on gender, the null hypothesis was retained for 20 of the behaviors, as there is no statistically significant difference. The null hypothesis was rejected for one behavior, *Focus*, which showed a significant difference.

### **Research Question 3**

Question 3: How does the ranking of McRel’s 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel’s 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on assigned school grade level.

Tables 19-21 show the results for the mean rank of leadership behaviors ranked by teachers according to the grade level of the school in which they teach. This included elementary grade levels, middle school, and high school. The initial survey included 9 different categories

which respondents could select as the grade level they teach. However, the large number of categories resulted in small sample sizes. New categories were created to combine grade levels. The new categories included responses from teachers in Grades K-5, Grades 6-8, and Grades 9-12. Any response that could potentially cross between two categories was not included in the data. While this limited the sample sizes, there was no crossover between categories.

The Friedman Test conducted for teachers in Grades K-5 responded that the behavior *Focus* (8.11) was the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. *Contingent Rewards* (14.47) had the highest mean rank. The chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2(21, N=38) = 246.840, p < .001$ .

Table 19

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers in Grades K-5*

Behavior n=38	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards	3.86	14.47
Optimizer	3.84	14.17
Intellectual Stimulation	3.84	14.12
Relationships	3.78	13.75
Visibility	3.78	13.71
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	3.71	12.99
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	3.71	12.86
Outreach	3.65	12.78
Communication	3.68	12.75

Discipline	3.68	12.64
Affirmation	3.65	12.51
Change Agent	3.55	11.47
Situational Awareness	3.52	11.38
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.52	11.32
Order	3.52	11.25
Input	3.47	10.72
Culture	3.42	10.50
Flexibility	3.36	10.28
Resources	3.39	10.14
Ideals/Beliefs	3.42	10.03
Focus	3.07	8.11

The Friedman Test was conducted on the results of the survey for teachers in the middle school, Grades 6-8, which were also found to be statistically significant. Their responses to ranking the behaviors are indicated in Table 20. The Friedman Test conducted for teachers in the middle school, Grades 6-8, responded that the behavior *Focus* (8.41) was the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. The behavior category for *Relationships* (14.36) received the top ranking followed by *Contingent Rewards* (14.07). The chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2(21, N=35) = 239.408, p < .001$ .

Table 20

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers at the Middle School Level*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>n=35</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>
Relationships		3.94	14.36
Contingent Rewards		3.91	14.07
Discipline		3.85	13.54
Visibility		3.85	13.53
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment		3.85	13.51
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment		3.85	13.49
Intellectual Stimulation		3.82	13.34
Outreach		3.74	12.56
Order		3.74	12.43
Culture		3.71	12.24
Affirmation		3.68	11.97
Monitoring/Evaluation		3.68	11.83(tie)
Optimizer		3.65	11.83(tie)
Communication		3.62	11.46
Change Agent		3.62	11.31

Situational Awareness	3.54	11.13
Resources	3.60	10.94
Flexibility	3.57	10.86
Input	3.45	9.96
Ideals/Beliefs	3.37	8.80
Focus	3.25	8.41

Teachers from the high school level, Grades 9-12, also responded to the behaviors which impact instructional practice, and their results were also analyzed using the Friedman Test. Their responses are included in Table 21. The Friedman Test conducted for teachers in the high school, Grades 9-12, responded that the behavior of *Focus* (7.23) was once again the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. *Contingent Rewards* (15.80) had the highest mean rank. The chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2(21, N=66) = 307.794, p < .001$ .

Table 21

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers at the High School Level*

Behavior n=66	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards	3.96	15.80
Relationships	3.84	14.58
Visibility	3.83	14.52
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	3.77	13.96

Optimizer	3.75	13.71
Intellectual Stimulation	3.74	13.52
Discipline	3.66	12.98
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	3.63	12.61
Communication	3.60	12.27
Affirmation	3.59	12.05
Outreach	3.53	11.62
Order	3.54	11.58
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.50	11.34
Resources	3.50	11.22
Culture	3.39	10.64
Change Agent	3.40	10.43
Situational Awareness	3.30	9.99
Input	3.31	9.80
Flexibility	3.28	9.20
Ideals/Beliefs	3.16	8.20
Focus	3.00	7.23

Table 22 shows the mean rankings from highest to lowest across all three grade categories. By looking at the rankings in comparison between grade levels, it is interesting to note the top five behaviors that teachers feel were important to impacting instructional practice. Elementary teachers ranked *Optimizer* as second most important. The middle school teachers ranked *Discipline* at third most important while the other grade levels ranked it lower.

Table 22

*Mean Rank of Teachers in Elementary, Middle School, and High School Grade Levels*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>K-5 Teachers n=38 Mean Rank</b>	<b>MS Teachers n=35 Mean Rank</b>	<b>HS Teachers n=66 Mean Rank</b>
Affirmation	11	11	10
Communication	9	14	9
Change Agent	12	15	16
Contingent Rewards	1 (highest)	2	1 (highest)
Visibility	5	4	3
Situational Awareness	13	16	17
Resources	19	17	14
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	6	5	4
Culture	17	10	15
Discipline	10	3	7
Flexibility	18	18	19
Focus	21(lowest)	21(lowest)	21 (lowest)



Outreach	8	8	11
Optimizer	2	12 (tie)	5
Monitoring/Evaluation	14	12 (tie)	13
Input	16	19	18
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	7	6	8
Ideals/Beliefs	20	20	20
Intellectual Stimulation	3	7	6
Order	15	9	12
Relationships	4	1(highest)	2

A Kendall's tau-b correlation analysis was performed on the mean rank results based on the three different grade levels. The relationship between Grades K-5 and Grades 6-8 teachers was found to be statistically significant with a moderately strong, positive relationship ( $\tau(21) = .625, p < .001$ ). The relationship between K-5 and 9-12 teachers was found to be statistically significant with a strong, positive relationship ( $\tau(21) = .771, p < .001$ ). The relationship between Grades 6-8 teachers and Grades 9-12 teachers was a statistically significant, moderately strong to strong, positive relationship uncovered ( $\tau(21) = .758, p < .001$ ). Curiously, it appears that the strongest relationship in mean rank ordering is between Grades K-5 and Grades 9-12 teachers, with the weakest being between Grades K-5 and Grades 6-8 teachers. This may indicate that the strong, positive relationships in all three grade levels confirms that for most of the leadership behaviors, the grade level of those responding did not make a difference in how they ranked the behaviors. This may be due to the group of expert teachers who responded to the survey and the

strong feelings they have in terms of their views on education and how connected they are to their profession.

Consequently, further analysis by grade level was warranted. Respondents were asked to identify the type of school they work in based on the grade level of the school. A range was provided and respondents selected the closest grade level. The analysis was determined using the Kruskal-Wallis test whereby *Culture* showed a statistical significance between grade levels at .05 level of confidence. The mean rank of *Culture* for Grades K-5 (68.77) and Grades 9-12 (72.92) were lower than the mean rank for Grades 6-8 (90.09). According to Waters, et al. (2003), the leadership behavior *Culture* is shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation. There may be several reasons why respondents ranked *Culture* this way. Middle schools generally consist of two or three grade levels, with students within a smaller age range than those in elementary schools and high schools. A sense of community may be more important to teachers since the students share common interests and are at similar maturation levels. Table 23 indicates how the behaviors were ranked by grade levels.

Out of the 21 behaviors identified by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on assigned grade level, the null hypothesis was retained for 20 of the behaviors, as there was no statistically significant difference. The null hypothesis was rejected for one leadership behavior, *Culture*, which showed a significant difference among grade levels.

Table 23

*Kruskal-Wallis Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers according to Grade Level*

Behavior	Grade	N	Mean Rank	2 tailed Sig.

Affirmation	K-5	41	77.63	.721
	6-8	37	79.77	
	9-12	74	74.24	
Communication	K-5	41	78.45	.871
	6-8	37	74.88	
	9-12	73	75.19	
Change Agent	K-5	41	75.94	.307
	6-8	37	84.61	
	9-12	74	72.76	
Contingent Rewards	K-5	41	73.52	.246
	6-8	37	74.88	
	9-12	74	78.96	
Visibility	K-5	41	71.85	.457
	6-8	37	78.43	
	9-12	74	78.11	
Situational Awareness	K-5	41	80.19	.201
	6-8	37	83.88	
	9-12	74	70.82	
Resources	K-5	41	70.10	.427
	6-8	36	81.50	
	9-12	74	75.50	
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	K-5	41	72.23	.329
	6-8	37	82.18	
	9-12	74	76.03	
Culture	K-5	41	68.77	.030
	6-8	37	90.09	
	9-12	73	72.92	
Discipline	K-5	41	72.55	.211
	6-8	37	84.57	
	9-12	74	74.66	
Flexibility	K-5	41	74.12	.080
	6-8	37	86.93	
	9-12	71	69.29	
Focus	K-5	41	73.27	.141
	6-8	37	87.58	
	9-12	73	71.66	
Outreach	K-5	41	79.32	.169
	6-8	36	83.53	
	9-12	74	70.50	
Optimizer	K-5	40	80.20	.575
	6-8	37	72.69	
	9-12	74	75.39	

Monitoring/Evaluation	K-5 6-8 9-12	40 37 74	74.46 83.89 72.89	.329
Input	K-5 6-8 9-12	41 37 73	77.41 82.58 71.87	.387
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	K-5 6-8 9-12	41 37 73	74.95 86.59 71.22	.068
Ideals/Beliefs	K-5 6-8 9-12	41 37 74	80.67 82.97 70.95	.238
Intellectual Stimulation	K-5 6-8 9-12	41 37 73	79.24 80.04 72.13	.304
Order	K-5 6-8 9-12	40 37 74	76.63 84.64 71.34	.202
Relationships	K-5 6-8 9-12	41 37 74	73.68 82.95 74.84	.225

#### Research Question 4

Question 4: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch.

The socioeconomic background of the school population was identified by respondents in the survey and is indicated as Free and Reduced Lunch (FRL). The teachers selected from a range, reporting where their school population fell in terms of free and reduced lunch. The survey initially included nine different categories. These ranged from 0-10% FRL through 80% or higher FRL. Following the results of the survey, the sample sizes were too small to extract sufficient data, which makes the results spurious. To increase the robustness of the analysis, the categories were scaled back to provide for larger samples by creating fewer categories. The ranges were expanded into four categories to provide for larger data sets to provide for better analysis.

Using the Friedman Test, Table 24 shows the results for teachers in schools that have a free and reduced lunch rate (FRL) of 24% or less. The findings indicate a statistical significance. The chi-square associated with this Friedman Test was  $\chi^2(20, n=44) = 139.661, p < .001$ .

Table 24

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers in Schools with FRL 24% or Less*

Behavior	n=44	Mean	Mean Rank
Relationships		3.93	14.02 (tie)
Contingent Rewards		3.93	14.02 (tie)
Intellectual Stimulation		3.88	13.56
Visibility		3.84	13.11

Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	3.77	12.47
Discipline	3.75	12.40
Optimizer	3.70	11.88
Outreach	3.68	11.52
Culture	3.65	11.43
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	3.65	11.32
Order	3.63	11.02
Affirmation	3.59	10.74
Resources	3.59	10.63
Communication	3.52	10.42
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.50	10.35
Situational Awareness	3.50	10.19
Flexibility	3.47	9.56
Change Agent	3.45	9.35
Ideals/Beliefs	3.29	7.86
Input	3.22	7.66
Focus	3.20	7.49

The Friedman Test was used to analyze results of how teachers ranked behaviors in schools where the student population receiving free and reduced lunch was between 25-49%. The results are shown in Table 25. The findings indicate a statistical significance, and the chi-square associated with this Friedman Test was  $\chi^2 (20, N=45) = 154.468, p < .001$ .

