

1988

An examination of Iowa's elementary school principals' strategies for managing reading programs

Peter C. Nwaogu
Iowa State University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/rtd>

 Part of the [Educational Administration and Supervision Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Nwaogu, Peter C., "An examination of Iowa's elementary school principals' strategies for managing reading programs " (1988).
Retrospective Theses and Dissertations. 9705.
<https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/rtd/9705>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Iowa State University Capstones, Theses and Dissertations at Iowa State University Digital Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Retrospective Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Iowa State University Digital Repository. For more information, please contact digirep@iastate.edu.

INFORMATION TO USERS

The most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this manuscript from the microfilm master. UMI films the original text directly from the copy submitted. Thus, some dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from a computer printer.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyrighted material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each oversize page is available as one exposure on a standard 35 mm slide or as a 17" x 23" black and white photographic print for an additional charge.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. 35 mm slides or 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.



300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA



Order Number 8825426

**An examination of Iowa's elementary school principals'
strategies for managing reading programs**

Nwaogu, Peter C., Ph.D.

Iowa State University, 1988

U·M·I
300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106



PLEASE NOTE:

In all cases this material has been filmed in the best possible way from the available copy. Problems encountered with this document have been identified here with a check mark .

1. Glossy photographs or pages _____
2. Colored illustrations, paper or print _____
3. Photographs with dark background _____
4. Illustrations are poor copy _____
5. Pages with black marks, not original copy
6. Print shows through as there is text on both sides of page _____
7. Indistinct, broken or small print on several pages
8. Print exceeds margin requirements
9. Tightly bound copy with print lost in spine _____
10. Computer printout pages with indistinct print _____
11. Page(s) _____ lacking when material received, and not available from school or author.
12. Page(s) _____ seem to be missing in numbering only as text follows.
13. Two pages numbered _____. Text follows.
14. Curling and wrinkled pages _____
15. Dissertation contains pages with print at a slant, filmed as received _____
16. Other _____

U·M·I



An examination of Iowa's elementary school principals'
strategies for managing reading programs

by

Peter C. Nwaogu

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Professional Studies in Education
Major: Education (Educational Administration)

Approved:

Signature was redacted for privacy.

~~In~~ Charge of ~~Major~~ Work

Signature was redacted for privacy.

~~For the Major Department~~

Signature was redacted for privacy.

~~For the Graduate College~~

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa

1988

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	6
Purpose of the Study	7
Hypotheses	7
Definition of Terms	10
Management	10
Examination	11
Procedures	11
Elementary School	11
Organizing	11
Reading	11
Reading Instruction	11
Principal	12
Grouping	12
Departmentalize	12
Language	12
Phonics	13
Remedial Reading	13
Independent Reading Level	13
Informal Reading Inventory (IRI)	13
Percentile	13
Kindergarten	14
Empathy	14
Individualized Reading	14
Language Experience Approach	14
Systems Approach	14
Eclectic Teaching of Reading	15
Random Sample	15
Round Robin Reading	15
Decoding	15
Random Assignment	16
Affective Domain	16
Basal Reader	16
Data	16
Frustration Level	16
Grade Placement	16
Grouping Procedures	17
Individualization	17
Parental Involvement	17
Reading Skills	17
Mean	17

Standard Deviation	18
Basal Reading Series	18
Stratified Sample	18
Sources of Data	18
Delimitations of the Study	19
Organization of the Study	19
Summary	20
CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH	21
Supervising the Reading Program	36
Current Methods in Reading Instruction	38
The Directed Reading Lesson or Activity	39
The Language Experience Approach	41
Individualized Reading	43
Systems Approaches	45
Eclectic Teaching of Reading	46
Placement in the Reading Program	64
Early reading	66
Objections to early reading	68
Allocated Time	68
Academic-engaged minutes	71
Nonengaged time	72
Students' Reading Levels	74
Summary of the Review of Literature and Related Research	76
CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES	79
Selection of the Sample	79
Development of the Questionnaire	79
Collection of the Data	81

Treatment of the Data	83
Method of Analysis	83
Summary	86
CHAPTER IV. FINDINGS	87
Descriptive Data	87
Role	87
Size of school	89
Size of the school district	89
Years of experience	90
Strategies for assigning students to teachers	91
Procedures used to determine students' reading levels	93
Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management	94
Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management	95
Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	96
Principals' perception of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	97
Inferential Data	98
Testing of the hypotheses	98
Summary of the Chapter	113
CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	114
Summary	114
Summary of descriptive data	115
Summary of hypotheses testing	115
Discussion	116
Suggestions for Further Research	119
REFERENCES	120
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	128

APPENDIX A.	IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE	130
APPENDIX B.	LETTER TO DR. CHARLES RAILSBACK ASKING FOR PERMISSION TO USE HIS QUESTIONNAIRE	144
APPENDIX C.	DR. RAILSBACK'S LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO USE HIS QUESTIONNAIRE	146

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Average allocated time per day in different activities	70
Table 2. Highest, average, and lowest teachers in academic-engaged minutes	73
Table 3. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by position in the district	88
Table 4. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by size of school	89
Table 5. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by the number of elementary buildings in the district	90
Table 6. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by years of experience as elementary principals	91
Table 7. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by strategies for assigning students to their teachers	92
Table 8. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by procedures used to determine students' reading levels	94
Table 9. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by principals' perception of discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	95
Table 10. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	96
Table 11. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	97

Table 12.	Frequency distribution of principals categorized by other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program	97
Table 13.	Full-time principals and superintendent-elementary principals categorized by instructional management practices for assigning students to teachers	100
Table 14.	Years of teaching experience of the principals categorized by instructional management practices for assigning students to their teachers	101
Table 15.	Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of school	102
Table 16.	Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of the district	103
Table 17.	Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal	104
Table 18.	Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal	105
Table 19.	Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the number of teachers supervised	106
Table 20.	Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management categorized by size of district	107

Table 21.	Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal	108
Table 22.	Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of district	109
Table 23.	Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of their school	110
Table 24.	Principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by principals' role in the district	111
Table 25.	Principals' perception of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of the district	112

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

Interest in reading instruction has become practically universal. For many decades, primary school teachers were the only people concerned with the teaching of reading. Now teachers of all subjects at all levels are teaching reading and seeking information about reading.

Mazurkiewicz (1968), in his book entitled New Perspective in Reading Instruction, maintains that parents, as well as interested individuals, are asking questions, pursuing books and articles on reading. Students at high school and college levels and adults beyond college are flocking to reading centers. Periodicals and laymen are discussing reading freely. Authors and publishers are zealously devising new methods and preparing new materials in the quest of finding better ways of teaching reading. Grant-funding organizations are donating large sums of money in the interest of reading improvement. Perhaps most important of all, governmental agencies are deeply concerned with reading improvement both in school and out of school. Not only is the government encouraging the improvement of reading instruction and the wide-spread teaching of reading, but it is offering financial assistance in furthering both of these objectives.

A few years ago, the International Reading Association newsletter, "News for Administrators," called for principals

to be strong, knowledgeable, and closely associated with the supervision and administration of their school reading programs. It was suggested that in effective schools and programs, principals had definite role responsibilities in five broad instructional and leadership areas: working with teachers, working with students, creating a building atmosphere, providing policy leadership, and building community support. A close inspection of these categories appears to indicate that principals should be active instructional agents involved in all levels of the reading program.

While the news brief did not elaborate on how the five categories of principals' responsibilities were selected, a review of current literature in reading indicated that principals have direct instructional responsibilities. Manning and Manning (1981) solicited responses from principals on a questionnaire designed to investigate selected program and personnel involvement factors. They concluded that principals should be involved in inservice presentations in reading, that principals should provide teachers with instructional support, that principals should know about new information that bears on reading programs.

The principal as an "instructional agent" was also documented in the frequently quoted Philadelphia Report (Kean, Summers, Raivetz, and Farber, 1979). In this statistical

investigation of what works in reading, the authors found that in schools where principals had direct experience in the reading area, pupils achieved better progress in reading than in schools which were directed by principals with little former reading experience. Kean and others (1979) also determined that the more principals were involved in direct observation in the classroom, the better the pupils performed on reading tests.

A study by Helms and Heller (1985), has provided us with evidence that certain classroom conditions and processes are strongly linked to student achievement gains, especially in the elementary grades. It is left to the principals and classroom teachers to know what aspects of the classroom are important to monitor, how to monitor, and improve these aspects, and whether the improvement strategies being used are improving classroom learning.

However, other literature does not support the principal as an indispensable instructional agent. Gersten, Carnine, and Green (1982) examined the principal as an instructional leader and concluded that more direct assignments and fewer instructional roles were needed to create effective programs. Gersten and others recommended "...replacing the currently fashionable theme of 'principal as instructional leader' with more down-to-earth, mundane lists of crucial activities that need to be performed..." (p. 49).

Studies have shown that some principals are reluctant to accept major responsibilities for instructional improvement because they are unfamiliar with curriculum matters, particularly those relating to the reading program.

Teachers often feel that their principals know little or nothing about the teaching of reading and have no interest in how reading instruction is practiced in the classroom.

Many principals, however, claim to be knowledgeable about reading and reading instruction and maintain that they do supervise and give support and guidance to their teachers in solving instructional problems in reading. Some principals are inclined to think that some teachers are too narrow-minded in their approach to the teaching of reading and quite inflexible in meeting the instructional needs of children.

Reading instruction involves not only selecting and presenting a curriculum to students, but also structuring a context in which teaching and learning can occur. Setting up and maintaining a total environment which includes curricular, organizational, and instructional aspects, either for one student or for many is "managing instruction." Approaches to the topic of managing reading instruction are likely to stress either pragmatic or philosophical concerns. Otto and Smith (1970), in their article entitled "Managing Instruction," maintained that pragmatic concerns are often directed toward

finding an optional size for instructional groups, while philosophical concerns addressed such questions as whether the perceived needs of individuals or the structure of subject matter ought to be the basis for planning and managing reading instruction. Questions like these are raised frequently when the issues related to return-to-basics movement or the debate about setting minimum competencies are considered. But whatever the emphasis, the underlying quest in the literature on managing reading instruction is to give proper consideration to value systems, type and structure of content, the psychology of individual differences, and the structure and processes of effective schooling in order to enhance the learning of individual students.

Research studies indicate that principals are knowledgeable about reading (Panchyshyn, 1971; Aldridge, 1973; Gehring, 1977) and that makes a difference in their management of reading programs. When a principal has a good background in reading, he or she can bring that experience to the planning, development, and implementation of the reading program. Knowledge of reading is essential for building professional development goals and for evaluating a faculty member in reading, community awareness and public relations for the reading program can only be promoted when the principal has more than a superficial knowledge of reading and language learning.

Statement of the Problem

School principals frequently read educational literature that maintains that instructional leadership by the principal is a critical characteristic of effective schools. Articles and books on the principalship often cite research findings to this effect. As the instructional leaders of the schools, elementary principals have both the responsibility and the authority to bring about substantive improvements in their reading program, their faculties, and ultimately in the reading achievement of the pupils in their charge. For this reason, they should seek constantly to upgrade their ability to manage the reading programs. Administrators, teachers, as well as lay-people know that we need principals who can manage reading instructional programs effectively. We do not know, however, if they are managing it and if not, what impediments stand in their way in the management of reading programs. The questions below are worthy of considerations:

1. What precisely is the principal's role in reading instruction?
2. How effective are the principals' reading management strategies?
3. What teaching methods are currently being used in reading instruction?
4. Given that there are more students who need to learn

to read than there are teachers to teach them, what is the "best" way or strategy to organize students, teachers, and curriculum--to manage instruction--for the effective teaching of reading?

The effectiveness of the principal's reading management strategies is beyond the scope of this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which Iowa's elementary principals are managing reading programs, the strategies or procedures they use in managing reading programs, and what factors influence how they manage reading programs.

Hypotheses

Thirteen hypotheses were posed for the study. The hypotheses assert that:

1. There is a significant relationship between the role assignment of the principal and the instructional management practices used in assigning students to teachers.
2. There is a significant relationship between years of teaching experience of the principal and the

instructional management practices used in assigning students to their teachers.

3. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the school.
 4. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.
 5. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.
 6. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.
 7. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the number of teachers they supervised.
-

8. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their district.
9. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.
10. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their district.
11. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their school.
12. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and principals' role in the district.

13. There is a significant relationship between the principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.

Definition of Terms

Below are the definition of important terms frequently used in the study.

Management

In this study, "management" is defined as:

1. How to coordinate individual and group activities toward goals.
2. Decisions and implementation regarding:
 - a. Grouping of students for the reading instruction
 - b. Child's placement in the reading program
 - c. Retention and promotion of students
 - d. Time allocation for each reading group
 - e. Students' reading level.

Examination

The term "examination" means investigation, that is, looking into, inquiring into.

Procedures

"Procedures" here refer to method, process, technique or approach.

Elementary School

"Elementary school" means a school offering work in any combination of grades from nursery school, kindergarten, or grade one through six, usually self-contained as contrasted with departmentalized organization.

Organizing

"Organizing" in this study refers to formulating, arranging, co-ordinating, categorizing, or grouping.

Reading

"Reading" is a process, vocal or subvocal, or approximating and reacting to ideas or information presented in visual form; most often restricted to printed form.

Reading Instruction

"Reading Instruction" is defined in this study as planned activities a teacher does that leads directly or indirectly, to improve a child's ability to read.

Principal

The "principal" is the administrative and professional director of one or more schools, usually subordinate to the superintendent of schools.

Grouping

"Grouping" in this study means organizing students for instruction according to classifications. They could be classified according to "age"--chronological grouping, according to ability--ability grouping, that is, they are placed in sections, classes, or committees according to their general ability or their ability in a particular respect, such as reading. Homogeneous grouping places a student in a group with those similar in one or more characteristics. Heterogeneous grouping is the classification of students who are dissimilar in one or more aspects of learning into classes, grades, committees or other groups.

Departmentalize

To departmentalize means to divide into departments, to divide into a major territorial subdivision, such as mathematics, reading, etc.

Language

"Language" is a system of communication, consisting of common elements and mutually intelligible to its users.

Phonics

"Phonics" is a method used in teaching beginning reading to establish letter-sound relationship.

Remedial Reading

"Remedial Reading" is instruction in reading, outside the regular classroom either individually, or in small groups, for students severely disabled in reading.

Independent Reading Level

Independent Reading Level is the level of achievement at which an individual can work without assistance. Usually defined as a level where the reader can function with at least 95% word accuracy and 90% comprehension.

Informal Reading Inventory (IRI)

Informal Reading Inventory is a graded series of reading selections and follow-up questions, used as an oral reading test to identify a student's reading level.

Percentile

A "percentile" is that point on a distribution below which a given percentage of scores of individuals fall. The 50th percentile, for example, is that score that divides the distribution in half. Percentiles are ordinal measures.

Kindergarten

Kindergarten is defined as a school or part of a school providing education for pre-elementary children from four to six years old. Through play and other activities of educational and socializing value, the children are prepared to enter into elementary school work.

Empathy

Empathy is the capacity for participation in another's feelings or ideas.

Individualized Reading

Individualized Reading is an approach which requires that all children be taught "separately" whether they are achieving at the same level or not.

Language Experience Approach

The Language Experience Approach to teaching reading is a program in education which uses the already existing language of the child to develop reading, writing and listening skills.

Systems Approach

A Systems approach is a process which provides reading instruction through a planned sequence of skills. Some are computerized, others are self-scoring, some require laborious

work by the teacher. It is an approach to the reading instruction which ensures that every child will have a planned program of instruction in basic reading skills.

Eclectic Teaching of Reading

A combination of methods in reading instruction is referred to as Eclectic Teaching: that is, the teacher selects activities from several different approaches to meet the needs of the students.

Random Sample

A random sample is a sample selected by chance from a population. It is also a sample selected from a population so that each subject has an equal probability of being selected.

Round Robin Reading

A routine procedure is to have one child read aloud while other children follow the same material silently. This is commonly called round robin reading.

Decoding

By "decoding" we mean translating incoming sensory information (visual, auditory) into meaning, e.g., understanding a word, recognizing a picture or an object.

Random Assignment

In situations where random sampling is impossible, it is often possible to use "random assignment." In random assignment, the subjects who will participate in the experiment or study are assigned randomly to the different experimental treatments. It ensures that subjects are reasonably comparable.

Affective Domain

That part of the taxonomic hierarchy that involves the feelings, emotions, and attitudes of a student.

Basal Reader

A textbook used in the elementary grades with the primary purpose of introducing students to reading skills in a sequential order.

Data

A body of information which has been gathered from a variety of sources.

Frustration Level

The level at which a student has extreme difficulty in pronouncing words and comprehending the material.

Grade Placement

The level at which a student is placed for instruction.

Grouping Procedures

The methods and criteria used to combine students for instruction. These include achievement grouping, skills grouping, interest grouping, and cross-age or peer grouping.

Individualization

A process whereby students are given assignments based on their own instructional level, and are engaged in tasks which meet their specific needs.

Parental Involvement

A facet of the total school reading program wherein parents act as reading models and are actively involved in their child's learning.

Reading Skills

Skills which involve the learning of procedures or strategies necessary for decoding and understanding the meaning of printed symbols.

Mean

The average of a set of numbers derived by taking the sum of the set of measurements and dividing it by the number of measurements in the set.

Standard Deviation

A term used to describe the displacement of scores from the mean, a condition which varies with the range in a set of scores.

Basal Reading Series

Basal Reading Series refers to a series of graded texts, manuals, and ancillary materials designed to provide for sequential, consistent development of reading skills, usually encompassing grade K or 1 through 6 or 8.

Stratified Sample

When certain subgroups in a population are represented in the sample in proportion to their numbers in the population itself, such samples are usually referred to as stratified samples.

Sources of Data

The data for this study were obtained from a questionnaire developed by Dr. Charles Railsback of Iowa State University and entitled "Iowa State University Elementary School Study Questionnaire." The questionnaire was specifically designed for this investigation and measured the responses of Iowa's elementary school principals' and superintendent-elementary principals' strategies for managing reading instructional programs.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was limited to public and private elementary school principals, half-time principals and superintendent-elementary principals in Iowa school districts. All male and female elementary school principals in Iowa were included, the number of years of service notwithstanding. The study did not include elementary school principals outside Iowa. High school principals in Iowa were also excluded.

Iowa is a unique state in many ways. It is a state with numerous small school districts and has a very homogeneous population. Most students are from white, rural, middle class families, and score above the national average in reading. The results of this study may not be applied to affluent and densely populated school districts in other states because the management of the reading program may differ from state to state.

Organization of the Study

This study was presented in five chapters. The first chapter provided the background information regarding the research topic, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, hypotheses, definition of terms frequently used in the study, sources of data, delimitations of the study and the organization of the study. Chapter Two was a review of the literature and related research. The focus of the third

chapter was on methodology and procedures. Chapter Four was a presentation of the research findings. In the last chapter of this study, attention was given to the summary of the study, discussion of the research findings, and recommendations for further research.

Summary

Many principals claim to be knowledgeable about reading and reading instruction and maintain that they do supervise and give support and guidance to their teachers in solving instructional problems in reading. It is widely held that principals are "instructional agents" and should be knowledgeable and associated with the supervision and administration of their school reading programs. People strongly believe that we need principals who can manage reading programs effectively.

This study was designed to investigate Iowa's public and private elementary school principals' strategies for managing reading programs. The study was limited to 478 school principals of Iowa's 436 school districts. In order to accomplish the aim of the study, a questionnaire was developed and mailed to 478 of Iowa's elementary principals. The data revealed the strategies that are being used by principals in managing reading programs.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

The leadership roles that principals should provide elementary school reading programs have been discussed in many professional periodicals. The remarkable point raised by Bernard and Hetzel (1976), cites the importance of the principal to the success of one elementary reading program:

The key to the improvement of reading rests with the principal. By the very nature of the position, the principal is responsible for providing the impetus to improve the school reading program (p. 286).

Houts (1975) confirmed the necessity of having a strong and knowledgeable principal capable of providing leadership to the reading program by insisting that schools can only be as effective as the people who run them. Added to this, is a report by the Philadelphia public schools (1979) which singled out the influence of the principal in the reading program as a paramount feature. Reading achievement scores were highest where principals were former reading professionals with the experience necessary to provide active leadership to the teachers and professional resource staff under their administrative and supervisory charges.

Weber's (1971) comparative study of successful versus unsuccessful school reading programs indicated that the principal and administrative staff produced a significant

positive impact on the success of the reading programs. Weber concluded that inner city schools that were the most effective apparently had administrative teams which provided a good balance between management and instructional skills. The school reading environment was both directly and indirectly influenced by the principals as they assumed leadership roles in administering and supervising the reading programs. In addition, the more effective schools had administrative and supervisory plans for dealing with reading problems and had implemented these plans in the schools.

According to Bernard and Hetzel (1976), the principal is the leader of the school's reading program, but there is no clear delineation of the competencies of the effective principal that result in a successful school reading program. St. John and Runkel (1977) contend, however, that because of the rapidly changing nature of the elementary school in society, the range of competencies that a principal must evidence in regard to reading is quite broad and expanding continuously. Rarely, then, are elementary school principals professionally trained to function in as diverse a variety of instructional and administrative roles as their job responsibilities dictate.

McNinch and Richmond (1981) studied the perceptions of principals as they critique their own actual and idealized

behaviors in administrative and supervisory tasks that relate to elementary reading instruction. The results of the study showed that principals who were involved with their schools' reading programs felt a need to increase their overall involvement in these programs. Additionally, the principals felt that they were only casually involved in the administrative or supervisory maintenance of reading programs. Furthermore, principals viewed themselves more as administrators than as supervisors in both actual roles and idealized roles. The study showed that there was role disparity among principals.

Houts (1975), monitoring administrative effectiveness of principals, concluded that many principals used administrative or management tasks as an escape from educational leadership. Since there is a disparity between what is accomplished and what should be accomplished, it appears that certifying agencies and college and university training programs need to look closely at the experiences they require of potential principals. It is strongly suggested by this study that principals receive more training or guidance in supervisory techniques related directly to reading programs.

Austin (1981) reviewed six studies that examined the characteristics of exemplary schools. The studies were conducted by researchers for the states of California, Delaware, Maryland, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania. From the

findings, Austin summarized that "the greatest asset of an exemplary school is its firm leadership; because of that leadership, students in exemplary schools believe that they can control their own destinies." He identified characteristics of exemplary schools common to the six studies. Austin reported that principals in exemplary schools:

1. Create a sense of direction for the school.
2. Execute their designated leadership role.
3. Foster academic expectations.
4. Recruit their own staff.
5. Have more advanced training.
6. Tend to have an education as elementary school teachers.
7. Have particular competence in one area of the curriculum, such as reading.

Other studies largely support these findings. The results of a cost benefit analysis conducted by Heim and Perl (1974) from New York State, suggested that the application of \$100 per pupil in additional revenue toward the upgrading of principal degree status could produce a 14 percentile gain in reading achievement.

A study conducted for the Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia by Summers and Wolfe (1975) produced conflicting results concerning the impact of principal degree status in Philadelphia public schools. The researchers observed that

neither principals' experience, degree status, nor possession of extra educational credits were related to increased student reading achievement. This study was challenged by the Philadelphia School District's Office of Research and Evaluation, maintaining that the data used were too limited in scope to be valid. The Philadelphia School District later joined the Federal Reserve Bank in a study that identified those factors that contributed most strongly to student reading achievement in Philadelphia public schools.

Moody and Amos (1975) observed that the cessation of one elementary principal's "extensive involvement" in an educational program, which had led to increased student achievement during the previous two years, resulted in lowered student scores in the areas of 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade reading achievement. Resumption of the principal's involvement in the reading program and other instructional programs corresponded to higher student scores during the following year in all tested areas except 2nd grade arithmetic.

Brookover and Lezotte (1979), in six elementary schools registering improvement in student achievement, found that the principal was more likely to be an instructional leader, more likely to be assertive in his instructional leadership role, was more of a disciplinarian, and most of all, assumed responsibility for the evaluation of the achievement of basic objectives.

In a study of eight successful urban elementary schools sponsored by Phi Delta Kappan (1980) researchers concluded that the behavior of building principals was a key factor for improvement in student achievement. Important activities and characteristics of principals discerned in the study were: the existence of a decision-making process that allowed input by the staff (participatory decision in staff selection; possession and communication to the staff of high expectations for achievement; successful communication of the principal's own role expectations to the staff; the maintenance of high visibility to students and its consequent effect on student self-discipline; empathy, interest, and concern for others; and action orientation.)

Studies focusing exclusively on student reading achievement have shown strong leadership and an emphasis on educational goals of the principal to be positively related to pupil performance in reading. Weber (1971) found strong leadership to be common to four inner-city schools exhibiting superior grade 3 reading achievement.