Table 25

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers in Schools with FRL 25-49%*

Behavior	n=45	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards		3.97	14.12
Visibility		3.91	13.53 (tie)
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.91	13.53 (tie)
Relationships		3.88	13.23
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.77	12.29
Discipline		3.77	12.20
Optimizer		3.77	12.20
Intellectual Stimulation		3.75	11.94
Monitoring/Evaluation		3.73	11.81
Outreach		3.66	11.54
Communication		3.68	11.33
Affirmation		3.60	10.84
Order		3.60	10.46
Resources		3.57	10.20
Culture		3.53	10.12
Change Agent		3.46	9.79
Flexibility		3.44	9.43
Situational Awareness		3.31	8.80
Ideals/Beliefs		3.33	8.37
Input		3.26	7.79
Focus		3.11	7.46

The Friedman Test was used to analyze results of how teachers ranked behaviors in schools where the student population receiving free and reduced lunch was between 50-74%. The results are shown in Table 26. The findings indicate a statistical significance, and the chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2 (20, N=41) = 131.691, p < .001$ .

Table 26

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers in Schools with FRL 50-74%*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>n=41</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Mean Rank</b>
Contingent Rewards		3.97	14.20
Relationships		3.90	13.51
Visibility		3.85	13.15
Optimizer		3.78	12.51
Affirmation		3.78	12.27
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.75	12.10
Discipline		3.73	11.98
Intellectual Stimulation		3.73	11.93
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.70	11.70
Communication		3.68	11.51 (tie)
Order		3.65	11.51 (tie)
Input		3.63	11.05
Change Agent		3.58	10.68
Outreach		3.51	10.18
Situational Awareness		3.48	10.06



Monitoring/Evaluation	3.51	9.72
Resources	3.41	9.52
Culture	3.36	9.21
Flexibility	3.34	8.87
Ideals/Beliefs	3.34	8.57
Focus	3.04	6.78

The Friedman Test was used to analyze results of how teachers ranked behaviors in schools where the student population receiving free and reduced lunch was 75% or higher. The results are shown in Table 27. The findings indicate a statistical significance, and the chi-square associated with this Friedman test was  $\chi^2_{20, N=28} = 78.398, p < .001$ .

Table 27

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers from Schools with FRL 75% and Higher*

Behavior	n=28	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards		3.89	13.57 (tie)
Optimizer		3.89	13.57 (tie)
Communication		3.78	12.66
Visibility		3.78	12.55
Intellectual Stimulation		3.78	12.45
Relationships		3.75	12.27
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment		3.71	11.86
Monitoring/Evaluation		3.71	11.80 (tie)
Knowledge of Curriculum,		3.67	11.80 (tie)

Instruction & Assessment		
Affirmation	3.71	11.75
Culture	3.60	11.14
Outreach	3.64	11.11
Change Agent	3.60	10.57
Discipline	3.57	10.50
Order	3.53	10.21
Input	3.50	9.88
Resources	3.46	9.79
Situational Awareness	3.46	9.75
Flexibility	3.42	8.95
Ideals/Beliefs	3.28	7.70
Focus	3.14	7.13

Table 28 shows the mean rankings from highest to lowest across all four groups. All four FRL groups, indicated by mean ranking, selected the top behavior that teachers feel most important to impacting instructional practice is *Contingent Rewards*. The mean ranking of the least important behavior for all four FRL groups was *Focus*.

Table 28

*Mean Rank of Teachers from Schools according to FRL*

Behavior	FRL 24% or less n=44	FRL 25-49% =45	FRL 50-74% n=41	FRL 75% + n=28
Affirmation	12	12	5	10
Communication	14	11	10(tie)	3
Change Agent	18	16	13	13

Contingent Rewards	1(tie)	1	1	1(tie)
Visibility	4	2 (tie)	3	4
Situational Awareness	16	18	15	18
Resources	13	14	17	17
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	5	2 (tie)	6	8(tie)
Culture	9	15	18	11
Discipline	6	6	7	14
Flexibility	17	17	19	19
Focus	21	21	21	21
Outreach	8	10	14	12
Optimizer	7	6	4	1(tie)
Monitoring/Evaluation	15	9	16	8(tie)
Input	20	20	12	16
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	10	5	9	7
Ideals/Beliefs	19	19	20	20
Intellectual Stimulation	3	8	8	5
Order	11	13	10 (tie)	15
Relationships	1 (tie)	4	2	6

A Kendall's tau-b correlation analysis was performed on the mean rank results based on

FRL. A statistically significant and strong, positive relationship was found between schools with a FRL rate of 24% or less and schools with 25-49% of students on FRL ( $\tau(21) = .724, p < .001$ ). Schools with 25-49% of students on FRL and a rate of 50-74% had a moderately strong, positive relationship that was statistically significant ( $\tau(21) = .667, p < .001$ ). A positive, moderately strong relationship between schools with 25-49% of students on FRL and schools with a rate of 75-100% was found to be statistically significant ( $\tau(21) = .663, p < .001$ ). Between schools with 24% or less of students on FRL and schools with a rate of 50-74%, a moderately strong, positive relationship that is statistically significant was found ( $\tau(21) = .612, p < .001$ ). Between schools with 50-74% of the student population receiving FRL and a rate of 75-100% a moderate, positive relationship was found to be statistically significant ( $\tau(21) = .609, p < .001$ ). Finally, schools with 24% or less of students on FRL and schools with a rate of 75-100%, a moderate but statistically significant, positive relationship was discovered ( $\tau(21) = .561, p < .001$ ).

The strongest relationships were found between the two lowest FRL categories, 24% and lower and the 25-49% category. The weakest categories were with the schools that had a 50-74% and 75-100% FRL and between schools with 24% and lower FRL with 75%-100% FRL category. It appears that the correlations indicate stronger relationships among teachers from schools with less FRL populations and weaker relationships among schools with a higher population of FRL.

Based on the four FRL groups using the larger sample sizes, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was used to analyze the findings. Table 29 shows the results based on this analysis which showed that there was a statistical significance at  $p < .05$  for the behavior of *Input*. According to Waters et al. (2003), *Input* involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and

policies. No other behaviors were found to be statistically significant based on FRL classifications.

Table 29

*Kruskal-Wallis Test on Significant Differences between Mean Ranking Based on FRL Classifications*

Behavior	(FRL) % of students on free and reduced lunch.	N	Mean Rank	SD	2 tailed Sig.
Affirmation	1. 0-24%	51	80.71	.553	.419
	2. 25-49%	50	87.44		
	3. 50-74%	45	94.33		
	4. 75% +	28	89.00		
Communication	1. 0-24%	51	77.75	.572	.201
	2. 25-49%	50	89.80		
	3. 50-74%	44	88.67		
	4. 75% +	28	96.21		
Change Agent	1. 0-24%	51	82.78	.623	.655
	2. 25-49%	50	85.22		
	3. 50-74%	45	92.59		
	4. 75% +	28	91.98		
Contingent Rewards	1. 0-24%	51	86.38	.255	.272
	2. 25-49%	50	89.76		
	3. 50-74%	45	89.57		
	4. 75% +	28	82.18		
Visibility	1. 0-24%	51	86.26	.415	.242
	2. 25-49%	50	94.59		
	3. 50-74%	45	84.71		
	4. 75% +	28	81.57		
Situational Awareness	1. 0-24%	50	88.97	.714	.835
	2. 25-49%	50	82.12		
	3. 50-74%	45	89.44		
	4. 75% +	28	88.27		
Resources	1. 0-24%	48	88.33	.597	.711
	2. 25-49%	49	89.03		
	3. 50-74%	45	79.91		
	4. 75% +	28	83.45		
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	1. 0-24%	51	86.03	.473	.308
	2. 25-49%	50	94.50		
	3. 50-74%	45	85.66		
	4. 75% +	28	80.64		

Culture	1. 0-24%	51	92.69	.675	.298
	2. 25-49%	50	87.85		
	3. 50-74%	44	76.85		
	4. 75% +	28	91.07		
Discipline	1. 0-24%	51	88.09	.506	.209
	2. 25-49%	50	92.78		
	3. 50-74%	45	89.14		
	4. 75% +	28	74.36		
Flexibility	1. 0-24%	50	86.22	.655	.857
	2. 25-49%	48	90.00		
	3. 50-74%	45	82.01		
	4. 75% +	28	85.16		
Focus	1. 0-24%	51	87.35	.851	.805
	2. 25-49%	49	90.45		
	3. 50-74%	45	81.36		
	4. 75% +	28	89.39		
Outreach	1. 0-24%	50	86.44	.599	.435
	2. 25-49%	49	92.89		
	3. 50-74%	45	78.74		
	4. 75% +	28	87.89		
Optimizer	1. 0-24%	50	78.52	.485	.154
	2. 25-49%	50	89.50		
	3. 50-74%	45	87.18		
	4. 75% +	28	97.39		
Monitoring/Evaluation	1. 0-24%	51	82.72	.607	.195
	2. 25-49%	50	93.90		
	3. 50-74%	44	78.83		
	4. 75% +	28	95.32		
Input	1. 0-24%	51	76.94	.675	.044
	2. 25-49%	49	81.21		
	3. 50-74%	45	100.64		
	4. 75% +	28	93.52		
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	1. 0-24%	51	83.04	.517	.642
	2. 25-49%	50	92.64		
	3. 50-74%	44	85.91		
	4. 75% +	28	85.86		
Ideals/Beliefs	1. 0-24%	51	84.03	.683	.826
	2. 25-49%	50	91.74		
	3. 50-74%	45	88.70		
	4. 75% +	28	84.32		
Intellectual Stimulation	1. 0-24%	50	92.46	.440	.595
	2. 25-49%	50	85.58		
	3. 50-74%	45	83.09		

	4. 75% +	28	86.07		
Order	1. 0-24%	50	86.89	.568	.683
	2. 25-49%	50	83.51		
	3. 50-74%	45	93.17		
	4. 75% +	28	83.52		
Relationships	1. 0-24%	51	88.82	.419	.504
	2. 25-49%	50	90.35		
	3. 50-74%	45	87.47		
	4. 75% +	28	80.05		

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed, and none of the 21 leadership behaviors were found to be statistically significant with the exception of *Input*. In each category, for 75% or higher *Input* was ranked 16th; for 50-74% or more, it was ranked 12th; for 25-49% it was ranked 20th, and in the category of teachers from 0-24%, it was ranked 20th. The comparisons made are within each category, but it does not indicate which specific category was more important. The analysis was based on how each category responded, the mean score from each, and then compared those mean scores between each category to identify any significance. Based on this analysis, *Input* was the only leadership behavior that was significant.

The null hypothesis was retained for 20 of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch. The null hypothesis was rejected for one behavior, *Input*, which showed a significant difference between the categories of free and reduced lunch.

### Research Question 5

Question 5: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional

practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors, as defined by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the respondents' school AYP status.

The Friedman Test was conducted by AYP. The mean rankings listed in Table 30 show the responses for teachers from schools meeting AYP which were found to be statistically significant. The mean rank of *Focus* (7.25) was the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. However, *Contingent Rewards* (13.98) had the highest mean rank. The chi-square associated with this Friedman Test was  $\chi^2(20, N=99) = 316.182, p < .001$ .

Table 30 shows how respondents from schools meeting AYP ranked the leadership behaviors using the Friedman Test.

Table 30

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers from Schools Meeting AYP*

Behavior	n=99	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards		3.93	13.98
Visibility		3.88	13.53
Relationships		3.87	13.38
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment		3.81	12.81
Intellectual Stimulation		3.78	12.53
Optimizer		3.77	12.49



Discipline	3.76	12.36
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	3.76	12.32
Communication	3.68	11.53
Affirmation	3.65	11.33
Outreach	3.61	11.12
Culture	3.56	10.77
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.59	10.71
Order	3.55	10.37
Resources	3.49	9.71
Change Agent	3.47	9.67
Situational Awareness	3.39	9.27
Flexibility	3.39	9.12
Input	3.33	8.51
Ideals/Beliefs	3.32	8.25
Focus	3.11	7.25

The top three ranked behaviors included *Contingent Rewards* (13.98), *Visibility* (13.53) and *Relationships* (13.38). The lowest ranked behaviors included *Focus* (7.25), *Ideals/Beliefs* (8.25) and *Input* (8.51). Going back to the Friedman Test with the overall mean rankings, the three highest behaviors were the same as the three highest in this category and the three lowest

ranking behaviors were consistent in this category with the three lowest behaviors compiled in the overall Friedman Test by mean rank.