The State of New York Office of Education Performance Review (Heim and Perl, 1974), after comparing two inner-city elementary schools differing significantly in student reading achievement, reported the following findings:

1. Greater length of service as principal in the school and greater effort expended on maintaining a stable atmosphere within the school were exhibited by the principal of the high reading achievement school.
2. The relationship between the principal and the staff was less strained in high reading achievement schools.
3. The administration in the high reading achievement school appeared more adept at promoting positive school-community relations.
4. Greater flexibility in the implementation of the teacher contract was shown by the principal of the high reading achievement school (this was ascribed to the Principal's greater rapport with the staff).
5. The administrative team in the high reading achievement school expended greater effort on integrating new programs with normal classroom work.

The Rand Corporation (Amor and others, 1976), after identifying factors related to reading achievement in 20 Los Angeles minority schools participating in the School Preferred Reading Program, reported that principals' assessments of 6th grade teachers were "accurate predictors" of the reading achievement of students in those teachers' classes. This indicated that "principals know which classrooms have

problems and which are particularly effective" and that principals may have enough information to make policy decisions at the school level. The researchers, in discussing principals' leadership of the reading program, wrote that "the most effective principals they observed were able to achieve a balance between a strong leadership role for themselves and maximum outcome for classroom teachers."

Vanilla (1978) compared the task performance of Chicago elementary principals in ten relatively high achieving and ten relatively low achieving schools receiving funds from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Achievement was determined from reading achievement test scores. The researchers found the two groups of principals to differ significantly in their performance of numerous tasks. Principals in high achieving schools tended to exhibit greater involvement in instructional assessment, greater inclusion of staff and parents in planning program improvements, greater use of creative approaches to the development of school organization, a more effective approach to evaluating program change, greater understanding of pupils, greater leadership in the area of pupil personnel services, greater communication and interaction skills with parents and community members, greater awareness of community issues due to more extensive use of the communications media between the school and community, and greater adeptness at public relations.

Summers and Wolfe (1975), who investigated student reading achievement in 25 elementary schools, found greater 4th grade reading achievement occurred when the principal was more experienced in the field of reading and when the principal more frequently observed reading classes. Characteristics not found to be related to student achievement in reading were the principals' administrative experience, the amount of consultation received from reading program publishers and the district office, the principals' possession of an elementary school teaching certificate, the principal's degree status, the principal's teaching experience, the principal's tenure in the building, the principal's experience as a principal, and the principal's perception about home support and teacher expertise.

Researchers for the School Improvement Project (1979) investigated five "major determinants" of school effectiveness identified from the work of Edmonds and other researchers. These determinants were:

1. Strong administrative leadership.
2. High teacher expectations concerning student ability.
3. An emphasis on basic skills instruction.
4. Continuous evaluation of student progress.
5. A school climate conducive to learning.

The researchers studied four schools that demonstrated substantial upward movement in reading achievement rankings among New York City elementary schools over the previous four years, as well as five schools that demonstrated no movement or downward movement over the same time period. They found that the five hypothesized determinants were more characteristic of improving schools than of maintaining or declining schools.

Venezky and Winfield (1979) stated that the two major requirements for reading success in low socioeconomic areas were first strong building-wide "curricular leadership" and then the "instructional efficiency" of the school. Curricular leadership in the sampled high achievement school came from the "principal" and was characterized by the researchers as achievement--or task-oriented. Instructional efficiency referred to the "utilization of instructional resources to achieve maximal student outcomes."

DeGuire (1980) compared staff-perceptions and behavior in five schools experiencing improvement in 6th grade reading achievement to staff perceptions and behavior in five schools experiencing declines in 6th grade reading achievement. The data showed that "the principal who exercises leadership in the school's reading program does make a significant difference in influencing reading achievement." Furthermore,

regardless of how the school was categorized, principals and teachers believed that "ideally the principal should express a positive interest in and understanding of the school's reading program, provide fiscal support based on the needs of the entire staff, and conduct periodic school-wide evaluation of student progress." Principals in the declining schools exhibited "less involvement" in the school's reading program and more frustration with limitations of time, personnel, budget, and district requirements.

In a study reported by Gervais (1982), reading achievement in three elementary schools that explicitly tried to raise test scores was compared to reading achievement in three control schools. The two group of schools had socio-economically, similar pupils and a similar record on achievement test scores. In each of the three experimental schools, the principal had used a different method to enhance reading achievement. One principal provided formal training for teachers. Another emphasized reading achievement through a variety of methods and kept parents informed so they could provide additional encouragement and support to their children. The third principal expended considerable time working with teachers in teaching reading. Subsequent testing of 4th, 5th, and 6th grade pupils revealed greater overall gains in reading achievement in the experimental schools than

in the control schools. Gervais concluded that "although the principals used different methods to enhance reading achievement, one can readily see that the method used was much less important than the fact that each principal showed an interest in the teachers and the students."

Moss (1985) conducted a study entitled "More than Facilitator: A Principal's Job in Educating New and Experienced Reading Teachers." According to Moss, the principal's role in educating reading teachers exceeds the scheduling of an occasional in-service activity with the area reading coordinator. "The principal's role," Moss maintained, "must also include:

1. Becoming familiar with the area of reading;
2. Committing time and effort to program planning, implementation, and evaluation;
3. Encouraging the faculty through staff development and through participation in exemplary language learning activities in the school;
4. Evaluating of the teacher's theoretical orientation to reading as well as the effectiveness of that teacher;
5. Promoting awareness of the reading program within the community."

In this study, the principal's knowledge of and positive attitude for reading were consistently addressed as important attributes in the development of an exemplary reading program in the elementary school.

Although principals may be knowledgeable about reading, they may lack leadership skills for "managing" the reading program. Wurtz (1975) reported that teachers must often seek advice from other sources because principals are seldom involved in the reading program. Coordinating and evaluating the reading program is often the job of a specially trained reading teacher or teachers, rather than the principal. (Zinski, 1975).

Cox (1978) maintained that the effectiveness of the reading program may largely depend upon the principal's leadership capabilities and that inservice training is necessary for principals in the area of reading. Knowledge is needed by elementary principals in the fundamentals of not only the reading process and language learning by elementary children, but also the implementation of a language-based program in reading. A commitment is needed within the central office of the district and within educational administration departments of teacher training institutes to prepare elementary principals who can articulate the goals of a language-based reading program and who can develop, implement, and evaluate those goals in a reading program.

Educational researchers have found many conditions that seem to play a part in deterring children from making normal progress in learning to read. Physical and intellectual handicaps, a low socioeconomic level and lack of parental concern are generally cited as factors that contribute to reading disability (Spache, 1976). Unfortunately, the school has little or no control over such impediments.

But educators themselves are hardly blameless. Cohen (1969) reviewed research on teaching reading and reported: "Every study of the level of instruction in American classrooms concludes that, in general, the instruction in reading is, at best, mediocre and often poor" (p. 257).

In Mississippi, the 1976-1977 state-wide assessment program showed that pupil's performances in vocabulary and in reading comprehension were lower than expected in relation to their ability scores (Mississippi Educational Assessment Program, 1977). Organizational patterns, grouping practices, emotional climate, and teaching methods appear to be causing a great many reading problems (Durkin, 1974a). These, at least to some degree, are the responsibility of the building principal.

The multi-million dollar reading studies sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education in the 1960s indicated that the performance of the classroom teacher was the single most

significant variable in children's progress in learning to read (Bond and Dykstra, 1967). What was not investigated was the extent to which teachers' efforts were affected by their principals. Bernard and Hetzel (1976), both public school administrators in Arizona, wrote that:

It is ironic that those who can change students' reading achievement scores the most are often ignored in the total effort of improving reading services for students. The key to the improvement of reading rests with the principal. By the very nature of the position, the principal is responsible for providing the impetus to improve the school reading program (p. 386).

A Los Angeles study involving twenty elementary schools with a high percentage of minority students found that reading progress was linked to the ability of administrators to recognize and encourage effective teaching in the classroom (Rand Corporation, 1976).

One of the outstanding authorities in reading, Durkin (1974b) commented: "As more and more elementary schools are visited, it becomes increasingly evident that school-wide excellence in reading instruction exists only when a principal has a very special concern for reading" (pp. 8-9).

The importance of the principal in the reading program was emphasized by Sanacore (1977). He reported:

The principal's role as an instructional leader frequently determines the extent to which the programs are effectively initiated

and implemented. The principal's positive leadership in reading-related matters is especially important, since a reading related school provides students with opportunities for success in other curricular areas (p. 312).

The encouragement of good teachers is certainly one of the most important functions of a successful elementary school principal. Teaching reading is almost always hard work, and there are times when the frustrations are many and the rewards are few. A brief commendation from a knowledgeable administrator can rejuvenate a tired teacher whose enthusiasm is beginning to wane. On the other hand, an authoritarian or excessively critical principal can damage the reading program by lowering the teachers' self-confidence. Avery (1972) pointed out the area of administrator-teacher relationship was often neglected in both the education and selection of principals, resulting in a poor affective climate in many elementary schools. He commented:

Few educational researchers have been able to measure the effort of the principal's attitude on reading instruction as accurately as the first grade teacher who stated matter-of-factly, "Every time my principal walks into the classroom, the temperature drops thirty degrees" (p. 13).

Supervising the Reading Program

Upgrading the ability of the principal to supervise the reading program can have a positive effect on achievement.

McHugh (1967), in a study of several California school districts, found that an improvement in reading achievement followed the training of principals in the leadership of the reading program. If he or she became an administrator after years of successful elementary classroom teaching, familiarity with methods and materials can make supervision pleasant and helpful. But if the principal never taught reading in an elementary school, lack of information can be severely detrimental to the program. McHugh (1972) summarized the problem:

The principal has taken only one course in reading as an undergraduate many years ago. The principal is further handicapped in that he has little or no understanding of primary-grade reading. He tends to spend less time in primary grades than in intermediate grades. The principal's plight is not of his making. If we are to be critical of a situation, the last to be blamed might well be the principal (p. 164).

Most principals visiting elementary classrooms unannounced, will observe lessons similar to the following: The teacher directs a group of from seven to ten children to come to the reading circle with their reading books. Consulting a note written the previous day in the basal manual, he indicates the page for today's story. After a few moments are spent discussing the title and the picture on the first page, one child is chosen to begin oral reading. After a paragraph or two, or after the pupil has made some errors, the teacher selects another child and the process is repeated

until the reading period is over. The children who are not reading aloud are told "to follow along" silently. Some teachers make a point of calling on these pupils who do not appear to be keeping up.

This is an example of the most common approach to teaching elementary school reading. It is usually called "round-robin" oral reading and reading specialists have campaigned against it for many years with remarkably little effect. Artley (1975) found that round-robin oral reading was categorized again and again as a negative experience. He wrote, "I know of no reading authority who would condone this type of activity."

Of course few principals intend to promote or support reading lessons of this type, but lack of informed supervision can permit the continued existence of poor teaching.

Current Methods in Reading Instruction

Many teachers and some principals ask "How should reading be taught?" This question has been debated for generations without a definite answer. However, four different methods are in general use namely, the "Directed Reading Lesson," the Language Experience Approach, "Individualized Reading," and "Systems Approaches."

The Directed Reading Lesson or Activity

This approach uses a set of books typically designed for the first six grades. It begins with a readiness book which is intended to help the children develop their visual and auditory abilities. Matching objects, matching sounds, listening for rhyming words and looking for small differences in picture are activities used at the beginning of first grade. Letter recognition is taught and some texts introduce letter sounds.

The Directed Reading Lesson has several steps. First the teacher pre-reads the section to be taught to decide whether it contains any concepts or ideas which may not be understood by the pupils. For example, rural children may not be familiar with high-rise apartments and elevators while city youngsters may know very little about farm animals. If there are any gaps in the children's experience, the teacher spends a few moments discussing the ideas they will encounter.

Next, the teacher introduces the new vocabulary words. These are written in sentences on the chalkboard to help the pupils remember them. With good readers, the teacher may urge them to use their skills to "decode" the new words, with less capable readers, he or she may simply pronounce the words.

The third step is to give the students the purpose for their reading. This is done by asking a question or two

which can be answered only by reading the story. Then the children are given time for silent reading. In the early grades, the "silent" reading may consist of the children reading orally to themselves, the point is that they are not reading for anyone else.

When the pupils have finished reading the selection, the teacher asks questions about it. The children may be asked to find the answers in the book and volunteers are called on to read them aloud.