The Friedman Test was also conducted for schools not meeting AYP. The mean rankings listed in Table 31 show the responses of teachers from schools which did not meet AYP. These results were also found to be statistically significant. The mean rank of *Focus* (7.03) was the least important behavior to impact instructional practice. *Contingent Rewards* (13.99) had the highest mean rank. The chi-square associated with this Friedman Test was  $\chi^2(20, N=49) = 122.040, p < .001$ . Table 31 shows how respondents from schools not meeting AYP ranked the leadership behaviors using the Friedman Test

Table 31

*Friedman Test on Leadership Behaviors Ranked by Teachers from Schools Not Meeting AYP*

Behavior	n=49	Mean	Mean Rank
Contingent Rewards		3.93	13.99
Relationships		3.81	12.87
Visibility		3.81	12.79
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment		3.77	12.56
Intellectual Stimulation		3.77	12.31
Optimizer		3.75	12.22
Order		3.69	11.56
Discipline		3.65	11.35
Communication		3.63	11.33

Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, & Assessment	3.65	11.32
Affirmation	3.65	11.27
Monitoring/Evaluation	3.61	11.13
Outreach	3.63	11.10
Resources	3.57	10.93
Situational Awareness	3.51	10.51
Change Agent	3.53	10.16
Culture	3.46	9.73
Input	3.46	9.58
Flexibility	3.40	8.80
Ideals/Beliefs	3.34	8.47
Focus	3.12	7.03

The top three ranking behaviors for teachers from schools not meeting AYP were consistent with teachers from schools meeting AYP. These included *Contingent Rewards* (13.99), *Relationships* (12.87) and *Visibility* (12.79). The three lowest ranked behaviors for teachers in schools not meeting AYP included *Focus* (7.03), *Ideals/Beliefs* (8.47), and *Flexibility* (8.80). This was a slight change from the rankings by teachers from schools meeting AYP in that *Flexibility* replaced *Input*. These were similar results in comparison to the overall Friedman Test. Table 32 shows the ranking in order of behavior preferences of teachers in schools meeting AYP and teachers in schools not meeting AYP.

Table 32

*Mean Rank of Teachers from Schools Meeting AYP and Teachers from Schools Not Meeting AYP*

<b>Behavior</b>	<b>Mean Rank of Schools Meeting AYP n=99</b>	<b>Mean Rank of Schools Not Meeting AYP n=49</b>
Affirmation	10	11
Communication	9	9
Change Agent	16	16
Contingent Rewards	1	1
Visibility	2	3
Situational Awareness	17	15
Resources	15	14
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	4	4
Culture	12	17
Discipline	7	8
Flexibility	18	19
Focus	21	21
Outreach	11	13
Optimizer	6	6
Monitoring/Evaluation	13	12
Input	19	18
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	8	10
Ideals/Beliefs	20	20
Intellectual Stimulation	5	5

Order	14	7
Relationships	3	2

Additionally, Kendall's tau-b correlation analysis was performed on the mean rank results based on AYP status. The analysis revealed a strong, positive, and significant relationship ( $\tau(21) = .848, p < .001$ ) between teachers practicing in schools that have met or have not met AYP status in their rank ordering of McRel's leadership behaviors.

To further analyze the data on how teachers responded from schools who met AYP and how teachers responded from schools that did not meet AYP, Mann-Whitney for Ordinal Data was used. Based on these results, there was no statistical significance found for any of the leadership behaviors at  $< .05$ .

Out of the 21 behaviors identified by McRel's 21 leadership behaviors as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on teachers of schools who meet AYP and teachers from schools who do not meet AYP, the null hypothesis was retained for all 21 of the behaviors. There was no significant difference in teacher perceptions of principal leadership behaviors as to what facilitates exemplary instructional practice based on the respondents' school AYP status.

### Summary

Chapter IV presented the findings of the five research questions. The first question ranked the order of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors which, based on a sample of expert teachers, impact instructional practice. The next four questions used demographic data to answer questions concerning the rankings of these 21 leadership behaviors in terms of gender, grade level of the school in which the teacher respondents work, the teacher respondents' student

population receiving free and reduced lunch, and the AYP status of the school in which the teacher works.

Chapter IV provides an analysis of data that was obtained through an online survey on Teacher Perceptions of Leadership Behaviors to Improve Instructional Practice. The results were compiled from a group of more than 365 expert teachers selected as state recipients of the Teacher of the Year Award from across the country representing all 50 states and five U.S. territories for a return rate of approximately 48%. The respondents represented both male and female teachers between the ages of 23-60, from all grade levels, from suburban, urban and rural districts, and with various years of experience and educational levels. The respondents were from schools which may have had a male or female principal and from schools both meeting and not meeting Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) requirements. A comparative table of the analyses can be found in Table 33. The conclusions and recommendations resulting from the analysis of the survey data will be discussed in more detail in Chapter V.

Table 33

*A Comparative Table of Analysis on McRel's 21 Leadership Behaviors as Indicated by Expert Teachers on Behaviors That Facilitate Exemplary Instructional Practice*

Behavior	All Teachers N=178	Female Teachers N=119	Male Teachers N=40	Elem. School Teachers N=38	Middle School Teachers N=35	High School Teachers N=66	0-24% FRL N=44	25-49% FRL N=45	50-74% FRL N=41	75%+ FRL N=28	AYP Yes N=99	AYP NO N=49
Affirmation	10	9+	11	11	11	10	12	12	5	10	10	11
Communication	9	11	10	9	14	9	14	11	10	3	9	9
Change Agent	15	15	16	12	15	16	18	16	13	13	16	16
Contingent Rewards	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
Visibility	3	3	4	5	4	3	4	2	3	4	2	3
Situational Awareness	17	17	17	13	16	17	16	18	15	18	17	15
Resources	16	16	14	19	17	14	13	14	17	17	15	14
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	4	5	3	6	5	4	5	3	6	9	4	4
Culture	14	14	13	17**	10**	15**	9	15	18	11	12	17
Discipline	7	7+	7	10	3	7	6	6	7	14	7	8
Flexibility	18	18	18	18	18	19	17	17	19	19	18	19
Focus	21	21**	21*	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Outreach	11	9+	15	8	8	11	8	10	14	12	11	13
Optimizer	6	6	2	2	12+	5	7	7	4	2	6	6
Monitoring/Evaluation	12	13	8	14	12+	13	15	9	16	8	13	12
Input	19	19	19	16	19	18	20**	20**	12**	16**	19	18
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	8	7+	9	7	6	8	10	5	9	7	8	10
Ideals/Beliefs	20	20	20	20	20	20	19	19	20	20	20	20
Intellectual Stimulation	5	4	6	3	7	6	3	8	8	5	5	5
Order	13	12	12	15	9	12	11	13	11	15	14	7
Relationships	2	2	5	4	1	2	1	4	2	6	3	2

\*\*Denotes statistical significance discovered through non-parametric comparative statistical analysis.

+Denotes a tie in the ranking.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **Introduction**

This research was conducted to explore the 21 leadership behaviors identified by McRel and the impact they have on the instructional practice of teachers. A better understanding of the relevance of specific leadership behaviors modeled by principals could potentially assist teachers with improving their instructional practices and result in improved student academic performance. This chapter will summarize the purpose of the research, procedures, and findings. Conclusions, implications and suggestions for future research will also be discussed.

Through prior research these leadership behaviors were previously identified as having an impact on student achievement (Waters et al., 2003). It was the intent of the researcher that a better understanding of the behaviors identified as being most important to teachers could potentially assist principals in modifying their own behavior. In addition, an understanding as to how teacher demographics play a role in the ranking of these behaviors could also better assist principals with modeling leadership behaviors that potentially impact the instructional practices in their schools.



This chapter will summarize the research purpose, procedures, and findings. It will discuss the relationship between the literature and the results of the quantitative study. It will describe limitations of the study and recommendations for additional future research as well as implications of the study of leadership behaviors on instructional practice from the perspective of teachers.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The role of the principal has long been recognized through empirical data as impacting student achievement (Leithwood, et al., 2004). Through the mandates implemented by NCLB (2002), there is a need for the continuation of strong principal leadership in our schools today. However, the leadership behaviors of principals which potentially facilitate quality instructional practice are not clearly identified. Exploration is needed on the behavioral practices of principals which might contribute to the improvement of a teacher's classroom instructional practice in an effort to meet the growing demands of NCLB (2002).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to rank order the 21 leadership behaviors identified and defined by the research of Waters et al. (2003) practiced by current principals that potentially influence the quality of classroom instructional practice as perceived by a sample of exemplary teachers. As the primary instructional leader of the school, it is important for the principal to be aware of the behaviors which could impact instructional practice, teaching methods, and strategies used by teachers in the classroom, as these behaviors can potentially influence student achievement.

Initially, the 21 leadership behaviors were rank ordered in the aggregate by an expert sample of teachers. After this overall ranking was determined, teacher and school demographic factors were explored in an effort to better understand how teacher gender, the grade level of the school, the level of the schools' socioeconomics, as well as the schools' status of meeting or not meeting AYP requirements might influence the rank ordering of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors.

### **The Research Questions**

This study was guided by five research questions:

Question 1: From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership responsibilities and behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice?

Question 2: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice differ by gender and are these potential differences significant?

Question 3: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant?

Question 4: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional

practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant?

Question 5: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

### **Summary of Procedures**

The researcher used a survey method to collect quantitative data from teachers identified as being an expert group of educators from all 50 states and U.S. territories. A survey instrument utilizing McRel's 21 leadership behaviors (Waters et al. 2003) measured how this expert sample of teachers ranked the behaviors in relation to how they potentially impact classroom instructional practice.

The population of this study included 365 teachers who were awarded Teacher of the Year at the state level in their respective state or territory between 2006 and 2012. Participants were recognized as state level winners of the Teacher of the Year Award by the CCSSO. Of the entire sample, 178 responded to the survey. A link to the online survey was sent by email to the participating teachers. A letter of solicitation explaining the purpose of the study was also included in this correspondence. Participation in the study was voluntary and respondents remained anonymous. The survey garnered a 48% return rate.

The survey was provided and housed through an online provider, SurveyMonkey.com. The data were collected from the provider and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.0, for Windows. The demographic characteristics of the participating teachers, along with the five research questions, were analyzed using descriptive

statistics and non-parametric inferential statistics, which included the Friedman Test of Mean Rank and Chi-Square. Statistically significant relationships between demographic characteristics and leadership behaviors were further investigated utilizing Kendall's tau-b, the Mann-Whitney Test of Ordinal Data, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test.

### **Demographic Data**

The survey questions included specific demographic data about the responding teachers, their principals, their schools, and school population. Teacher demographic questions included gender, age groups, years of teaching experience, and education level. Teachers were asked questions about their principals, including their principal's age and years of experience. Questions pertaining to the type of school in which the teacher works included the type of school (rural, suburban, or urban), the schools' AYP status, and the free and reduced lunch percentages of students in the school.

The sample demographics consisted primarily of female teachers between the ages of 41-50 who had at least a master's degree, with 16-20 years of teaching experience. The sample of teachers worked in high schools that had met AYP and the principals were male. The student population range was 500-1000 students from suburban areas in which between 31% to 40% of the students received free and reduced lunch.

### **Summary of the Findings in Relationship to the Research Questions**

Research Question 1: From the expert teachers' perspective, which of McRel's 21 leadership responsibilities and behaviors identified by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) are most important for school leaders to demonstrate in order to facilitate exemplary instructional practice?

Part I of the survey asked teachers to identify how each of the items ranked in terms of the leadership behavior promoting exemplary teacher instructional practice, using a forced response rating scale. A rating of 4 was Very Important, 3 was Important, 2 was Somewhat Important, and 1 was Not Important. The top five behaviors were *Contingent Rewards*, which ranked first in all behaviors as Very Important by 93.8% of those responding. This leadership behavior recognizes the good work of teachers and acknowledges it. *Relationships* ranked second, with 85.4% ranking it as Very Important. This leadership behavior recognizes the personal aspects of teachers, such the teacher's personal qualities. *Visibility* ranked third, with 84.3% of the teachers ranking it as Very Important. This leadership behavior deals with the type of interactions the principal has with the teachers. *Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment* ranked fourth, with 80.9% of the respondents ranking it as Very Important. The leadership behavior shows how much the principal knows about the curriculum as well as the current trends in instructional practice and assessment. *Intellectual Stimulation* ranked fifth, with 78.1% of the teachers ranking it as Very Important. This leadership behavior deals with making sure the faculty is aware of the most current practices in education and aligning best practices to meet their schools' goals and vision.