The teacher concludes the lesson with a follow-up activity. This might consist of an exercise to develop a particular skill, or one or more children could read the story aloud while the others listen (with their books shut). Sometimes a selection is dramatized by the class or pupils might be allowed to draw pictures to illustrate the story.

The teaching method outlined above can be used effectively in any grade and in any subject. When used regularly with materials at the right level, the Directed Reading Lesson consistently produces good readers.

Because the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) is essentially a set of prequestions given to students before they read and then given to students again as post-questions after they read, the literature on prequestioning and postquestioning can be said to evaluate indirectly the Directed Reading Activity. Anderson and Biddle (1975) concluded from their

review that prequestions facilitate learning for all textual information. Additional indirect support of the Directed Reading Activity (DRA) comes from White (1981) who compared getting the same questions prereading and postreading with getting them just prereading or just postreading and found the before-and-after questioning superior to the other two approaches. Sachs (1981) actually compared the DRA with a worksheet activity and found the Directed Reading Activity superior.

The Language Experience Approach

Another method of teaching beginning readers is called the "Language Experience Approach." The Language Experience Approach to teaching reading is a relatively recent program in education. It uses the already existing language of the child to develop reading, writing, and listening skills. Pienaar (1977) maintained that the Language Experience technique is based on the belief that children will learn to read faster and easier if their reading materials come directly from their own experiences and in their own words and sentences.

At the lowest level, Language Experience reading may consist of little more than labels or objects around the classroom. "Table," "door," "wall," and "window," are easy

for children to learn because the objects are completely familiar. The ever-present association between the labels and the objects lets many pupils learn the words without conscious effort. This kind of "reading" instruction is appropriate for kindergarten, or for parents to do at home in the pre-school years.

Smith and others (1978) remind us that "The average child of six has . . . learned to hear and respond to a large number of words, perhaps as many as twenty thousand. Thus personal language is an excellent base for successful growth in school" (p. 47). Proponents of the Language Experience Approach believe that it has merit because it builds upon the interest of the child and the language that the child has already mastered. Veatch and others (1974) also pointed out that a Language Experience Approach, by using a child's own language, "provides experiences that are closely related to the child's personal and social needs" (p. 12). Some advocates of the Language Experience Approach encourage teachers to stress to children that reading (or written materials) is "talk written down." Although it is desirable to help children make the connection between speech and reading, this is not a totally accurate conception of the relationship. There are some aspects of speech, such as voice inflection and rate of speaking, that will not be recorded when "talk is written

down." Therefore, even though it seems highly desirable to help children relate reading to talking, it does not seem desirable to use the idea of "talk written down" in isolation because you will not be dealing with the entire process of reading.

If the Language Experience Approach is overused, many children will become bored. This is especially true of bright pupils who want to read for new ideas and new information. Rereading their own stories begins to get monotonous after a few months.

Used sparingly, however, the method adds a new dimension to the school reading program. It is most effective when it supplements the Directed Reading Activity described above.

Individualized Reading

One of the approaches to reading instruction that has not been discussed up to this point is that of Individualized Reading. Betts (1973), maintained that "Individualized Reading is also a method of teaching."

The classic method of Individualized Reading is library-based. Each child selects his/her own library book and reads it silently at his/her own pace. Then the teacher moves about the class and holds a five to ten minute conference with each pupil once or twice a week. He keeps a record of how many pages each child has read, and asks questions about

the story. The child may be encouraged to read aloud a part that he particularly liked, or that he just finished reading silently. During this oral reading, the teacher makes notes about any problems the child may be having. If several pupils have common deficiencies, the teacher may group them for instruction in the specific skills that they need.

Individualized Reading has the advantage of student interest in the materials to be read. Assuming that the school has an adequate library, a child may pursue an interest through a number of books. Typically, children in an Individualized Reading program read considerably more than comparable students in a basal reading program. It is not unusual for a good reader to complete two or three books a week during the reading periods.

The disadvantages of Individualized Reading discourage most teachers from extensive use of the method. First, children are often poor judges of the reading level of library books. They may select books that are too easy or too difficult. Because the individual conferences are time-consuming, the teacher may not discover that a child is in an inappropriate book for several days. Also, skills instruction in the Individualized Reading program tends to be fragmented and disorganized. The lack of vocabulary control and repetition makes it difficult for many pupils to acquire a large

sight vocabulary. Few teachers have time to read all the books the children are reading, so when questions are asked any answer that sounds plausible is accepted.

Individualized Reading is most successful in two situations. As an addition to a more structured reading program, it provides practice in using the skills that the children are developing. As a total program, it works best with groups of children who have already mastered the basic reading skills and who need little more than encouragement to do extensive reading. Generally, these are students who read at or above the fourth grade level.

Systems Approaches

Systems Approaches provide reading instruction through a planned sequence of skills. Some are computerized, others are self-scoring, some require laborious work by the teacher. But the concept is usually the same. The reading process is divided into a number of separate skills. Depending on the publisher, the total may range from as few as seventy-five to more than five-hundred. The children are given a test over some or all of the skills. The teacher uses the results to determine the instructional needs of each pupil (Jackson and Pearson, 1975). Many of the systems use a test-teach-retest pattern.

A Systems Approach does ensure that every child will have a planned program of instruction in basic reading skills. If the step-by-step directions are followed, every pupil will be taught every basic skill. Spache (1976) maintained that "some teachers become so preoccupied with isolated skills and record-keeping that they lose sight of the children themselves. Reading for enjoyment is submerged by a flood of worksheets."

Eclectic Teaching of Reading

Many of the best reading teachers use a combination of methods in their classrooms (Sherwood, 1977). This combination of methods in reading instruction is referred to as "Eclectic Teaching": that is, the teacher selects activities from several different approaches to meet the needs of the students. For example, a teacher might use Directed Reading Lessons in the basal readers, supplemented by some systematic phonics instruction, and followed by a period of Individualized Reading. Language Experience techniques might be used to introduce beginners to reading and to get children started in creative writing. When carefully balanced, with adequate attention devoted to both skills instruction and sustained reading, a combination approach is most successful with a great majority of pupils.

Bradtmueller and Egan (1981), studied the "Perception of the Principal's Role in Reading Instruction." In this study, an effort was made to gather information about the role of elementary and middle school principals in reading instruction in schools in northern Illinois. One-hundred questionnaires were sent to a random sample of principals in northern Illinois. Seventy-one principals responded. Forty-three were from smaller school districts (1500 students or less), and twenty-eight were from larger school districts (1501 students or more). All but one of the principals stated that his duties included supervision of reading instruction.

These responses indicated that 84% of the principals from the smaller schools and 78% of the principals from the larger school districts had six or more credit hours of instruction in how to teach reading, and 9% and 11% of these two groups respectively had 15 hours preparation. They, as a group, would seemingly be well prepared to supervise reading instruction.

Principals' duties often involve selection of textbooks. These principals indicated that 81% and 71% respectively had analyzed basal series and therefore should be able to actively participate in selection of a basal series.

The principals felt that comprehension was the most important area of reading instruction by 46% to 50% respectively. Decoding was considered by 21% and 18% of the two

groups while both areas were considered to be of equal importance by 33% and 32% respectively.

Grouping and placement included homogeneous grouping. Eighty-one percent of the smaller school group and 89% of the larger school group indicated they utilized homogeneous grouping procedures.

Criteria for grouping responses indicated a wide variety of practices with a combination of achievement test scores, teacher judgment, criterion tests, and use of an Informal Reading Inventory (IRI) being chosen by 35% and 29% of the two groups respectively. No other single device or group of devices came to 20% of each of the two groups respectively.

Reading series or basal series are chosen by various means in different school districts.

A principal's belief regarding the type of instructional program leading to optional pupil achievement will be reflected in his/her supervision of teachers' instruction in reading. The principals selected responses from a choice of: 1) phonics oriented, 2) linguistic oriented, 3) language experience, 4) other, or combination of those listed. Twenty-one and 14% of the two school size groups chose a phonics orientation as being the most desirable. No other single option was selected by at least 10% except language experience as being most desirable while 33% and 36% of the small and

large corporation principals chose a combination of all three approaches as being most desirable. It would seem most principals prefer an eclectic approach to the teaching of reading.

Principals who state a preference for a given approach to teaching reading may also feel most comfortable supervising this type of program. Nineteen percent of the smaller school corporation principals' group and 11% of the larger school corporation group stated that phonics was the approach with which they felt most comfortable in giving help. In all 69% and 64% of the two principals' groups felt they could give help to teachers in the teaching of phonics. The linguistic option was unacceptable to all and language experience was within the competence of 16% and 18% of these two principal groups. The majority felt most at ease in giving instructional aid to teachers using a combination approach. Fifty-one percent of the group of principals for smaller school corporations and 54% of the principals from the larger corporations felt they could help teachers with instructional problems involving a combination approach of all three options.

The question of perceived confidence in the four major areas of reading instruction--1) word recognition, 2) comprehension, 3) study skills, 4) recreational--was answered by the principals in the following manner. Less than 10% of

either group felt competent in only one area to the exclusion of others. Seventy-two percent of the smaller corporation principals' group felt adequately prepared in the area of "word-recognition" while 65% of the principals from the larger corporations expressed this notion. Sixty-five percent of the smaller school group felt competent in the area of "comprehension" and 90% of the principals from the larger group expressed the same notion. Study skills was chosen by 53% of the smaller corporation principals and 86% of the larger school respondents as being an area in which they felt competent. Recreational reading: 43% of the smaller corporation principals and 65% of the principals from the larger corporations expressed competence in directing or leading recreational reading.

Grade level preferences for supervision were also examined. Nine percent of the smaller corporation principals and 18% of the principals from the larger corporations considered themselves competent at all grade levels while only 5% and 4% felt themselves incompetent at all grade levels.

The final question dealt with in-service educational preferences:

1 - day workshops

2 - day workshops

3 - day workshops

Formal course

County institute

In-service within district

Sixty-one and 58% of these groups of principals stated a preference for one-day workshops while 61% and 50% stated a preference for in-service within the districts. The other options were scattered widely over those remaining, and a combination of several types seemed to be preferred. Formal courses were not in great demand by this group of respondents, 9% and 22% respectively.

Grouping for instruction, especially by means of standardized achievement tests, is a commonly accepted procedure in many school systems. Both groups of principals grouped the children in their schools by homogeneous grouping procedures. They did not indicate whether the average, vocabulary, or comprehension reading grade score was utilized.

The most commonly used criteria are achievement test scores, teacher judgment, criterion referenced tests, and informal reading inventories. These were used in various combinations by the two groups, but the combination of these factors all included one general factor, "teacher judgment." This seemed to be the most commonly utilized factor.

The graded school brings together students who are approximately the same age and in roughly similar developmental stages. Yet, there are vast individual differences

in reading achievement at any grade level, and many educators believe that students ought to be taught to read in relatively stable homogeneous groups. Esposito (1973), Heathers (1972), found that "reading achievement" and "cognitive ability" are the most common criteria for homogeneous grouping; the intent of homogeneous grouping is to bring together students who are more nearly alike than students in the entire population. The purpose is to facilitate planning and instruction in order to accommodate students' individual needs and to allow them to experience learning with others with similar characteristics.

Plans for heterogeneous grouping vary as widely as those for homogeneous grouping, ranging from simple random assignment of students to self-contained classrooms to elaborate arrangements for cross-grade grouping. A popular but overly simplistic view associates homogeneous grouping with the basal reading program and heterogeneous grouping with individualized reading. In practice, there is no reliable association between the way students are grouped and the way their curriculum is ultimately organized.

Eberwein (1972) compared two within-class grouping patterns; the traditional three-group ability plan, and one that allowed for more flexibility in grouping students on criteria other than achievement. Even though the investigator provided considerable help in implementing the flexible

arrangement, there were no significant achievement differences; but there was evidence that fewer students in the groups formed more flexibly were ignored by their peers. Wilkinson and Calculator (1982) reported differences in responses to requests for information in peer-directed homogeneous reading groups. Students in the low-ability group were less likely than students in the high-ability group to have their requests responded to appropriately by other students. Consequently, the low-ability group students had more difficulty completing their assignments. More specifically, the students in the low-ability group were less likely to receive information regarding the content of the academic assignment and were less likely to obtain appropriate responses regarding the procedure and materials. Wilkinson and Calculator concluded that differences in the communicative process within homogeneous groups may serve to maintain initial differences in both reading achievement and effective use of language. Doucette and St. Pierre (1977) examined school-related variables and reading achievement scores, and found no relationship between ability grouping and gains in reading achievement.