The lowest ranking behaviors, having the least impact on leadership behaviors which could promote exemplary teacher instructional practice as indicated by expert teachers, included *Situational Awareness*, with 53.9% of the teachers indicating it as Very Important. This leadership behavior addresses the daily operation of running the school. *Flexibility* had 48.3 % of the respondents ranking it as Very Important. This leadership behavior addresses how well the principal is able to adapt to both positive and negative situations in the school. *Input* had 47.2 % of the respondents ranking it as Very Important. *Input* permits teachers to take part in the school

decisions and policies. *Ideals/Beliefs* had 42.1% of respondents ranking it as Very Important.

This leadership behavior conveys opinions or accepted principles about school. *Focus* ranked the lowest, with 36% of teachers ranking it as Very Important. *Focus* is the ability to concentrate on a particular goal or give attention to something of importance.

From the assessed outcomes of these rankings, it was determined that more than half of the sample of expert teachers ranked 18 of the 21 behaviors as being Very Important. At least 73.1 % of the teachers ranked all 21 behaviors as either Very Important or Important leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice. There were six behaviors identified by teachers as Not Important, and that was indicated by 3.4% of the teachers or less, depending on the behavior.

This indicates to the researcher that all 21 of McRel's leadership behaviors are important to teachers. These particular leadership behaviors were selected because they are highly correlated to improve student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005). Therefore, using the same set of leadership behaviors to rank instructional practices of teachers which directly impact students, it appears that the majority of them would be considered, at the very least, Important. This is important because principals can focus their attention on the specific behaviors which, from the expert teachers' viewpoint, could assist in improving instructional practice by modeling those that are most significant.

In addition, findings by many researchers, including Leithwood et al. (2005), clearly indicate the importance of school leadership as an essential factor for improving student achievement and demonstrate that school leadership influences the school, classroom conditions, and teachers and indirectly influences student learning. Cotton (2002) also confirms how critical the principal is to the success of the school. An examination of how teachers ranked McRel's 21

leadership behaviors benefits principals by providing a ranking of leadership behaviors which have been identified as improving student achievement (Marzano et al., 2005). Principals now have a starting point as to the specific leadership behaviors which may impact instructional practice. Principals can use the rankings of these behaviors to help prioritize the behaviors that would be the most useful for them to model to help facilitate the instructional practice of teachers. The rankings, as indicated by the expert sample of teachers, assists principals by prioritizing the important leadership behaviors. Trying to model all of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors at first may be too overwhelming. However, prioritizing as to the order of importance by what expert teachers have indicated as important may allow a principal to be more successful.

Question 2: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ by gender and are these potential differences significant?

The second research question identified the leadership behaviors using specific demographic data about the teachers, based on the second part of the survey. The first question in this section asked the teachers to identify their gender. There were 119 teachers, or 75%, who identified themselves as female. Forty teachers, representing 25% of the teachers surveyed, indicated they were male. This corresponds to the national trends that among public school teachers 76% are female, based on 2007-2008 results. (National Center for Education Statistics, 2012).

Based on the rankings of the female teachers, the top five leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice included *Contingent Rewards, Relationships, Visibility, Intellectual Stimulation, and Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment*. The least important leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice

as perceived by this sub-sample include *Situational Awareness, Flexibility, Input, Ideals/Beliefs,* and *Focus*.

Based on the rankings of the male teachers, the top five leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice included *Contingent Rewards, Optimizer, Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment, Visibility, and Relationships*. The least important leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice as perceived by this sub-sample include *Situational Awareness, Flexibility, Input, Ideals/Beliefs,* and *Focus*.

In comparison, female and male teachers both ranked the top behavior, *Contingent Rewards*, the same and the lowest ranking behavior, *Focus*. Of all 21 leadership behaviors, only one, *Focus*, demonstrated a statistically significant difference based on gender. This particular behavior had a very high mean ranking with female teachers (91.71) but a low mean ranking with male teachers (74.66). This indicates to the researcher that female teachers want to work with a principal who has established clear goals in place compared to male teachers, who did not indicate this in their responses on the survey. Using this information, principals can analyze their faculty population and if there is a high percentage of female teachers, principals may want to clarify and promote their schoolwide goals and perhaps other grade or subject area specific goals to strengthen their ties with their female staff.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics, in 2008 76% of all school-teachers were female; and specifically at the elementary level, 84% of all teachers were female. For a principal hoping to improve the quality of education in his or her building, it is essential that he or she recognizes the order in which female teachers ranked the leadership behaviors which could impact instructional practice. Using these rankings, principals should first be able to



identify, and secondly to model, the leadership behaviors which may be most helpful to improve instructional practice.

In general, female teachers ranked the leadership behaviors similarly to the overall sample of teachers, and in most areas there was similar alignment. The top three behaviors for female teachers and for the overall sample of teachers were identical: *Contingent Rewards*, *Relationships*, and *Visibility*. The bottom three leadership behaviors were also ranked the same: *Input*, *Ideals/Beliefs*, and lastly, *Focus*. This indicates that the female sample is closely related to the overall sample of teachers. Their perceptions are similar and in many instances the same on the order of importance of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors and the impact on instructional practice.

Using the Kendall's tau-b to determine the strength of the relationship between male and female teachers, there was a strong, positive significant relationship between the mean rank ordering of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors between male and female teachers. This significant finding indicates to the researcher that the rankings are reliable. Based on the findings of this study, it appears that there is only one significant difference between the perceptions of female and male teachers on the leadership behaviors which impact the instructional practice of teachers, and that is the leadership behavior *Focus*. In terms of ranking McRel's 21 leadership behaviors in order of importance, male and female teachers' rankings are significant by gender and highly correlated to one another.

Findings of this study support the research by Nogay and Beebee (2008) that there are significant differences between the perceptions of teachers on leadership behaviors based on gender. This finding also supports past research on gender differences in educational leadership which have been studied for years (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Question 3: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the grade level of the school and are these potential differences significant?

The third research question identified the leadership behaviors using specific demographic data about the teachers, also based on the second part of the survey. This question asked the teachers to identify the grade level of their school. There were 38 teachers, or 21% of the respondents, who identified themselves as working in a school with grades between K-5. There were 37 teachers, or 21% of the respondents, who identified themselves as working in a middle school, Grades 6-8; and there were 37 teachers, or 48% of the respondents, who identified themselves as working in a high school, Grades 9-12. Grade level sample sizes were condensed from the original survey from nine categories to three categories. This resulted in smaller sample sizes, and it eliminated potential crossover responses if the response did not fall into a specific category. Based on the rankings, *Contingent Rewards* was ranked either first or second by all three grade levels. *Relationships and Visibility* also ranked within the top five leadership behaviors by teachers for all three grade levels. The least important leadership behavior which was ranked the same by all three groups of teachers was *Focus*. Other leadership behaviors which the three groups ranked in common for least important to impact classroom instructional practice were *Flexibility* and *Ideals/Beliefs*, which were both ranked within the bottom five as least important behaviors to impact the classroom instructional practice of teachers. Elementary teachers ranked *Optimizer* as second most important, while the middle school teachers ranked it number 12 and high school teachers ranked it number 5. *Optimizer* is a leadership behavior which promotes innovative ideas and creativity.

In addition, a Kendall's tau-b was performed, which indicated a strong relationship between Grades K-5 and Grades 9-12 teachers; between Grades K-5 and Grades 6-8 teachers, there was a moderately strong, positive relationship and Grades 6-8 and Grades 9-12 teachers had a moderate strong to strong, positive relationship. The strongest relationship was found between Grades K-5 and Grades 9-12 teachers, and the weakest between Grades K-5 and Grades 6-8 teachers. This indicates to the researcher that middle school teachers may be looking for different leadership behaviors for the particular age group of students they teach compared to elementary or high school teachers.

Middle school teachers are working with an age group of students who are going through a maturation process different from elementary or high school students which may require different methods and strategies in the classroom. This may explain why middle school teachers ranked the leadership behaviors differently than an elementary or high school teacher. For example, the leadership behavior *Optimizer* was ranked in the top five by elementary teachers and high school teachers. However, it was ranked number 12 by middle school teachers. According to Waters et al. (2003), *Optimizer* "inspires and leads new and challenging innovations" (p. 43). This indicates that this particular leadership behavior is not as important to middle school teachers as to the other grade levels. However, the middle school teachers ranked the leadership behavior *Discipline* as the third most important behavior, while elementary teachers and high school teachers ranked it at number 10 and number 7, respectively. Waters et al. (2003) defines this leadership behavior as protecting teachers from issues and influences that often interfere with the regular teaching time. Clearly, there is more of a concern among middle school teachers for a principal who models leadership behaviors which support their teaching time in the classroom.

A Kruskal-Wallis Test was conducted to further analyze the findings of the survey by teacher grade level. This test found a statistically significant difference between the grade levels with the leadership behavior *Culture*. According to Waters et al. (2003), *Culture* is a leadership behavior which “fosters shared belief and a sense of community and cooperation” (p. 42). The middle school teachers ranked this at number 10, while elementary teachers ranked it number 17 and high school teachers ranked it number 15. While the situation in every school district is different, many middle schools are the merging of elementary schools; and students are often coming together for the first time. Teachers may see the need for a principal who can model *Culture* as a way of establishing a school environment that fosters a sense of community to help students transition into their role as middle school learners. Principals at the middle school level need to look at the individual situation of their population and model a sense of *Culture* to create an atmosphere conducive to learning. Based on the findings of the study it appears warranted to conclude that differences do exist in teachers’ perceptions of leadership behaviors which impact the instructional practice of teachers based on grade level.

This particular finding is important to note in terms of school districts selecting principals at multiple grade levels. Based on differences in the perceptions of teachers as to which leadership behaviors are most important to facilitate the instructional practice of teachers, school boards or other stakeholders involved in the hiring process may want to formulate questions during the interview process which could help gain an understanding of the behavioral leadership priorities of their candidates. By having a clear understanding of the needs of the teachers in terms of which leadership behaviors are most desired to help them improve instructional practice, the candidate who appears to be the “best fit” can be hired to fill the position for a particular grade level school. In addition, principals already in positions at various

grade level schools can focus their attention on modeling the leadership behaviors which appear to be most effective for the teachers in their particular building. Prioritizing by demonstrating the desired behaviors may, in turn, improve classroom instructional quality and consequently benefit all students.

This study supports the work of Valentine (2005) on the focus of middle school leadership and the need for a continuous vision among teachers who share common values and beliefs. This may support the top ranking of the leadership behavior *Relationships* (3.94) at the middle school level. *Discipline*, a leadership behavior which protects teachers from distractions which could inhibit their focus on teaching, was ranked as being much more important to middle school teachers than to elementary or high school teacher respondents. This aligns with the research by Valentine (2005). However, it contradicts what respondents reported at the middle school level where they ranked *Focus* last of the 21 leadership behaviors. According to Waters et al. (2003), this particular behavior “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” (p. 42). It may be possible that *Focus* was not defined in the same way between those responding to the survey and the definition being used by McRel.

Question 4: How does the ranking of McRel’s 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch in their school and are these potential differences significant?

The fourth research question identified the leadership behaviors using specific demographic data about the teachers, based on the second part of the survey. This question asked the teachers to identify the percentage of students who receive free and reduced lunch. There were initially nine different categories on the survey for respondents to select; however, due to

the small sample sizes based on the dispersement of nine separate categories and to ensure equality of the variances across the categories in the statistical analyses, the nine categories were reduced into four categories. Using the new set of categories, the Friedman Test found all four to be statistically significant on how teachers ranked leadership behaviors. Of those responding to the survey, in the 24% or less FRL category, there were 51 teachers or 29% of the overall respondents; in the FRL category of 25-49%, there were 50 teachers or 29% of the overall respondents; in the FRL group of students between 50-74%, there were 45 teachers or 26% of the respondents; and in the FRL group of 75% and higher, there were 28 teachers or 16% of the respondents. In all FRL groupings, teachers ranked *Contingent Rewards* as the number one leadership behavior which potentially impacts instructional practice. *Visibility* was the only other leadership behavior that all four categories of teachers placed as one of their top five leadership behaviors. The least important leadership behavior was unanimous for all four groups, and that behavior was *Focus*. In terms of other least important behaviors, *Flexibility* was also one of the least important identified by all four categories of teachers.

A Kendall's tau-b was conducted and a statistically significant and strong, positive relationship was found between all categories except for two areas. Between schools with 50-74% of the student population on free and reduced lunch and 75-100% FRL, there was a moderate, positive relationship that was statistically significant ( $\tau(21) = .609$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Schools with 24% or less FRL and those between 75-100% also had a moderate but statistically significant, positive relationship ( $\tau(21) = .561$ ,  $p < .001$ ). What this means to the researcher is that all of the groups are in agreement with their rankings. The stronger the relationship, the more valid the results and the more likely the teachers would respond to the survey in the same way. The two groups who have moderate positive relationships are still statistically significant.

A Kruskal-Wallis Test was also conducted. There was one leadership behavior which showed statistical significance, *Input*. According to Waters et al. (2003), *Input* “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” (p. 42). FRL groups of 24% or less and groups of 25-49% ranked *Input* as number 20 in their rankings, ( $m=76.94$ ) and ( $m=81.21$ ), respectively, while FRL groups of 50-74% ranked it at number 12, ( $m=100.64$ ) and 75% or more FRL groups ranked it number 16, ( $m=93.52$ ). This indicates to the researcher that teachers working in schools with lower populations of students on free and reduced lunch feel that *Input* was less important to the classroom instructional practice of teachers than teachers from schools with higher populations of FRL students. Teachers from schools with lower FRL populations may feel that they already have a voice and provide adequate *Input*. Teachers from schools with higher FRL populations may want to contribute more in the way of voicing their ideas and ranked it accordingly.

It appears that based on the findings of this research, FRL classification plays a significant role in the perceptions of teachers and leadership behaviors which impact classroom instructional practice. This does not come as a surprise to the researcher, as the effects of the student population on free and reduced lunch are often notable. The leadership behavior of *Input* may have shown significance for teachers in schools of lower FRL levels because their schools may be tightly organized with more focus on standardized testing and meeting state and federal mandates. Teachers in schools with higher FRL levels may see the need for improvement and have ideas that they think could be beneficial in helping the school overcome some of its problems. Teachers may want to become more involved in that process; therefore, *Input* might be more important to them as a way of making positive changes. It is an interesting finding, however, because other research concludes that *Input* by teachers is an essential element to

school effectiveness and indicates the importance between principal and teacher relationships for building trust and creating change. Teachers must be open to sharing best practices and examining their classroom practices for change to occur (Forsyth, Adams, & Hoy, 2011). Furthermore, in organizations that are characterized as enabling structures, characterized by principals who help teachers in their jobs, principals and teachers work together and through cooperation, collaboration, and flexibility are more successful (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Overall, this research concludes that differences in a school's SES classification potentially influences the perceptions of teachers on the leadership behaviors which impact classroom instructional practice.

Question 5: How does the ranking of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors by a national sample of expert teachers, based on their perception of what facilitates exemplary instructional practice, differ based on the respondents' school AYP status and are these potential differences significant?

The fifth research question identified the leadership behaviors using specific demographic data about the teachers, based on the second part of the survey. This question asked teachers to identify whether or not their school had reached AYP status. A Friedman Test was conducted on the responses of teachers from schools who had met AYP. There were 99 teachers (69%) responding from schools who had met AYP and 44 teachers (31%) responding from schools who had not met AYP. Based on the rankings of teachers from schools that had met AYP, the top five leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice in order of importance were *Contingent Rewards*, *Visibility*, *Relationships*, *Knowledge of Curriculum*, *Instruction and Assessment*, and *Intellectual Stimulation*. The least important



leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice were *Situational Awareness, Flexibility, Input, Ideals/Beliefs, and Focus*.

Based on the rankings of the teachers from schools who had not met AYP, the top five leadership behaviors in order of importance were *Contingent Rewards, Relationships, Visibility, Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment, and Intellectual Stimulation*. The least important leadership behaviors which promote exemplary teacher instructional practice were *Culture, Input, Flexibility, Ideals/Beliefs, and Focus*.

In comparison, teachers from both types of schools selected the same top five leadership behaviors although not in the same order of importance. The top-rated leadership behavior, *Contingent Rewards*, was the same for both AYP and non-AYP groups. The leadership behavior which teachers considered the least important was also the same for both groups of respondents, and that leadership behavior was *Focus*. Overall, all of the leadership behaviors were ranked and found statistically significant. This indicates to the researcher that the AYP status of the school in which teachers work does not impact the way they ranked the importance of leadership behaviors to improve instructional practice. AYP status does not influence how teachers ranked McRel's 21 leadership behaviors. Both groups of teachers, those from schools who had met AYP and those from schools who had not met AYP, ranked the leadership behaviors with the understanding that they were trying to select behaviors which would improve instructional practice, not so that their schools could meet AYP. Their similar rankings suggest that regardless of their schools' AYP status, leadership behaviors that could impact better instruction are the same regardless of the standardized test score results of their students.

A Kendall's tau-b correlation analysis was performed which revealed a strong, positive and significant relationship between teachers practicing in schools that had met AYP and from

those that had not met AYP status in their rank ordering of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors. This indicates to the researcher that the findings based on leadership behaviors of teachers from schools that meet AYP and those that do not meet AYP are reliable and similar.

Using both groups, those teachers from schools who had met AYP and those teachers from schools who had not met AYP, the Mann-Whitney Test for Ordinal Data was conducted. Based on the results from this test, there was no statistically significant difference found for any of the leadership behaviors.

There is less available information on AYP status and teacher perceptions on leadership behaviors which impact instructional practice. However, AYP status, according to Machtinger (2007) and Olson (2005), is often tied to socioeconomic status. Students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds or schools with a higher FRL rate often do not perform as well as students from higher socioeconomic schools or schools with lower levels of FRL rate. Teachers from this survey did not indicate any differences in AYP status or FRL rate in regard to leadership behaviors which impact the instructional practice of teachers.

Based on ranking leadership behaviors according to teachers from schools that had met AYP and those that had not met AYP, this study concludes there are no significant differences. It also showed that the rankings by both groups of teachers were fairly consistent. Each group ranked them in similar fashion. The researcher concludes that the leadership behaviors which impact instructional practice are not indicative for schools meeting AYP versus those schools that do not meet AYP. While research is limited on teacher perceptions and the effects of AYP on leadership behaviors, it is an area worth further investigation in the hope of improving the instructional practice of teachers who work in both settings and which may benefit student academic achievement.

The current study was framed by using McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, which previous literature determined to have a positive impact on student achievement. This study indicated through teacher responses that these behaviors also impact the instructional practice of teachers. Most of the behaviors were ranked as being at least Important by the majority of the respondents. The highest response rate for any behavior receiving a ranking of Not Important was *Focus* (3.12) by 3.4% of the respondents.

As the top five rankings indicate and concur with Seashore-Louis, Wahlstrom, Michlin, Gordon, & Thomas (2010), teachers generally look for leadership behaviors which include a focus on school goals (*Visibility* and *Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment*), teacher professional development needs (*Contingent Rewards* and *Intellectual Stimulation*), and creating ways for teachers to engage in collaboration (*Relationships*).

Furthermore, the findings also support the literature on transformational leadership, which describes how *Contingent Rewards* (being rewarded for a good job) is an important component of the transformational theory (Bass, 2008). *Contingent Rewards* are present in transformational leadership and include both psychological and material rewards (Bass, 2008). Transformational leadership goes beyond basic needs and includes added emphasis on psychological rewards. Positive feedback or verbal praise from the leader or, in the case of a school setting, the principal, are typically the rewards from transformational leadership. This behavior was ranked first in all but two demographic categories by those responding to the survey.

Another important leadership behavior necessary to the transformational theory was the leadership behavior, *Relationships*. Based on the literature review, this can be supported because the relationships between teachers and instructional leaders are important in creating a school

environment conducive to learning. Bolman and Deal (1997) found that leadership reinforces the values and behaviors leaders desire for people in the organization through daily interactions. Relationships are a key factor between principals and teachers. “Additionally, the prominence of teaching and leading as factors related to student learning underscores the importance of learning more about the relationship of leadership to teaching” (Printy, 2010).

Camburn, Rowan, and Taylor (2003) indicate that school reform literature suggests that principals should become instructional leaders and be involved in instructional practice (*Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment*). Principals must be visible and involved in the instructional process and willing to discuss educational and instructional issues with teachers. These leadership behaviors were all ranked as the top five in the overall rankings by the teacher respondents.

Literature on situational theory, supported by Lunenburg and Ornstein (2007), also suggests that leadership behaviors such as relationships, resources, communication, and an emphasis on the overall organizational climate of the school are important to leadership utilizing a situational leadership style. This leadership theory is relatively new and more aligned to the changing role of the principal as we move into the twenty-first century.

On another note, the lowest ranking leadership behavior across all categories was *Focus*. This contradicts the literature as well as the alignment with ILLSC Standard number one, which includes having a vision of learning, a mission, and a continual examination of the implementation of plans (ISLLC, 2008). The leadership behavior *Focus* may not have been well defined, or the respondents may not have been provided with a clear definition. Waters et al. (2003) describe it as “establishing clear goals which remain at the forefront of the school’s attention” (p.42). ISLLC Standard Number 1 describes the mission, or vision, of the school to

support their goals. Out of McRel's 21 leadership behaviors, teachers indicated that *Focus* was the least important. Teachers may feel that the leadership behavior *Focus* is very broad and is more applicable to the overall school or district. Teachers indicated that *Focus* as it is defined by Waters et al. (2003) does not affect the instructional practice of teachers as effectively as other leadership behaviors. Other leadership behaviors which are more personal and tangible, such as *Contingent Rewards* and *Relationships*, have a greater impact.

### **Implications for Practice**

Due to NCLB, the current educational atmosphere is confronted by the pressures of increased accountability with high-stakes testing. As school administrators from across the country work to meet higher expectations, they must ensure that they meet the needs of their students in terms of skills (Fleming, 2004). The results of this study have important implications for stakeholders, including teachers, school administrators, and schools boards who are interested in finding ways to improve teacher instructional practice through the implementation of specific leadership behaviors. The information found here could be used to direct professional development activities of teachers and school administrators; most importantly, the principal. It may also influence the hiring practices of school boards when looking for a principal for a particular grade level. By focusing on various leadership behaviors, a better fit may be found between school grade level and the leadership style of an incoming principal.

The gender of the majority of their teachers is also an important factor to consider by principals striving to improve their leadership practice. By analyzing the faculty in terms of gender, a principal may be able to focus on specific leadership behaviors which may differ depending on the population of teachers. For example, an elementary principal with a high percentage of female teachers may need to model leadership behaviors differently than a high

school principal who has a faculty population of 65% female teachers. This research indicates there could be leadership behaviors that may be more effective for one type of school as compared to another school.

The grade level of the school is also an important factor. Middle schools may be better served by a principal who possesses various leadership behaviors which concentrate on *Relationships* and *Discipline* as defined by McRel. The leadership behavior *Optimizer* is more important to the elementary teacher than to the middle school teacher or high school teacher. More research is needed in the area of grade levels and leadership behaviors.

Socioeconomic status is always a strong consideration when trying to improve most aspects of a school, and this includes the instructional practice of teachers. Finding the right blend of leadership behaviors for a school principal to model could help improve the instructional practice of teachers in schools with high percentage levels of FRL. The FRL factor and meeting AYP often work hand-in-hand and are a major aspect of whether a school is successful. Principals in all of the FRL categories as well as in both types of schools, those meeting AYP and those not meeting AYP, must look at their faculty and student populations and invest in the leadership behaviors which best meet their needs. The results of this study could potentially place a focus on behaviors that should be more closely modeled in each of these areas. For example, according to teachers surveyed with an FRL population of 75% or more, there is more of a need for a principal who models communication than for teachers in a school where FRL is less than 25%.