On the basis of an ethnographic study of the social organization of reading instruction over several grade levels in one elementary school, Hart (1982), claims that the academic characteristics of individuals are "not" the basis for

reading-class formation. Instead, the dimensions of social organizations--grades and ability levels--are used to form classes that cut across academic distinctions among individuals. Hart claimed, therefore that "the grade dimension of the social organization for reading obscures academic differences."

In order to examine the processes by which the internal organization of schools affect students, Eder (1981) analyzed the verbal and non-verbal behaviors of students during reading-group lessons in a single classroom. Eder concluded that homogeneous grouping compounds initial learning problems by placing children who have learning problems in the same group, that is, students who are likely to have difficulty learning are assigned to groups where the social context is likely to be less conducive to learning.

Whether students are grouped homogeneously or heterogeneously, they need to be assigned to teachers for instruction. At the elementary level, the most common organizational plan is the self-contained classroom, where a subject area generalist has responsibility for teaching all, or almost all, subjects including reading to all the students in the classroom group. Research has rarely been focused on the effectiveness of the self-contained classroom per se, although it is the most commonly employed control treatment in studies of

other organizational arrangements. At the secondary level, the most common organizational plan is "departmentalization," where reading is taught as a separate subject, usually by a trained reading teacher or specialist who works with several groups of students each day. While educators have experimented with alternatives to these typical arrangements in both elementary and secondary schools, virtually all the research pertaining to reading instruction has been done at the elementary level. Heathers (1972), maintained that studies of departmentalized teaching in upper elementary schools had produced inconsistent results regarding achievement outcomes and no evidence of adverse effects on students' personal development.

Lamme's (1976) study is an exception. She examined students' reading habits as they moved from self-contained classrooms in Grade 4 to departmentalized instruction in Grades 5 and 6. Students read more books and showed fewer differences in attitude in the departmentalized situation. One cannot conclude, however, that departmentalization "caused" the change because organizational plans and grade level were confounding variables.

Taken together, the studies of organizational plans for assigning students to teachers suggest that it does not make much difference whether students are taught reading in self-contained, departmentalized, or team taught classes.

Tikunoff and others (1975) reported differences in reading-group functions in second and fifth grade classrooms. In Grade 2, there was more group instruction, groups were usually formed on the basis of reading-ability, and they served as the setting for formal instruction in reading. In Grade 5, students worked more on their own, groups were more likely to be formed on the basis of social needs or interests, and groups served less as settings for formal instruction and more as forums for the exchange of ideas. Stallings, Needles and Stayrook (1979) found that in remedial classrooms, students who spent time in small-group activity made greater academic gains than students who spent time in one-to-one instruction; and Stallings (1980) concluded that the amount of time allocated to specific reading activities significantly affected students' reading gains.

The management-effectiveness literature suggests that elementary reading instruction is more effective when students are directly supervised by the teacher or by an adult. Durkin (1978-1979), on the basis of classroom observations, concluded that worksheets and written assignments comprise much of the middle grade reading program. As Rosenshine (1979) has noted, students may spend more of the time assigned for formal reading instruction (reading period) with instructional materials than with the teacher.

In a naturalistic study, Barr (1973-1974) observed nine first-grade classrooms and studied the number of new words introduced in a specific time and the number of words learned by individual students. She found that teachers who used "whole-class" instruction proceeded at a slower pace than did teachers who "grouped" students by ability for reading instruction. Middle and high ability students who were taught in "whole-class" settings learned fewer words than comparable students in classrooms which used "ability grouping." Low ability students did equally well in either setting. Unfortunately, the Barr Study did not collect data on what was happening in the whole-class instruction classrooms to cause the slower pace. One explanation is that the slower pace occurred because the new words were repeated and reviewed more often in order to provide sufficient practice for the slower students.

Barr (1975) observed grouping practices in 12 first-grade classrooms and found considerable variety in the ways the teachers grouped students for reading instruction, with all but one teacher eventually dividing students into two to four groups for basal reader instruction. Teachers appeared to establish reading groups as they identified individuals who needed "differentiated instruction" or attention. Once established, teachers tended to keep the number of groups stable.

Teachers need to group within a class for reading instruction. They often feel that they could do better jobs if they did not have quite the range of achievements in their class. This kind of thinking leads to the idea of some sort of achievement/ability grouping.

The most thorough study of the effectiveness of different kinds of grouping plans was reported by Goldberg, Passow, and Justman (1966). Based on all of the different plans, and evaluated in terms of academic success, their research indicated that deliberate "wide range" heterogeneous grouping was the most successful.

Shepherd and Ragan (1982) in their book entitled *Modern Elementary Curriculum*, stated the advantages and limitations of heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings. Some of the advantages of heterogeneous grouping are:

1. The interaction of the various ability levels contributes to all aspects of development achievement.
2. Heterogeneous groups are more analogous to the relationships in life.
3. The instructional models and participation alternatives available to pupils and teachers are more numerous.
4. Some research studies generally favor social

affective, and maturational advantages for children in heterogeneous groups.

Limitations claimed for heterogeneous grouping are:

1. The research evidence concerning achievement generally suggest that there are no differences between heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings.
2. The wider range of variations in achievement needs and capacities make it difficult for the teacher to provide for the individualization of instruction.
3. The pupils who learn more slowly are less likely to have opportunities for academic leadership and success because of the presence of brighter pupils.

Homogeneous grouping has its advantages and limitations as well. The following are the advantages claimed for homogeneous grouping:

1. The teacher who has a group of brighter pupils can challenge the pupils to work to their fullest capacity by using more difficult materials, expecting them to progress more rapidly from one level of difficulty to another, and requiring a higher quality of performance.

2. The teacher who has a group of less capable pupils can gear the instruction to their level of ability by using easier materials, giving them more time to progress from one level of difficulty to another, and setting more realistic standards for performance.
3. Differentiated instruction in terms of ability and effort enhances equality of opportunity for pupils with wide variations in ability.
4. Parents, especially those whose children are in the upper ability group, generally favor the plan.
5. Teachers, who are inclined to hope that some plan will be found to give them a group of pupils who are somewhat alike in ability, generally favor the plan.
6. It is more true to life to have pupils compete with those who are somewhere near their own level of ability, slow pupils particularly have better opportunities to become leaders in their own group.
7. Teachers have an opportunity to do a better job of teaching the skill subjects

when the pupils in their classes do not vary so widely in ability.

8. The teacher has a better opportunity to work with individuals when the range of ability in the class is reduced somewhat.

Homogeneous grouping has its limitations. Some of the limitations claimed for homogeneous grouping are as follows:

1. Grouping pupils into high, average, and low groups does not significantly reduce variations among the pupils in these groups.
2. The plan will not accomplish the purpose of providing instruction for each pupil according to his or her ability unless the material provided for each group are suitable for pupils of that general level of ability.
3. The plan violates the pupils' plan to be different; when they are labeled slow, average, or bright, they start to think of themselves in these terms and begin to try to be like others in their group.
4. The plan pays little attention to any characteristic of a pupil other than the trait used as the basis for grouping; there is evidence that pupils with similar scores

in intelligence tests may differ widely with respect to other characteristics.

5. It is difficult to find teachers who are willing to work only with slow groups.
6. Ability grouping is a form of segregation; the pupils in the high ability group generally come from families at the higher socioeconomic level.
7. Parents frequently object to having their children assigned to the slow group.
8. There is little evidence to support the contention that higher achievement occurs as a result of homogeneous grouping.

Administrators have attempted to simplify the problems of the elementary and high school teachers by "homogeneous grouping"--putting students of a certain reading ability together in one class. This practice is believed to ease the strain of meeting great differences among students. Russell, in his article entitled "Inter-Class Grouping for Reading Instruction in the Intermediate Grades," maintained that homogeneous grouping of students gives the teacher a false sense of security, for differences remain. For instance, the teacher may have fewer reading levels to consider, but may have as great a variety of skills in need of remediation or

development. Therefore teachers working under the homogeneous grouping system need to appreciate that no one-book, one-method approach is justified.

The literature on grouping for reading instruction shows that in every reading program, some of the activities should involve the whole class, some a small group, and some the individual. In each case, individual needs are served; for the individual may need to share something with the whole class, learn something with the help of others in a group, or prove that he or she knows something by doing it himself/herself.

Grouping, itself, is a method of individualizing not a way of escaping responsibility.

Writing on the subject of "grouping," Walter Barbe, in his book entitled *Teaching Reading: Selected Materials*, identified six types of grouping for reading instruction-- achievement grouping, in which a student reads with others material which is easy enough for him to read but which contains some challenge requiring the help of the teacher; special needs grouping, in which students needing the same kind of skill work on it together with the teacher; team grouping, in which two or more students work on a skill together without the aid of the teacher; tutoring grouping, in which one student who knows a technique helps others who do

not know it; research grouping, in which students curious about the same information seek it together in reference sources; and interest grouping, in which students have the same hobby or preference in recreational reading share ideas. In achievement grouping, the teacher provides a systematic, year-long instructional program, receiving and building important skills.

To determine the achievement groupings and materials to be used, teachers, more often than not, give a test. It is important that the total test score not be used as the measure of reading level, partly because "tests do not agree on reading level" (Pflieger, 1949), and partly because it is the difficulty level of material successfully read that most concerns the teachers ("What's Behind the Reading Score?", 1953). Membership in such an achievement group is important for each student, even though some students may spend less time with such a group than others. Gifted and talented students often have been neglected in this respect.

Placement in the Reading Program

Betts (1946) developed a set of criteria for evaluating oral reading performances which has had a profound impact upon educational practice. Betts developed word-recognition--accuracy and comprehension standards for three levels of reading, which he described as Independent (99% word recogni-

tion accuracy and 90% comprehension), Instructional (95% and 75%) and Frustration (below 95% and 50%). Betts's criteria were widely accepted at that time and remain so today, even though a variety of challenges have been raised concerning their validity.

Roberts (1976) challenged Betts's criteria. She attempted to discover whether Betts's criteria were being employed, consciously or not, by primary-grade teachers in several schools. Her finding indicated that many children were, indeed placed in text based upon word-accuracy criteria similar to the original Betts's standards. However, many children were also placed "incorrectly," in material that Betts would rank as frustration level. In an attempt to discover whether the negative outcomes predicted by Betts and others would accompany such placement, Roberts, examined the progress and reading attitudes of children placed in frustration-level material. Results nearly contrary to the predicted negative outcomes were obtained. Children placed in frustration-level material evidenced generally positive attitude about reading and actually seemed to be making greater progress than those placed in materials that would be considered appropriate: material which was read with 95% or greater accuracy. In her summary, Roberts noted that far too little empirical evidence exists to support the continued use of Betts's criteria for placement decisions.

Gambrell, Wilson, and Gantt (1981) and Berliner (1981) present evidence that student achievement in reading is positively affected by placement in materials that produce error rates (2% - 5%). Gambrell and others (1981) and Jorgenson (1977) also noted that readers placed in reading material which produce error rates greater than 5% tend to be more frequently off-task during instruction, a point which would suggest a negative impact of such placement on achievement growth.

Early reading

Many educators advocate early reading and encourage parents to read to their children as early as possible.

One of the best known studies on early reading was conducted for six years by Durkin in New York City and in Oakland, California, in 1966. Some of the children read before their entry into first grade and before receiving any formal reading instruction. Durkin concluded that early reading was not necessarily a function of socioeconomic status, ethnicity, or intelligence. She further reported that early readers achieved higher reading scores during their entire elementary school careers.

In a similar but later study conducted in Illinois with four-year-old children, Durkin did not reach the same con-

clusions. In this study, early readers who had been trained in a special two-year preschool language arts/reading program scored significantly higher than did their non-early reading classmates on standardized reading tests in grades one and two, but the differences between the two groups were not statistically significant in grades three and four. Durkin hypothesized that a family that fostered preschool reading ability would probably continue to foster achievement, with or without school instruction. Another possible explanation may lie in the analysis of test data. Durkin's original data analysis did not take into account the phenomenon of increased variance in the scores of the upper-grade students. A re-analysis of the data might indeed show that the early readers did out-perform non-early readers even in the later grades.

McKee, Brzeinski and Harrison (1966) reported that kindergarteners who were taught to read were able to sustain their early achievement if the reading program in subsequent years was coordinated with the early program. In another study of kindergarten children, King and Friesen (1972) found that early readers who were selected for the study outperformed non-early readers at the end of the first grade. However, intelligence was not taken into consideration in reporting these findings, and the mean intelligence score of early readers was 115 versus the 104 mean intelligence score of non-early readers.