In all four categories of FRL populations, there was a different top-ranked leadership behavior. The population with the lowest level of FRL, 0-24%, ranked *Culture* as having the most impact on instructional practice; the second lowest FRL category, 25-49%, ranked *Visibility*

as having the most impact on instructional practice; teachers from schools with a FRL population between 51-74% ranked *Input* the highest; and teachers from schools with the highest percentage of FRL ranked *Optimizer* as being the most important behavior to impact instructional practice. These differences indicate to the researcher that there is no one-size-fits-all solution and that principals must be aware of leadership practices that would be helpful to their teachers and their student population. Student populations are diverse from district to district. By principals becoming more aware of what can assist their teachers in the classroom, students have the opportunity to benefit.

Results of this study may help in principal preparation programs. Leadership behaviors need to be further explored. Based on the demographics of this research, principals could learn to focus on various types of leadership behaviors and place less importance on other behaviors, based on their school and teacher populations. Aspiring principals could obtain more knowledge about the importance of modeling specific types of leadership behaviors which may have an indirect impact and help teachers improve their instruction practices. Focusing on specific behaviors, such as relationships, communication, and visibility, could also help make important improvements in the climate of the school and impact student achievement.

The selection of a principal for any school is an important decision and a huge responsibility. As the research shows, the impact this person has on the success of the school is substantial. Ideal candidates must possess the knowledge and skills that it takes to meet increasingly difficult challenges. They are accountable for student achievement as never before in the history of education. The results of this study could serve as a guide to school boards in that selection process by having an understanding of the types of leadership behaviors that are essential to improving the instructional practice of teachers. It may assist stakeholders by

identifying leadership behaviors which are most desirable to be modeled by the principals of their particular school.

### **Recommendations for Future Research**

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher suggests the following for possible future study:

This study ranked the leadership behaviors of principals based on teacher perceptions and the impact on instructional practice using a prescribed list of behaviors. It did not provide for participants to explain or elaborate on their answers or to add additional leadership behaviors. Adding a qualitative component (i.e., interviews, focus groups,) to the study would provide additional data for more in-depth exploration of the overall research question.

This study used a "forced response" methodology. A future study might consider using a "scaled-response" methodology, which would allow for greater discriminate analyses of participants' responses and perceptions. Additionally, this would allow for other types of analyses to be conducted, including but not limited to factor analysis, regression analysis, ANOVA, and Factorial ANOVA.

A larger sample size could be developed, using teachers who reach the top five from every state and U.S. Territory.

Future research could focus more on the differences of leadership behaviors of principals based on grade level, predominately middle school grade levels. The literature review found few studies available using either quantitative or qualitative studies in this area.



Teacher gender studies could further be examined; for example, how male and female teachers perceive the leadership behaviors of principals which impact the instructional practice of teachers, using qualitative data.

Future research could examine other perspectives, including those of principals, students, parents, or superintendents, to get an overall picture of which leadership behaviors impact the instructional practice of teachers.

Case studies of teachers and how principal leadership behaviors have impacted their instructional practice could be conducted.

An actual case study of several schools in different environments and varied FRL classifications could be planned and implemented to actually observe principal leadership behaviors as they relate to teacher interaction and classroom instruction in order to validate or invalidate the findings from this research.

One limitation worth noting is in regard to the survey questions in which teachers responded to the grade level of their school and their student population receiving free and reduced lunch. The survey questions in regard to these two areas need to include fewer categories for respondents to select, which would make for larger samples to conduct analyses. Due to the large number of categories in the initial survey, the categories were condensed, thereby eliminating some of the responses that did not fall exactly into one of the new categories.

### **Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

Several recommendations for policy and practice can be made from this research. It would be a good practice for those taking part in the hiring process of school principals to have a clear understanding of the school population, faculty, and school culture which the principal will

be serving. Based on this information, interview questions can be developed to fit the position and the type of principal desired.

Principals should self-evaluate throughout the year on how they would rate themselves in terms of modeling the leadership behaviors identified by teachers which most closely match the type of school in which they work. This might also include principals surveying the staff at the end of the year as part of their self-reflection. More formal principal evaluations could include activities which would encourage principals to take an active role in helping to improve teacher instructional practice through their own behavior. This could include taking the five top leadership behaviors previously identified and make every effort to try to improve in these areas; for example, relationship building, providing contingent rewards to teachers, and making efforts to improve their knowledge of content areas with which they may not be as familiar.

### **Conclusion**

With the goal of every school to increase student academic achievement, the leadership behaviors of principals are an important aspect of assisting students with academic goals in an indirect way. While there is no prescribed method of accomplishing this goal, insights from this study should assist those interested in leadership behaviors which may improve instructional practices of teachers to reflect on their own leadership behaviors.

The rankings by expert teachers provide an outline of quality leadership behaviors which have the support of research to show they improve student achievement. By analyzing their own leadership behaviors, and becoming more aware of the needs of the school in regard to the specific school demographics, such as grade level, AYP status, or large population of students on FRL, principals can gain a better understanding and select the leadership behaviors to model which could improve the instructional practice of teachers in their school. A self-evaluation and

an examination of the behaviors which are most likely to assist in this endeavor may increase the self-awareness of current principals to make improvements and adjust their current leadership methodology in order to improve the educational outcomes of students.

The identification of the ranking of the importance of leadership behaviors contributes to the body of knowledge on leadership behaviors. It brings an awareness of the need to look at the specific leadership behaviors which have proven to make a difference in terms of student academic success and to apply those leadership behaviors to the type of school where it can make a difference and improve the instructional practice of teachers. If the current trend in education is to hold principals accountable for the success of their students, it is imperative that principals find ways to encourage better instruction practices in their teachers. It may also help future principals to develop in their role as instructional leaders and bring awareness to all stakeholders of the impact that leadership behaviors have on the success of students.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**TEACHER OF THE YEAR RECIPIENTS**

## Teacher of the Year Recipients

2012	Alabama	Gay Barnes
2012	Alaska	Cara Heitz
2012	American Samoa	Lita Marie Timoteo
2012	Arizona	Kristie Martorelli
2012	Arkansas	Kim Wilson
2012	California	Rebecca Lynn Mieliwocki
2012	Colorado	Kristin Donley
2012	Connecticut	David Bosso
2012	Delaware	Amber Augustus
2012	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Angela Wilson
2012	District of Columbia	Perea Brown-Blackmon
2012	Florida	Alvin Aureliano Davis
2012	Georgia	Jadun O. McCarthy
2012	Hawaii	Chad Miller
2012	Idaho	Erin L. Lenz
2012	Illinois	Josh Stumpenhorst
2012	Indiana	Melanie L. Park
2012	Iowa	Charity Campbell
2012	Kansas	Tiffany Richard
2012	Kentucky	Kimberly Shearer
2012	Louisiana	April Jessup Giddens
2012	Maine	Alana A. Margeson
2012	Maryland	Joshua Parker
2012	Massachusetts	Adam Gray
2012	Michigan	Paul Galbenski
2012	Minnesota	Katy Smith
2012	Mississippi	Birdette Hughey
2012	Missouri	Kristen C. Merrill
2012	Montana	Thomas A. Pedersen
2012	Nebraska	Luisa Palomo Hare
2012	Nevada	Deanna LeBlanc
2012	New Hampshire	Bethany Bernasconi
2012	New Jersey	Jeanne M. DelColle
2012	New Mexico	MaryBeth Britton
2012	New York	Kathleen Ferguson
2012	North Carolina	Tryonna M. Hooker
2012	North Dakota	Brenda M. Werner
2012	Northern Mariana Islands	Jonathan Pangelinan Cabrera
2012	Ohio	Timothy M. Dove
2012	Oklahoma	Kristin Shelby
2012	Oregon	Elena Garcia-Valasco
2012	Pennsylvania	-----
2012	Puerto Rico	-----

2012	Rhode Island	Julie Lima Boyle
2012	South Carolina	Patti J. Tate
2012	South Dakota	Patrick Moller
2012	Tennessee	Byron Booker
2012	Texas	Karen Ann Morman
2012	Utah	Leigh M. VandenAkker
2012	Vermont	Tong J. Chen
2012	Virgin Islands	Nneka Howard-Sibilly
2012	Virginia	Margaret A. Smith
2012	Washington	Mark Ray
2012	West Virginia	Robert Morris
2012	Wisconsin	Bradley A. Markhardt
2012	Wyoming	Herbert Brent Daly
2011	Alabama	Phil Rodney Wilson
2011	Alaska	Lorrie Heagy
2011	American Samoa	Gingerlei Maga Uili
2011	Arizona	Amanda McAdams
2011	Arkansas	Kathy Powers
2011	California	Darin Curtis
2011	Colorado	Michelle Line Pearson
2011	Connecticut	Kristen Ann Record
2011	Delaware	Joseph P. Masiello
2011	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Angelica L. Jordan
2011	District of Columbia	Jon Nathaniel Rolle
2011	Florida	Cheryl Conley
2011	Georgia	Pamela Lynch Williams
2011	Hawaii	Kristen Lum Brummel
2011	Idaho	Stefani S. Cook
2011	Illinois	Annice M. Brave
2011	Indiana	Stacy A. McCormack
2011	Iowa	Molly Boyle
2011	Kansas	Curtis Chandler
2011	Kentucky	Erika Schmelzer Webb
2011	Louisiana	Julia Williams
2011	Maine	Shelly Moody
2011	Maryland	Michelle M. Shearer
2011	Massachusetts	Floris Wilma Ortiz
2011	Michigan	Matinga E. Ragatz
2011	Minnesota	Ryan M. Vernosh
2011	Mississippi	Brad A. Shonk
2011	Missouri	Robert Becker
2011	Montana	Paul Andersen
2011	Nebraska	Robert E. Feurer
2011	Nevada	Cheryl Macy

2011	New Hampshire	Angie C. Miller
2011	New Jersey	Danielle Kovach
2011	New Mexico	Diana S. Fesmire
2011	New York	Jeffry Peneston
2011	North Carolina	Jennifer Joyner Facciolini
2011	North Dakota	Karen Jaclyn Toavs
2011	Northern Mariana Islands	Raena S. Bermudes
2011	Ohio	Natalie Y. Wester
2011	Oklahoma	Elizabeth Smith
2011	Oregon	Colleen M. Works
2011	Pennsylvania	Jeffrey S. Chou
2011	Puerto Rico	-----
2011	Rhode Island	Shannon G. Donovan
2011	South Carolina	Kelly Hall Nalley
2011	South Dakota	Susan Turnipseed
2011	Tennessee	Cheryl D. Deaton
2011	Texas	Daniel Leija
2011	Utah	Gay Beck
2011	Vermont	Jennifer Erin Lawson
2011	Virgin Islands	Daniela C. Roumou
	Virginia	LaTonya E. Waller
2011	Washington	Jay W. Maebori
2011	West Virginia	Drema McNeal
2011	Wisconsin	Maureen Look-Ainsworth
2011	Wyoming	Laurie Lynn Graves
2010	Alabama	Yung Bui-Kincer
2010	Alaska	Jackie Lee Johnson
2010	American Samoa	Merwyden Suluai
2010	Arizona	Joy Weiss
2010	Arkansas	Vandy Mechelle Nash
2010	California	Kelly A. Kovacic
2010	Colorado	Justin Darnell
2010	Connecticut	Kristi M. Luetjen
2010	Delaware	Mary E. Pinkston
2010	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Susan S. Morris
2010	District of Columbia	Stephanie Day
2010	Florida	Megan Marie Allen
2010	Georgia	Gwen Desselle
2010	Guam	Salvador J. Avilla
2010	Hawaii	Wilma Chulakote
2010	Idaho	Kelli L. Smith
2010	Illinois	Kevin Rutter
2010	Indiana	Byron L. Ernest
2010	Iowa	Sarah Brown Wessling