Objections to early reading

Critics of early reading believe that:

1. Early reading will hurt the child's vision.
2. Parents are not qualified to teach reading.
3. Early readers will be bored in school.
4. Childhood is a time for play, not academics.

One final note on early reading is necessary despite stories and anecdotes to the contrary, young children "do not" learn to read by themselves (Durkin, 1966).

Interviews with parents of early readers uncovered these characteristics:

1. The parents converse a great deal with their children.
2. Early readers tend to ask many questions.
3. Parents of early readers take the time to answer their questions.
4. A very common question is "What's that word?"

Allocated Time

Of all the things a principal can do to improve reading instruction, nothing is more simple, more obvious, or more effective than merely seeing to it that teachers have time to teach and that they are aware of the importance of this factor. The number of engaged minutes is limited by the

amount of allocated time. That is, if a principal or a teacher only allocates 60 minutes per day to reading, the maximum amount of engaged time possible is only 60 minutes.

Fisher and others (1978) showed that in the second grade (Table 1, p. 70) an average of 1 hour and 30 minutes per day was allocated to reading and language arts. This increased to 1 hour and 50 minutes in the fifth grade. Overall, about 30% of the school day was allocated to reading and language arts. If we add the time allocated to math, science, and social studies, about 2 hours and 30 minutes were allocated to academic subjects. Another hour per day (or 24%) was allocated to music, art, and physical education.

Fisher and others asked the all important question of the study--"Where does the remaining time go?" In answer to this question, Fisher and others stated that about 45 minutes per day (18%) is allocated to "non-instructional activities," such as waiting between activities, housekeeping (e.g., collecting papers), and transitions (students lining up and taking their seats or moving from one activity or group to another). This relatively high amount of time on noninstructional activities occurred even in those classrooms where teachers obtained the highest number of engaged minutes from their students.

Although the average teacher in second grade allocated 1 hour and 28 minutes per day to all reading activities, there was substantial variation across teachers. The three

TABLE 1. Average allocated time per day in different activities
(Pearson 1984, p. 781)

Time Category	Grade 2			Grade 5		
	Minutes Per Day	Combined Minutes	Combined Percentage	Minutes Per Day	Combined Minutes	Combined Percentage
Academic activities		2 hr 12 min	57%		2 hr 51 min	60%
Reading and language arts	1 hr 28 min			1 hr 50 min		
Mathematics	36 min			44 min		
Other academic	8 min			17 min		
Nonacademic activities	55 min	55 min	24%	1 hr 05 min	1 hr 05 min	23%
Noninstructional activities		44 min	19%		47 min	17%
Transition	34 min			34 min		
Wait	4 min			4 min		
Housekeeping	6 min			9 min		
Major in-class time	3 hr 51 min	3 hr 51 min		4 hr 44 min	4 hr 44 min	
Lunch, recess, breaks	1 hr 15 min	1 hr 15 min		1 hr 17 min	1 hr 17 min	
Length of school day	5 hr 06 min	5 hr 06 min		6 hr 00 min	6 hr 00 min	

highest teachers allocated 1 hour and 54 minutes per day, whereas the three lowest teachers averaged 1 hour. Thus, some classrooms had almost 2 hours per day allocated to reading and language arts, whereas other classrooms had only 1 hour per day. This same variation occurred in the fifth grade. While the average teacher allocated 1 hour and 50 minutes, the three highest teachers allocated 2 hours and 14 minutes, and the three lowest teachers allocated nearly 1 hour less per day--or a total of only 1 hour and 18 minutes.

Academic-engaged minutes

Although the amount of time allocated to academic activities is of significant interest, researchers are more concerned with the number of minutes per day that students actually spend gainfully in academic activities.

The Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES)--Fisher and others (1978) was one of the first to report three important variables:

- a. The average engagement rate of the students (i.e., the percentage of allocated time that students were engaged in academic activities);
- b. The minute per day that students were academically engaged; and
- c. Student engagement rates in different settings.

Overall, the students were engaged in academic activities about 72% of the allocated time, or 43 minutes for each allocated hour. The BTES obtained the academic engaged minutes by multiplying the allocated time by the engagement rate. Thus, if a teacher allocated 22 minutes to reading and language arts each day, and the engagement rate was 73%, then the engaged minutes were 64 minutes per day. Table 2 (p. 73) presents BTES data on the average academic minutes in reading and math in Grade 2 and Grade 5. The data show the three teachers in each grade who had the highest academic-engaged minutes and on the three who had the lowest academic-engaged minutes. The first column presents the allocated time, the second column presents the engagement rate, and the third column presents the number of minutes that the students were actually engaged.

Nonengaged time

As noted above, the students were engaged in academic activities about 73% of the time, or about 43 minutes for each allocated hour. Of the 17 minutes per allocated hour that they were not engaged, about 8 minutes was spent clearly off-task, that is daydreaming, socializing, doodling (scribble idly), not paying attention, sharpening pencils, and the like. The students also spent about 9 minutes each allocated hour in interim and wait activities, such as passing out and

TABLE 2. Highest, average, and lowest teachers in academic-engaged minutes
(Pearson 1984, p. 783)

	Reading			Mathematics			Total Engaged Minutes
	Allocated	Engage-ment Rate	Engaged Minutes	Allocated	Engage-ment Rate	Engaged Minutes	
Second Grade							
High 3	1 hr 45 min	81	1 hr 25 min	35 min	82	30 min	1 hr 55 min
Average	1 hr 30 min	73	1 hr 04 min	36 min	71	26 min	1 hr 30 min
Low 3	1 hr 00 min	72	43 min	30 min	75	22 min	1 hr 05 min
Fifth Grade							
High 3	2 hr 10 min	80	1 hr 45 min	53 min	86	45 min	2 hr 30 min
Average	1 hr 50 min	74	1 hr 20 min	44 min	74	35 min	1 hr 55 min
Low 3	1 hr 25 min	63	1 hr 05 min	38 min	63	22 min	1 hr 25 min

handing in papers and books, putting on headings, waiting for help from the teacher, and waiting for a paper to be graded. Fisher and other researchers noted that a lot of nonengaged time is not simply caused by the uninterest of the students, but that an equal or larger amount is due to the difficult problems of managing, organizing, and supervising 25 individual students.

Wiley and Harnischfeger (1974) reported that mere "exposure to schooling" (including such factors as attendance, length of school day, and length of school year) was a significant contributor to achievement. Gettinger and White (1979) supported this strongly when they reported that "time to learn" is a more significant factor in achievement than is IQ. Yap (1977) indicated that 60 to 70 percent of the variance in reading achievement related to the amount of reading done; only 22% to 25% related to IQ.

In her observation of reading comprehension instruction, Durkin (1978-1979) found that less than 1 percent of the time was actually devoted to instruction.

Students' Reading Levels

From the first reading experience in any classroom, it becomes obvious that not all children in the same grade are reading at the same level. While this fact is common knowledge, due largely to media interest in public school reading

achievement, the actual range of reading levels found in students within a single classroom can be astonishing. According to Goodlad (1966), the "broad spread from high to low achiever steadily increases with the upward movement of heterogeneous classes (relatively homogeneous in chronological age) through the school" (p. 34). He estimates that the range in levels is reflected by the number of years delineated by the grade-level number (third grade, three years). Apparently this holds through for the intermediate grades, while in the junior high grades the range may be approximated by taking two-thirds of the median chronological age. Goodlad states further that in subject areas that allow for outside development such as language arts and recreational reading, the range broadens to one and one-half to two times the number of the grade level.

Hillerich (1983) stated that "we have no accurate test to measure reading level." From Hillerich's viewpoint, we can say with certainty that no group reading test can be used to identify a given child's instructional level. More often than not, group tests overestimate a child's instructional level.

In addition, every test has a "standard error." Different tests will also provide different "reading levels" on the same individual, as a result of differences in interest

appeal--one of the many factors that affect tested "reading level." Testing the same child on a different day can also result in a different score because that youngster differs in interest and effort on motivation on different days.

Since the goal is to match the child with the book at the appropriate reading level, the best way, according to Hillerich, is to use a portion of the book as the test. This testing procedure is that of an "informal reading inventory" (IRI). In trying to determine students' reading levels through this procedure, the examiner (teacher or principal) asks the student to read orally a selection of approximately one-hundred words. The examiner records the error in the oral reading and asks four questions to see if the reader understood what was read. If the student makes more than five oral reading errors in the hundred-word selection (95% accuracy) or misses more than one of the four questions (75% comprehension), then the material is too difficult, and the examiner should try an easier book.

Summary of the Review of Literature and Related Research

The principal of a school has so many roles to play that it is difficult for him/her to get around to all of them. In order that good teaching may take place, he/she has to "manage" and "coordinate" and "supervise" the school programs. The

principal is the leader of the faculty group in its efforts to see that the needs of the pupils and the community are met by what children do in school.

The question, "what is a school principal's role in reading instruction?" has often been the major point of discussion among classroom teachers, reading specialists, and principals themselves. Teachers often feel that their principals know little or nothing about the teaching of reading and have no interest in how reading instruction is practiced in the classroom.

Principals also have some ideas about this entire situation. They consider some teachers too narrow in their approach to the teaching of reading and quite inflexible in meeting the instructional needs of children.

As the instructional leaders of the schools, studies have shown that principals have both the responsibility and the authority to bring about improvements in their reading programs, their faculties, and ultimately in the reading achievement of the pupils in their charge. For this reason, they should seek constantly to upgrade their ability to manage and supervise school reading programs. Principals can encourage effective reading instruction by being familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches most generally used to teach reading, including the directed reading lesson plan, the language experience approach, individualized

reading, systems approach (sequential) and the eclectic approach that combines elements of the first four types.

Over the years many plans have been proposed for grouping pupils into different classes: heterogeneous grouping (grouping of students who are dissimilar in one or more aspects of learning into classes, grades, or other groups) as well as various kinds of homogeneous plans, such as chronological age (classified according to age), achievement grouping, ability grouping and so on. Studies have shown that "wide range" (heterogeneous) grouping is the most successful. However, heterogeneous and homogeneous groupings have their advantages and limitations.

Student achievement in reading is positively affected by placement in materials that produce error rates (2% - 5%)

Parental involvement in the education of their children is encouraged. Parents are encouraged to read to their children as early as possible. However, many critics are opposed to early reading.

Although the amount of time allocated to academic activities is of significant interest, researchers are more concerned with the number of minutes per day that students actually spend gainfully in academic activities.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Selection of the Sample

The sample from which the data for this study were obtained consisted of 478 school principals in Iowa, randomly selected from the 1130 individuals responsible for elementary schools in Iowa. Elementary school principals, superintendent-elementary principals and people serving as elementary principals were randomly selected from public, private and parochial elementary schools of Iowa's 436 school districts. The principals were from elementary schools varying in enrollment and grade. Out of 478 principals randomly selected for the study, 287 principals (60%) were from public schools, 41 (8.6%) from private schools and 150 (31.3%) from parochial schools in Iowa. The principals' administrative responsibilities and the number of years of experience as elementary principal also varied. Two-hundred and thirty-seven male principals (80.3%) participated in the study. Female administrators were only 56 (19.0%).

Development of the Questionnaire

The instrument used to gather the data that were used in this study was a mailed questionnaire developed by Dr. Charles Railsback of Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa. The questionnaire entitled "Iowa State University Elementary School

Questionnaire" was designed specifically for this investigation and was used for data collection.

The questionnaire was divided into three main parts. The first part of the questionnaire contained questions which gave general information about the subjects and the organizational procedures of the reading programs in elementary schools in Iowa. The second part of the questionnaire was the "use of the instructional time" for reading. Included are the following:

1. Time allocated on teachers' schedules.
2. Time allocated to instructional groups.
3. Frequency and time of day groups are taught.
4. Percent of time students have academic learning time.
5. Variation of time for different ability levels.
6. Parental involvement in a child's instructional program.

The third part of the questionnaire dealt with "monitoring of instruction." Other questions were designed to identify:

1. The school's expectation for students.
2. The use of aptitude and standardized achievement test scores.
3. Presence of biases within the school program.

4. The nature of special assistance to low income students.
5. The procedures used for teachers to call on students for recitation.
6. Special assistance to students falling behind in reading.

The questionnaire was a sixty item questionnaire designed to measure the extent to which principals manage reading programs. For the purpose of this study, twenty-seven (27) questions were used from the "Iowa State University Elementary School Study Questionnaire" (see questions 1, 2, 4-9, 11, 14-16, 18-21, 24-27, 36, 38, 39, 41, 42, 45, and 48, Appendix A).