2010	Kansas	Karen Tritt
2010	Kentucky	Durell Hamm
2010	Louisiana	Holly Franks Boffy
2010	Maine	Kevin M. Grover
2010	Maryland	Jennifer Burdock Rankin
2010	Massachusetts	Jae Goodwin
2010	Michigan	Robert L. Stephenson
2010	Minnesota	Amber Rose Damm
2010	Mississippi	Stacey A. Donaldson
2010	Missouri	Susanne Mitko
2010	Montana	Anne M. Keith
2010	Nebraska	Michael Fryda
2010	Nevada	Kathleen L. Schaeffer
2010	New Hampshire	Eric P. Nash
2010	New Jersey	Maryann Woods-Murphy
2010	New Mexico	Peggy S. Jackson
2010	New York	Debra J. Calvino
2010	North Carolina	Jessica Garner
2010	North Dakota	Mary Eldredge-Sandbo
2010	Northern Mariana Islands	Maria Ornes
2010	Ohio	Jennifer M. Walker
2010	Oklahoma	Brian Grimm
2010	Oregon	Donna DuBois
2010	Pennsylvania	Michelle S. Switala
2010	Puerto Rico	-----
2010	Rhode Island	Dana E. Ramey
2010	South Carolina	Bryan Coburn
2010	South Dakota	Tom L. Mead
2010	Tennessee	Patty Kiddy
2010	Texas	Yushica T. Walker
2010	Utah	Mary Jane Morris
2010	Vermont	Craig M. Divis
2010	Virgin Islands	Moordale Bryan
2010	Virginia	Catherine S. Webb
2010	Washington	Jamie Yoos
2010	West Virginia	Gretchen Elaine Shaffer
2010	Wisconsin	Leah Lechleiter-Luke
2010	Wyoming	Christina Mills
2009	Alabama	Roy Hudson
2009	Alaska	Robert Lee Williams
2009	American Samoa	Murali Gopalan
2009	Arizona	Sarah J. Baird
2009	Arkansas	Susan Waggener
2009	California	Alex Kajitani



2009	Colorado	Susan J. Elliott
2009	Connecticut	Anthony J. Mullen
2009	Delaware	Mark D. Teesdale
2009	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Dorothy Goff Goulet
2009	District of Columbia	Kimberly Worthy
2009	Florida	Jean Lamar
2009	Georgia	Leanne Maule
2009	Hawaii	Bebi Davis
2009	Idaho	Robin Sly
2009	Illinois	Linda Smerge
2009	Indiana	Tania Harman
2009	Iowa	Linda Heffner
2009	Kansas	Cynthia J. Couchman
2009	Kentucky	Karen Gill
2009	Louisiana	Deborah Hohn Tonguis
2009	Maine	Gloria L. Noyes
2009	Maryland	William Thomas
2009	Massachusetts	George A. Watson
2009	Michigan	Jennifer A. Haberling
2009	Minnesota	Derek Olson
2009	Mississippi	Wynona Chantelle Herchenhahn
2009	Missouri	Margaret L. Williams
2009	Montana	Sally J. Broughton
2009	Nebraska	Daniel R. McCarthy
2009	Nevada	Steve Johnson
2009	New Hampshire	Deborah Fogg
2009	New Jersey	Jeanne Muzi
2009	New Mexico	Blythe Turner
2009	New York	Vickie A. Mike
2009	North Carolina	Cynthia Cole Rigsbee
2009	North Dakota	Beth Suzanne Ekre
2009	Northern Mariana Islands	James E. Phillips
2009	Ohio	Deborah Wickerham
2009	Oklahoma	Heather Sparks
2009	Oregon	Michael Lampert
2009	Pennsylvania	Rebecca Snyder
2009	Puerto Rico	-----
2009	Rhode Island	Barbara Walton-Faria
2009	South Carolina	Jenna Hallman
2009	South Dakota	Paul R. Kuhlman
2009	Tennessee	Luajean Nipper Bryan
2009	Texas	Christine Gleason
2009	Utah	Sharon Gallagher-Fishbaugh
2009	Vermont	Diana Leddy
2009	Virgin Islands	Edney L. Freeman

2009	Virginia	Stephanie Aaron Doyle
2009	Washington	Susan W. Johnson
2009	West Virginia	MaryLu Hutchins
2009	Wisconsin	Lori Neurohr
2009	Wyoming	Alice Lynn King
2008	Alabama	Pamela Harman
2008	Alaska	Raymond J. Voley
2008	American Samoa	Patricia T. Fuiava
2008	Arizona	Robert Patrick Kelty
2008	Arkansas	Paul T. Gray Jr.
2008	California	Lewis Chappellear
2008	Colorado	Seth Berg
2008	Connecticut	Joan Hurley
2008	Delaware	Courtney Fox
2008	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Cathleen Marziali
2008	District of Columbia	Kathleen Sheehy
2008	Florida	Richard Ellenburg
2008	Georgia	Emily Jeannette
2008	Guam	Ronald A. Canos
2008	Hawaii	Pascale Creek Pinner
2008	Idaho	Carol Scholz
2008	Illinois	Ruth E. Meissen
2008	Indiana	Daniel R. Kuznik
2008	Iowa	Andrew Lee Mogle
2008	Kansas	Jeri Powers
2008	Kentucky	Chandra Holloway Emerson
2008	Louisiana	Laurie R. Carlton
2008	Maine	Martin M. McKeon
2008	Maryland	April Todd
2008	Massachusetts	Michael B. Flynn
2008	Michigan	June Teisan
2008	Minnesota	Michael William Smart
2008	Mississippi	Cheryl F. Beene
2008	Missouri	Eric Langhorst
2008	Montana	Steve Gardiner
2008	Nebraska	Mary Schlieder
2008	Nevada	LeAnn Morris
2008	New Hampshire	Benjamin D. Adams
2008	New Jersey	John E. Kline Jr.
2008	New Mexico	Denise Cannon
2008	New York	Richard T. Ognibene Jr.
2008	North Carolina	James Howard Bell Jr.
2008	North Dakota	Verna Rasmussen
2008	Northern Mariana Islands	Andrew James Golden

2008	Ohio	George Edge
2008	Oklahoma	Stephanie Canada
2008	Oregon	Mike Geisen
2008	Pennsylvania	David Woten Jr.
2008	Puerto Rico	-----
2008	Rhode Island	George Edwin Goodfellow
2008	South Carolina	Ann Marie H. Taylor
2008	South Dakota	Sharon F. Andrews
2008	Tennessee	Pamela M. Rector
2008	Texas	Paul F. Cain
2008	Utah	Hal W. Adams
2008	Vermont	Diane Bahrenburg
2008	Virgin Islands	Kimberly Sierra
2008	Virginia	Thomas R. Smigiel Jr.
2008	Washington	Laura Marie Jones
2008	West Virginia	Eric Kincaid
2008	Wisconsin	Beth A. Oswald
2008	Wyoming	Eileen Yager Johnson
2007	Alabama	Cameron Sharbel McKinley
2007	Alaska	Ina B. Bouker
2007	American Samoa	Joseroose S. Jyothibhavan
2007	Arizona	Kristin Bourguet
2007	Arkansas	Justin Minkel
2007	California	Alan Lawrence Sitomer
2007	Colorado	Susan R. Ryder
2007	Connecticut	Christopher Poulos
2007	Delaware	Caridad Alonso
2007	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Patricia Ann Laney
2007	District of Columbia	Githa Natarajan
2007	Florida	Conney Dahn
2007	Georgia	Pam Walker
2007	Guam	-----
2007	Hawaii	Jami Muranaka
2007	Idaho	Michael Clabby
2007	Illinois	Joseph G. Fatheree
2007	Indiana	Anna Shults
2007	Iowa	Jan Keese
2007	Kansas	Joshua M. Anderson
2007	Kentucky	Susanne M. Burkhardt
2007	Louisiana	Carol Leah Price
2007	Maine	Brittany E. Ray
2007	Maryland	Michele M. Hammond
2007	Massachusetts	Jessie Auger

2007	Michigan	Kimberly Kyff
2007	Minnesota	Lee-Ann Stephens
2007	Mississippi	Lee J. James
2007	Missouri	Darryl Thomas Johnson
2007	Montana	Gary Alan Carmichael
2007	Nebraska	Madaline Fennell
2007	Nevada	Melanie J. Teemant
2007	New Hampshire	Carolyn Kelley
2007	New Jersey	Karen Ginty
2007	New Mexico	Tamra A. Tiong
2007	New York	Marguerite D. Izzo
2007	North Carolina	Diana F. Beasley
2007	North Dakota	Marlene Srock
2007	Northern Mariana Islands	Acelia Castro Dela Cruz
2007	Ohio	Eric A. Combs
2007	Oklahoma	Linda Hasler-Reid
2007	Oregon	Jackie Cooke
2007	Pennsylvania	Lois J. Reibich
2007	Puerto Rico	Isabel Rodriguez-Santos
2007	Rhode Island	Catherine Davis Hayes
2007	South Carolina	Jennifer "Buffy" H. Murphy
2007	South Dakota	Charlotte Mohling
2007	Tennessee	Susanne H. Frensley
2007	Texas	Dana K. Boyd
2007	Utah	Kim Schaefer
2007	Vermont	Kathleen Sullivan
2007	Virgin Islands	Valrica Bryson
2007	Virginia	Susan W. Evans
2007	Washington	Andrea Peterson
2007	West Virginia	Sarah Morris
2007	Wisconsin	Terry Lee Kaldusdal
2007	Wyoming	Mark A. Nethercott
2006	Alabama	Margaret V. Petty
2006	Alaska	Arlene Beth Sandberg
2006	American Samoa	Lise Sharon Sauni
2006	Arizona	Maria De la Luz Popson
2006	Arkansas	Marsha Dugan Petty
2006	California	Denis James Cruz
2006	Colorado	Adele M. Bravo
2006	Connecticut	Mary Kay Rendock
2006	Delaware	Garrett Walton Lydic
2006	Dept. of Defense Education Activity	Patricia J. Salerno
2006	District of Columbia	Kim S. Burke-Ables
2006	Florida	Samuel R. Bennett

2006	Georgia	Brenda Shuman-Riley
2006	Hawaii	Sheri S. Kojima
2006	Idaho	John M. Sharkey
2006	Illinois	Jacqueline E. Bolger
2006	Indiana	Louisa A. LaGrotto
2006	Iowa	Jacqueline Rae Warnstadt
2006	Kansas	Ronald W. Poplau
2006	Kentucky	Jeffrey Allen Wright
2006	Louisiana	Brenda M. Lofton
2006	Maine	Donna Lynn Tardif
2006	Maryland	Kimberly Oliver
2006	Massachusetts	Suzanne T. Wintie
2006	Michigan	Daniel Jay Schab
2006	Minnesota	Glen Norton Sorenson
2006	Mississippi	Betty Belinda Hopkins
2006	Missouri	Girard Bland Thornton Jr.
2006	Montana	Debra Jeanne Biegel
2006	Nebraska	Patricia A. Koch Johns
2006	Nevada	Jan-Petrina McCarty-Puhl
2006	New Hampshire	Kimberly C. Kenney
2006	New Jersey	Robert Goodman
2006	New Mexico	Ron Christopherson
2006	New York	Stephen Bongiovi
2006	North Carolina	Wendy A. Miller
2006	North Dakota	Fred Paul Strand
2006	Northern Mariana Islands	Charlotte DLG Camacho
2006	Ohio	Deepa Ganschinietz
2006	Oklahoma	Robyn Michele Hilger
2006	Oregon	David Allen Bruner
2006	Pennsylvania	Barbara Mason Benglian
2006	Puerto Rico	-----
2006	Rhode Island	Barbara Carole Morse
2006	South Carolina	Stephanie King Seay
2006	South Dakota	Barbara Ruth Dowling
2006	Tennessee	Dawn Heterick Werner
2006	Texas	Karen Schiller Shepherd
2006	Utah	Joan Spackman Heap
2006	Vermont	Jennifer Foster Harper
2006	Virgin Islands	Georgia Ann Francis
2006	Virginia	Deborah Smith Goforth
2006	Washington	Susan Carole Barnard
2006	West Virginia	Bridget Kay Call
2006	Wisconsin	Mary J. Feldt
2006	Wyoming	Carol L. Kirkwood

**APPENDIX B**  
**IRB PERMISSION**

## SETON HALL UNIVERSITY

April 18, 2012

Janet Evers-Goodwin  
6 Joseph Court  
Sparta, NJ 07871

Dear Ms. Evers-Goodwin,

The Seton Hall University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your research proposal entitled "The Expert Teacher Perspective of Leadership Behaviors Which Facilitate Exemplary Instructional Practice" and has approved it as submitted under exempt status.