Collection of the Data

A questionnaire was developed concerning the procedures used by Iowa's elementary principals in managing the reading programs. After the questionnaire had been developed, support and approval for the research from the Board of Directors of the Educational Administrators of Iowa was received. The Board of Directors also sent 1,130 printed address labels of principals from Iowa School districts.

As soon as the study had been approved, the questionnaire was piloted in approximately five elementary schools. The questionnaire was then modified based upon suggestions

from the pilot administration. A stratified random sample of elementary principals in Iowa was then selected to receive the questionnaire.

A total of 478 questionnaires were mailed to randomly selected elementary principals in order to identify the current management practices of the principals regarding elementary reading instructional programs. A cover letter guaranteeing anonymity, detailing the purpose and use of the data being collected was attached to each mailed questionnaire. A stamped addressed envelope was included for the return of the questionnaire. Respondents returned the questionnaire. Principals who did not return their questionnaires on or before the date indicated in the cover letter, were sent a follow-up letter which contained a cover letter, a return, self-addressed envelope and a second copy of the questionnaire.

A second mailing of the questionnaire included 150 parochial elementary school principals in Iowa who were unintentionally excluded in the first mailing. Out of 478 reading questionnaires mailed to Iowa elementary principals, a total of 295 questionnaires (61.7%) were returned. Some returned the questionnaire unanswered. One noted that the questionnaire was too lengthy to expect an answer and that "a sizable pizza and some bottles of beer should have been attached to a questionnaire of such magnitude."

Treatment of the Data

The responses from the twenty-seven questions chosen for this study were coded by three graduate research assistants of Iowa State University's Professional Studies in Education. A coding scheme was devised by the Research Institute for Studies in Education (RISE) headed by Beth Ruiz. The responses were coded numerically and the data keypunched at Key Entry and Unit Record (Computer Center) at Iowa State University. Any errors found in coding were corrected by Beth Ruiz and re-typed through the Wylbur Terminal.

Method of Analysis

The data from the study were statistically analyzed. There were two steps in the data analysis, 1) preliminary, and 2) hypotheses testing. The preliminary analysis included frequency counts and percentages. This was done by Iowa State University Computation Center. In step two, chi-square was used to test the hypotheses. The following thirteen (13) null hypotheses were finally tested in the study:

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between the role-assignment of principals and the principals' instructional management practices used in assigning students to teachers.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between years of teaching experience of the principal and the instructional management practices used in assigning students to their teachers.

- Null Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the school.
- Null Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.
- Null Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.
- Null Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.
- Null Hypothesis 7: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the number of teachers they supervised.
- Null Hypothesis 8: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.
- Null Hypothesis 9: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.

- Null Hypothesis 10: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.
- Null Hypothesis 11: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the school.
- Null Hypothesis 12: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and principals' role in the district.
- Null Hypotheses 13: There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.

The chi-square statistical test was used to determine if there were significant relationships in the responses of principals between various aspects such as their role assignment, size of school, etc., and the instructional management practices they use in reading programs. All hypotheses were tested in the same way using chi-square for a test of significance and relationship. A five percent level of significance (.05) was selected, based on the appropriate degrees of freedom for any particular comparison. That is, if the calculated chi-square value exceeded the table value at the five percent (.05) level for the appropriate degrees of freedom, the null hypothesis that both samples were drawn from the same popula-

tion and consequently were not significantly different/related, was rejected. The chi-square technique was used to determine whether there was a significant difference/relationship between the observed (O) and expected frequencies (E) in the cells. The actual chi-square calculations were computed on Wylbur terminals at Iowa State University, using the appropriate chi-square computation formula.

Summary

In this chapter, the following were described:

1. Methods and procedures used for selecting the sample for the study.
2. The development of the instrument used for the study.
3. Collection, treatment, and analysis of the data.
4. Statistical procedures for testing null hypotheses.

CHAPTER IV. FINDINGS

This study was designed to identify the current management practices of Iowa's elementary principals, and the extent to which they perceive certain elements to be impediments to managing that program and to examine environmental factors associated with principals' instructional management of the reading programs. Data were collected through a questionnaire mailed to randomly selected elementary principals in Iowa. The data were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, and the chi-square technique. The results are presented in this chapter.

The chapter is organized into two sections. Section one presents descriptive data about the sample and their perception regarding management of the reading program. The second section, Inferential Data, presents the results of the hypotheses testing.

Descriptive Data

Role

The data in Table 3 indicate that the supervisory role of the principals who responded to the questionnaire varied. The largest number of principals who participated in the study were principals in schools with grade levels K-6 (29%) followed by principals from K-5 grade schools (20%). Twenty-

six percent were not full-time principals. More than a third of those were superintendent-elementary principals. The complete breakdowns are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by position in the district

Position	Frequency	Percent
Principal K-3	7	2.4
Principal K-4	15	5.1
Principal K-5	59	20.0
Principal K-6	86	29.2
Principal K-8	47	15.9
Principal K-12	2	0.7
Supt./Elem. Principal	38	12.9
Sole Administrator	8	2.7
Half Teacher, Half Principal	6	2.0
Other (positions)	27	9.2
TOTAL	295	100.0

Size of school

Data concerning the size of school of the principals, based on the number of people they supervised are presented in Table 4. Eighty-five principals (9%) were from small schools. They supervised twenty teachers or less (small schools). One hundred and twenty-six principals (43%) supervised 21 to 35 teachers. These were categorized as medium size schools. Eighty-four principals (28.5%) were from large schools. They supervised from 35 to 50 teachers.

Table 4. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by size of school

Size of School-Teacher Supervised	Frequency	Percent
Small = (5-20 teachers)	85	28.8
Medium = (21-35 teachers)	126	42.7
Large = (36-50 teachers)	84	28.5
TOTAL	295	100.0

Size of the school district

The size of the school district was determined by the number of buildings in the district. Data concerning the number of elementary buildings in the district are presented in Table 5. The responding principals came from the school districts varying in number of buildings from 1 to more than 15. Small school districts, those that had 1 to 2 elementary

buildings, had the largest number of principals (53%). Ninety-seven principals (33%) were from school districts that had seven to fifteen elementary buildings, while thirty-two principals (11%), those with more than 14 elementary buildings, were from large school districts.

Table 5. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by the number of elementary buildings in the district

Size of District-Number of Buildings	Frequency	Percent
Small = (1-6 Buildings)	156	52.9
Medium = (7-15 Buildings)	97	32.9
Large = (15 or more Buildings)	32	10.8
No Response	10	3.4
TOTAL	295	100.0

Years of experience

The number of years of experience of the principals is shown in Table 6. The years of experience of the principals ranged from 1-34 years. The majority of the principals (56%) had more than 11 years of experience as a principal. Fifty-one (51) principals (17%) had 6 to 10 years of experience while eighty (80) principals (27%) reported they had less than 5 years of experience as an elementary principal.

Table 6. Frequency distribution of responding principals categorized by years of experience as elementary principals

Years of Experience as Elementary Principal	Frequency	Percent
1-5	80	27.1
6-10	51	17.3
11-34	164	55.6
TOTAL	295	100.0

Strategies for assigning students to teachers

The respondents were asked how students were assigned to their teachers for reading. Data showing the strategies for assigning students to their teachers are presented in Table 7. Sixty-one principals (21%) reported they alone assign students to teachers. One hundred and fifty-nine (159) principals (54%) reported they did it in conjunction with the teacher. Twenty-six principals (9%) entrusted the responsibility of assigning students to teachers to "last year's teacher" while five principals (2%) entrusted it to the teacher independently. Thirty-eight principals (13%) used other strategies and six principals (2%) did not answer the question.

Table 7. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by strategies for assigning students to their teachers

Strategies for Assigning Students to Teachers	Frequency	Percent
Principal	61	20.7
Principal-Teacher	159	53.9
Last Year's Teacher	26	8.8
Next Year's Teacher	5	1.7
Other (strategies)	38	12.9
No Response	6	2.0
TOTAL	295	100.0

Procedures used to determine students' reading levels

The respondents were asked how students' reading levels were determined at the beginning of a school year. They were given a number of procedures and asked to respond "yes" if they used them or "no" if they did not. Data showing principals' response to procedures they use in determining students' reading levels are presented in Table 8. Fourteen principals (4.7%) reported they used "grade level assignment" to determine students' reading levels while two hundred and eighty-one (281) principals (95.3%) did not. Two hundred and sixty-two (262) principals (88.8%) said they did it by "continuing from where the student left off in the reading program the previous year" while thirty-three (33) principals (11.2%) did not use this strategy. One hundred and seventeen (117) principals (39.7%) reported they "administered Informal Reading Inventory" (IRI) to students while one hundred and seventy-eight (178) principals (60.3%) did not. One hundred and forty-two (142) principals (48.1%) reported they used "Tests from Reading Series" to determine students' reading levels, while one hundred and fifty-three (153) principals (51.9%) did not. Seventy (70) principals (23.7%) reported they determined students' reading levels on the basis of "reading grade from the past year" while two hundred and twenty-five (225) principals (76.3%) did not.

Table 8. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by procedures used to determine students' reading levels

Instructional Management Practices-Students' Reading Levels	Frequency	Percent
Grade Level Assignment:		
Yes	14	4.7
No	281	95.3
Total	295	100.0
Continuation from Previous Year:		
Yes	262	88.8
No	33	11.2
Total	295	100.0
Informal Reading Inventory administered:		
Yes	117	39.7
No	178	60.3
Total	295	100.0
Tests from Reading Series:		
Yes	142	48.1
No	153	51.9
Total	295	100.0
Reading Grade from Last Year:		
Yes	70	23.7
No	225	76.3
Total	295	100.0

Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management

The principals were asked if having to deal with student discipline was an impediment to instructional management. The data showing principals' response to student discipline as an

impediment to instructional management of the reading program are presented in Table 9. Sixty-one (61) principals (21%) said student discipline was an impediment to managing the reading program.

Table 9. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by principals' perception of discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

Student Discipline- Impediment	Frequency	Percent
Yes	61	20.7
No	234	79.3
TOTAL	295	100.0

Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management

The respondents were asked if having to spend time improving the curriculum was an impediment to managing the reading program. Table 10 shows that forty-eight (48) principals (16%) reported curriculum improvement was an impediment to managing the reading programs.

Table 10. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

Curriculum Improvement- Impediment	Frequency	Percent
Yes	48	16.3
No	247	83.7
TOTAL	295	100.0

Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

Principals were asked if having to deal with non-instructional building tasks was an impediment to managing the reading program. The data showing principals' response to non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to managing reading programs are presented in Table 11. Slightly more than half (52%) reported non-instructional building tasks were impediments to managing reading programs.

Table 11. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

Non-Instructional Building Tasks-Impediment	Frequency	Percent
Yes	153	51.9
No	142	48.1
TOTAL	295	100.0

Principals' perception of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

The respondents were asked if being involved in other district administration tasks was an impediment to managing the reading program. Table 12 shows that slightly less than half of the principals (49%) reported other district administration tasks as being an impediment to managing reading programs.

Table 12. Frequency distribution of principals categorized by other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program

Other District Administration Tasks-Impediment	Frequency	Percent
Yes	143	48.5
No	152	51.5
TOTAL	295	100.0

Inferential Data

Testing of the hypotheses

The findings related to the hypotheses formulated for this study are discussed in this section. Fifteen hypotheses were formulated to test the propositions put forth in this study. Due to coding problems, two hypotheses subsequently were not tested. Hypotheses 14 and 15 were connected with the instructional management task--"assigns students to reading levels." Respondents were asked to evaluate how they assigned students to reading levels and provided five strategies for assigning students. One of the strategies, ". . . by grade level only" was clearly an inappropriate method. Only five percent of the principals reported they did it this way. Each of the remaining four choices had merit. One, is not a positive strategy for assignment if it is the sole method. It involves using last year's reading grade as the deciding factor. While twenty-three percent reported they used this practice, nearly all of these also employed another positive strategy. Thus, only six percent of the respondents could be used to test the hypotheses--a number too small for statistical testing.

The statistical technique used for testing the 13 hypotheses was chi-square. The chi-square - goodness of fit program was used for the necessary calculations for these tests. In testing the null hypotheses, the researcher asked

"Are the observed frequencies sufficiently different from the expected frequencies to justify rejection of the null hypotheses?" The chi-square test provided the researcher with a statistic based on the differences between observed and expected frequencies. The researcher set ($p = .05$) as the level of significance.