Enclosed for your records is the signed Request for Approval form.

Please note that, where applicable, subjects must sign and must be given a copy of the Seton Hall University current stamped Letter of Solicitation or Consent Form before the subjects' participation. All data, as well as the investigator's copies of the signed Consent Forms, must be retained by the principal investigator for a period of at least three years following the termination of the project.

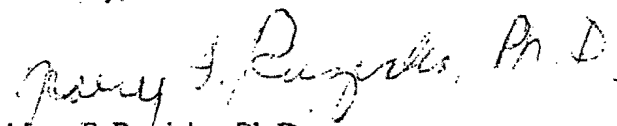
Should you wish to make changes to the IRB approved procedures, the following materials must be submitted for IRB review and be approved by the IRB prior to being instituted:

- Description of proposed revisions;
- *If applicable*, any new or revised materials, such as recruitment fliers, letters to subjects, or consent documents; and
- *If applicable*, updated letters of approval from cooperating institutions and IRBs.

At the present time, there is no need for further action on your part with the IRB.

*In harmony with federal regulations, none of the investigators or research staff involved in the study took part in the final decision.*

Sincerely,



Mary F. Ruzicka, Ph.D.  
Professor  
Director, Institutional Review Board

cc: Dr. Gerard Babo

**APPENDIX C**  
**PILOT GROUP**



L. Cravotta	Math Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
A. Jordan	Math Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
C. Fishbone	English Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
T. Miller	Social Studies Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
M. Westra	English Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
D. Chamberlin	Science Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
S. Mean	Social Studies	Teacher of the Year District Level
E. Kolonoski	Social Studies Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
J. Gill	Guidance Counselor	Teacher of the Year District Level
K. Kandel	Special Education Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
K. Reilly	Science Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
P. Nugent	Special Education Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
L. Trumpy	Elementary Education Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
C. Angelillo	Principal	High School District
Dr. M. Valenti	Principal	Elementary School District
N. Inskeep	Curriculum Coordinator	K-12
A. Bonacchi	Special Education Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
J. Sunderland	Creative Arts	Teacher of the Year District Level
A. Van Orden	Science Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
C. Spano	Teacher	Middle School Teacher of the Year District Level
J. Janulis	Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
A. Meyers	Creative Arts Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
M. Stanik	Business Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
B. Drelich	Creative Arts	Teacher of the Year District Level
N. Demsak	Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level
K. Fenlon	Special Education Teacher	Teacher of the Year District Level

**APPENDIX D**  
**SURVEY**

# Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

## Survey on Leadership Behaviors Which Facilitate and Promote Exemplary Teach...

Data collected from this survey instrument will be used to explore, from the teacher perspective, those principal leadership behaviors as identified by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2003), which best facilitate and promote exemplary teacher instructional practice.

Directions: For each item below, click on the circle that best reflects how important the leadership behavior characteristic is for promoting exemplary teacher instructional practice. Using a rating scale where 4 is Very Important (VI); 3 is Important (I); 2 is Somewhat Important (SI); and 1 is Not Important (NI).

To effectively facilitate and promote exemplary teacher instructional practice, the school principal...

### 1. Recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledge failures.

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### 2. Is willing to and actively challenges the status quo.

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### 3. Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### 4. Establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and students.

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

### **5. Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **6. Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **7. Adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **8. Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **9. Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

**10. Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

**11. Ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school's culture.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

**12. Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

**13. Is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

**14. Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

### **15. Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **16. Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **17. Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **18. Demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

### **19. Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

**20. Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

**21. Has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.**

- ☐ 4 Very Important
- ☐ 3 Important
- ☐ 2 Somewhat Important
- ☐ 1 Not Important

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

### Part II. Demographic Information. Please answer questions 22-29 for research...

22.

#### Gender

☐ Male

☐ Female

23. What is the gender of your principal?

☐ Male

☐ Female

24. Approximately how many years has your principal been in their position?

25. How many years have you served as a teacher?

☐ 0-5 years

☐ 6-10 years

☐ 11-15 years

☐ 16-20 years

☐ 21-25 years

☐ 25 + years

26. What is your age group?

☐ 21-30

☐ 31-40

☐ 41-50

☐ 51-60

☐ 60+

27. What is the location of your school considered?

☐ Rural (country or farm community)

☐ Suburban (outskirts of a city or urban area)

☐ Urban (city or metropolitan area)



## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

### 28. Did your school meet AYP requirements last year?

- ☐ Yes  
☐ No  
☐ Not Sure

### 29. Approximately what is your school student population?

- ☐ 0-500  
☐ 501-1000  
☐ 1001-1500  
☐ 1501-2000  
☐ 2001-2500  
☐ 2501+

### 30. How would you describe the school where you currently work?

- ☐ Elementary School  
☐ K-5  
☐ K-6  
☐ K-8  
☐ Middle School  
☐ 6-8  
☐ 7-8  
☐ 7-9  
☐ 8-9  
☐ High School  
☐ 9-12  
☐ 10-12

### 31. What is the highest education level you have achieved?

- ☐ Bachelors Degree  
☐ Masters Degree  
☐ Masters+  
☐ Doctorate

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

**32. Approximately how many students in your school receive free and/or reduced lunch?**

- ☐ 10% or less
- ☐ 11-20%
- ☐ 21-30%
- ☐ 31-40%
- ☐ 41-50%
- ☐ 51-60%
- ☐ 61-70%
- ☐ 71-80%
- ☐ 81% or more

## Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

**To continue to Part III please click Next to continue.**

Part III begins on the next page and can be completed quickly. When you have completed Part III, please click Next and then DONE to submit the survey. We thank you for your cooperation, it is very much appreciated!

# Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

## Part III. Rank in order of importance, the top 5 behaviors from 1-5.

In this final part of the survey we ask you to identify up to five leadership behaviors which would most likely influence your classroom instructional practice. To make your selection, choose the behaviors by clicking anywhere in the box next to it, then type in a numeric number 1-5, with number 1 being the most important. Continue in the same way selecting up to 5 behaviors.

### 33. Please list the top five behaviors of instructional leaders which would have the greatest effect on improving your instructional practices, number 1 being the most important.

Affirmation	
Communication	
Change Agent	
Contingent rewards	
Visibility	
Situational Awareness	
Resources	
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	
Culture	
Discipline	
Flexibility	
Focus	
Outreach	
Optimizer	
Monitoring/Evaluation	
Input	
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment	
Ideals/Beliefs	
Intellectual Stimulation	
Order	
Relationships	

**APPENDIX E**  
**PERMISSION FROM MCREL**



4601 DTC Blvd., Suite 500 • Denver, CO 80237  
303.337.0990 • Fax: 303.337.3005 • [www.mcrel.org](http://www.mcrel.org)

Janet Evers-Goodwin  
6 Joseph Court  
Sparta, NJ 07871

### Permission to Use McREL Material

March 15, 2012

Permission is hereby granted to Janet Evers-Goodwin to use in the dissertation that she is writing the following material which was published by McREL:

Figure 4.1: The 21 responsibilities and their correlations ( $r$ ) with student academic achievement, p. 42–43 from *School leadership that works: From research to results*.

We understand that table will be adapted into a survey for the dissertation. The survey should be marked as to the source of the material. The bibliography should include a full citation as follows:

Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works: From research to results*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

We understand that the report containing this survey will not be sold or distributed. It is for satisfying program requirements only. This permission is limited to the use and materials specified above. Any change in the use or materials from that specified above requires additional written permission from McREL before such use is made.

Please send McREL a copy of the completed dissertation for our records.

Sincerely,

Maura McGrath  
Knowledge Management Specialist

**APPENDIX F**  
**LETTER OF SOLICITATION**

# Teacher Perceptions on School Leadership Behaviors

## Electronic Consensus Form

Dear Colleague:

I am currently enrolled as a doctoral student at Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey, in the Ed. D. program, College of Education and Human Services, Department of Education Leadership, Management and Policy. I am writing to invite you to participate in a survey that is being conducted for my dissertation study on the behavior characteristics of school leaders to help improve instructional practices of teachers.

"The Expert Teacher Perspective of Leadership Behaviors Which Facilitate Exemplary Instructional Practice" is the title of the study. The purpose of the research is to 1.) explore the behavior characteristics which teachers feel are important for school leaders to demonstrate to impact instruction; 2.) identify which behaviors teachers feel have the greatest impact on instruction which may impact student achievement and 3.) to expand the knowledge on principal leadership behaviors and practices that may positively affect student academic achievement.

The collection of data will be conducted by sending teachers identified at state recipients of the Teacher of the Year award, an online, self-administered survey. The estimated time to complete the survey is less than 10 minutes.

The survey that you are invited to participate via this letter, will be identical in format for all teachers who participate in the study. The online survey has three sections: The first part will ask you to identify the most important leadership behaviors and characteristics from a previously developed list by Marzano, Waters & McNulty (2003). The second part will ask you some demographic information which will provide data about the teacher participating in the survey and the school in which they work. The format will consist of four possible answers in a multiple choice type fashion of which you select one answer by clicking on it. Part III will ask you to rank the 21 characteristics in order of importance. For best results, please try and complete all three parts, or submit after Part II.

Your participation in completing this survey is voluntary and by completing it you are consenting to being a participant in a research study. The inability or refusal to participate or to discontinue your participation at any time will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits which you are entitled. You may choose to discontinue your participation at any time. The survey will become part of the analysis of the data for the study as described.

The researcher will maintain complete confidentiality regarding your participation. You will be identified only through a participant number. Participants will be identified by number, for example, participant #1, #2, #3, and so forth. Your identity and your responses will at no time be revealed.

Data will not be stored electronically on computer desktop or laptop hard drives. The only means of being stored through electronic devices, will be on a USB memory key and securely locked in a cabinet. The researcher and the researcher's mentor, Dr. Gerald Babo, College of Education, Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey, will have access to the data. No other individuals will have access to it. The data will kept for five years after which time it will be destroyed.

If you have any questions pertaining to the use of human subjects in a survey, please contact IRB@shu.edu. Thank your for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Janet Evers-Goodwin  
Ed. D Program  
Seton Hall University  
400 South Orange Avenue  
Jubilee Fourth Floor  
South Orange, NJ 07079



**APPENDIX G**  
**MANN-WHITNEY TEST**  
**ON FEMALE AND MALE MEAN RANK**

*Mann-Whitney Test: Female Teachers and Male Teachers Mean Rank*

Behavior	Gender	N	Mean Rank	2 tailed Sig.
Affirmation	M	44	84.77	.540
	F	131	89.08	
Communication	M	43	89.12	.760
	F	131	86.97	
Change Agent	M	44	85.43	.656
	F	131	88.86	
Contingent Rewards	M	44	88.55	.829
	F	131	87.82	
Visibility	M	44	87.02	.811
	F	131	88.33	
Situational Awareness	M	43	84.23	.582
	F	131	88.57	
Resources	M	43	89.36	.555
	F	128	84.87	
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	M	44	92.41	.320
	F	131	86.52	
Culture	M	43	88.84	.814
	F	131	87.06	
Discipline	M	44	90.66	.588
	F	128	87.1	

Flexibility	M F	44 128	81.36 88.27	.376
Focus	M F	43 131	74.66 91.71	.041
Outreach	M F	44 129	79.99 89.39	.201
Optimizer	M F	44 130	93.98 85.31	.177
Monitoring/Evaluation	M F	44 130	96.69 84.39	.094
Input	M F	44 130	77.55 90.87	.091
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction & Assessment	M F	44 130	84.49 88.52	.550
Ideals/Beliefs	M F	44 131	80.28 90.59	.197
Intellectual Stimulation	M F	44 130	83.10 88.99	.335
Order	M F	44 130	85.42 88.20	.707
Relationships	M F	44 131	84.01 89.34	.311