Null Hypothesis 1. There is no significant relationship between the role assignment of the principals and instructional management practices used in assigning students to teachers.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between being a full-time principal and instructional management practices in reading represented by the way students are assigned to teachers. Table 13 shows that the proportion of full-time principals who used instructional management practices in assigning teachers (48%) did not differ significantly from the proportion of those of superintendent-elementary principals who used those practices (48%). (Chi-square = 3.84, $df = 1$, $p > .97$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 13. Full-time principals and superintendent-elementary principals categorized by instructional management practices for assigning students to teachers

Instructional Management Practices	Principal (Pct) ^a	Supt.-elementary Principal (Pct) ^a	Total Number (Pct) ^a
Instructional Management	73 (48.3)	12 (48.0)	85 (48.3)
Non-instructional Management	78 (51.7)	13 (52.0)	91 (51.7)
TOTAL	151 (100.0)	25 (100.0)	176 (100.0)
Chi-square = 3.84		Significance = 0.97	

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 2. There is no significant relationship between years of teaching experience of the principal and the instructional management practices used in assigning students to their teachers.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between years of teaching experience of the principals and the instructional management practices they use in assigning students to their teachers. Table 14 shows there was very little difference between the groups. Slightly more experienced principals reported using instructional practices (47%) than the other two groups (52 and 51 percent, respectively). (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, $p > .78$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 14. Years of teaching experience of the principals categorized by instructional management practices for assigning students to their teachers

Instructional Management Practices	Years of Teaching Experience			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	(1-5 years) (Pct) ^a	(6-10 years) (Pct) ^a	(11-34 years) (Pct) ^a	
Instructional Management	28 (51.9)	19 (51.4)	48 (46.6)	95 (49.0)
Non-instructional Management	26 (48.1)	18 (48.6)	55 (53.4)	99 (51.0)
TOTAL	54 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	103 (100.0)	194 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = 0.78		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 3. There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the school.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of the school. The data showing principals' responses to student discipline as an impediment to instructional management categorized by size of their school are presented in Table 15. The proportion of principals from large schools who saw student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program significantly exceeded the proportion of principals from small

or medium size schools. (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, p < .04.)

Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 15. Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of school

Student Discipline- Impediment	Size of School-Teacher Supervised			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (5-20) (Pct) ^a	Medium (21-35) (Pct) ^a	Large (36-50) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	12 (14.1)	24 (19.0)	25 (29.8)	61 (20.7)
No	73 (85.9)	102 (81.0)	59 (70.2)	234 (79.3)
TOTAL	85 (100.0)	126 (100.0)	84 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .04		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 4. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district, (i.e., number of elementary buildings in the district).

The hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of the school district they work in. Table 16 shows the proportion of principals in medium size school districts who said that student

discipline was an impediment to instructional management of the reading program was 23 percent compared to 15 percent in small districts and 3 percent in large districts. The difference between the groups was significant. (Chi-square = 5.99, $df = 2$, $p < .03$.) Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 16. Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of the district

Student Discipline- Impediment	Size of District - Number of Buildings			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (1-6) (Pct) ^a	Medium (7-15) (Pct) ^a	Large (>15) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	23 (14.7)	22 (22.7)	1 (3.1)	46 (16.1)
No	133 (85.3)	75 (77.3)	31 (96.9)	239 (83.9)
TOTAL	156 (100.0)	97 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	285 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .03		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 5. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and years of experience as a

principal. Table 17 shows that the perceptions of the three groups were very similar. While principals with 6-10 years (24%) were more likely to view it as an impediment, the other two groups did not see it much differently (21% and 18%, respectively). (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, $p > .67$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 17. Principals' perception of student discipline as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal

Student Discipline- Impediment	Years of Experience as Elementary Principal			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	(1-5 years) (Pct) ^a	(6-10 years) (Pct) ^a	(11-34 years) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	14 (17.5)	12 (23.5)	35 (21.3)	61 (20.7)
No	66 (82.5)	39 (76.5)	129 (78.7)	234 (79.3)
TOTAL	80 (100.0)	51 (100.0)	164 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .67		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 6. There is no significant relationship between the principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine whether a significant relationship existed between principals who see curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional

management of the reading program and their years of experience as principals. Table 18 shows that the percentage of principals with 11-34 years of experience as a principal were more likely to see curriculum improvement as an impediment was highest (20%) and the newest principals lowest (14%) but the differences were not significant. (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, $p > .20$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 18. Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal

Curriculum Improvement- Impediment	Years of Experience as Elementary Principal			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	(1-5 years) (Pct) ^a	(6-10 years) (Pct) ^a	(11-34 years) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	11 (13.8)	5 (9.8)	32 (19.5)	48 (16.3)
No	69 (86.2)	46 (90.2)	132 (80.5)	247 (83.7)
TOTAL	80 (100.0)	51 (100.0)	164 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .20		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 7. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the number of teachers supervised.

This null hypothesis was tested to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see

curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the number of teachers they supervised. Table 19 shows that there was less than two percent difference between the groups and that the differences were not significant. (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, $p > .96$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 19. Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the number of teachers supervised

Curriculum Improvement- Impediment	Size of School- Number of Teachers Supervised			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Few (5-20) (Pct) ^a	Average (21-35) (Pct) ^a	Many (36-50) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	13 (15.3)	21 (16.7)	14 (16.7)	48 (16.3)
No	72 (84.7)	105 (83.3)	70 (83.3)	247 (83.7)
TOTAL	85 (100.0)	126 (100.0)	84 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .96		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 8. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their district.

This hypothesis was tested to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see curriculum

improvement as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of their district. Table 20 shows that the perceptions of principals who see curricular improvement as an impediment is highest in the large districts (31%) and lowest in the small districts (16%). The differences, however, were not significant. (Chi-square = 5.99, $df = 2$, $p > .09$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 20. Principals' perception of curriculum improvement as an impediment to instructional management categorized by size of district

Curriculum Improvement-Impediment	Size of District-Number of Buildings			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (1-6) (Pct) ^a	Medium (7-15) (Pct) ^a	Large (>15) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	25 (16.0)	23 (23.7)	10 (31.3)	58 (20.4)
No	131 (84.0)	74 (76.3)	22 (68.7)	227 (79.6)
TOTAL	156 (100.0)	97 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	285 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .09		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 9. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and years of experience as a principal.

The researcher tested this null hypothesis to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and their years of experience. Table 21 shows that a greater proportion of the less experienced principals (58%) reported non-instructional building tasks as an impediment than did the most experienced (53%) or those with 6-10 years (39%). The differences, however were not significant. (Chi-square = 5.99, $df = 2$, $p > .11$.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 21. Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by years of experience as a principal

Non-instructional Building Tasks as an Impediment	Years of Experience as a Principal			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	(1-5 yrs.) (Pct) ^a	(6-10 yrs.) (Pct) ^a	(11-34 yrs.) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	46 (57.5)	20 (39.2)	87 (53.0)	153 (51.9)
No	34 (42.5)	31 (60.8)	77 (47.0)	142 (48.1)
TOTAL	80 (100.0)	51 (100.0)	164 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .11		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 10. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of the district.

The researcher tested this hypothesis to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of the district. Table 22 shows the proportion of principals from medium size districts (64%) who saw non-instructional building tasks as an impediment was significantly higher than those from small or large districts (49% and 31%, respectively). (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, p < .003.) Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 22. Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of district

Non-instructional Building Tasks as Impediment	Size of District			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (1-6) (Pct) ^a	Medium (7-15) (Pct) ^a	Large (>15) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	77 (49.4)	62 (63.9)	10 (31.3)	149 (52.3)
No	79 (50.6)	35 (36.1)	22 (68.7)	136 (47.7)
TOTAL	156 (100.0)	97 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	285 ^b (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .003		

^aRepresent column percentages.

^bAfter recoding, two categories were eliminated. The number of respondents was therefore reduced to 285.

Null Hypothesis 11. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their school.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of their school. Table 23 shows there is very little difference in the perception of principals when school size is considered. The medium size schools were slightly more likely to see non-instructional building tasks as an impediment. (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, p > .86.) Therefore the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 23. Principals' perception of non-instructional building tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of their school

Non-instructional Building Tasks as an Impediment	Size of School-Teachers Supervised			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (5-20) (Pct) ^a	Medium (21-25) (Pct) ^a	Large (36-50) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	46 (54.1)	65 (51.6)	42 (50.0)	153 (51.9)
No	39 (45.9)	61 (48.4)	42 (50.0)	142 (48.1)
TOTAL	85 (100.0)	126 (100.0)	84 (100.0)	295 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = 0.86		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Null Hypothesis 12. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and principals' role in the district.

This hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and principals' role in the district. Table 24 shows that a significantly greater proportion of superintendent/principals (80% vs 44%) saw other district administration tasks as an impediment to managing the reading program. (Chi-square = 3.84, df = 1, $p < .00$.) Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 24. Principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by principals' role in the district

Other District Administration Tasks as an Impediment	Role in the District		Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Principal (Pct) ^a	Superintendent-Elementary Principal (Pct) ^a	
Yes	94 (43.5)	37 (80.4)	131 (50.0)
No	122 (56.5)	9 (19.6)	131 (50.0)
TOTAL	216 (100.0)	46 ^b (100.0)	262 (100.0)
Chi-square = 3.84		Significance = .00	

^aRepresent column percentages.

^bSum of superintendent principals and sole administrators

Null Hypothesis 13. There is no significant relationship between principals' perception of the scope of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management and the size of their district.

The hypothesis was formulated to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals who see district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program and the size of their district, i.e., the number of buildings in the district. Table 25 shows the proportion of principals who see other district administration tasks as an impediment is greater in medium size school districts (56%) and least in large districts (31%). The differences approached significance but were not beyond the five percent level specified. (Chi-square = 5.99, df = 2, $p > .06$.) The hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 25. Principals' perception of other district administration tasks as an impediment to instructional management of the reading program categorized by size of the district

Other District Administration Tasks as an Impediment	Size of District - Number of Buildings			Total Number (Pct) ^a
	Small (1-6) (Pct) ^a	Medium (7-15) (Pct) ^a	Large (>15) (Pct) ^a	
Yes	77 (49.4)	54 (55.7)	10 (31.3)	141 (49.5)
No	79 (50.6)	43 (44.3)	22 (68.7)	144 (50.5)
TOTAL	156 (100.0)	97 (100.0)	32 (100.0)	285 (100.0)
Chi-square = 5.99		Significance = .06		

^aRepresent column percentages.

Summary of the Chapter

The results of the findings were presented in this chapter. The null hypotheses were tested and conclusions for each of the thirteen (13) hypotheses were drawn and presented. Four out of thirteen null hypotheses were significant at .05 level and were therefore rejected. A summary and discussion of these findings will be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This chapter summarizes the study, discusses the findings, and presents recommendations for further research.

The intent of the investigation was to determine the strategies that are being used by Iowa's elementary principals in managing reading programs, the perceived impediments to management of the program, and factors related to practices and perceived impediments.

The sample for the study was comprised of elementary principals who were full-time principals, superintendent-principals and half-time principals. Four hundred and seventy-eight (478) principals were randomly selected from the eleven hundred and thirty (1130) principals responsible for managing reading programs in elementary schools in Iowa. Of the four hundred and seventy-eight (478) principals randomly selected for the study, two hundred and ninety-five (295) individuals (62%) returned the questionnaire.

The descriptive data provide some information which has limited implications for practitioners and those who prepare elementary principals. These will be presented and discussed first, followed by a summary and discussion of the results of the testing of the hypotheses examined in the study.

Summary of descriptive data

1. Instructional management practices. Twenty percent of the principals overcontrolled the process of assignment of students to teachers, while ten percent maintained insufficient control. Neither is positive.

2. Determining student reading level. Very few principals used the non positive strategy, "matching grade level to reading level." Most use a number of strategies.

3. Impediments to managing the reading program. Time spent on curriculum improvement and student discipline are perceived as impediments by 15 to 20 percent of Iowa's elementary principals. Nearly half of the 295 principals, however, see time spent handling the day-to-day building level tasks and attending to tasks or attending meetings called by other district officials as impediments.

Summary of hypotheses testing

The hypotheses tested in the study were designed to examine factors related to management of the reading program and perceived impediments. Presented below is a summary of the findings.

1. Neither role assignment nor years of experience are related to the practices principals use in assigning students to teachers.

2. Principals in large schools are more likely to report that student discipline steals time needed for managing the reading program.

3. Significantly more principals in medium size districts saw student discipline getting in the way of managing the reading program.

4. Principals in medium size districts saw non-instructional tasks, student discipline, and other district tasks getting in the way of reading management.

5. Principals who were also superintendents said other district tasks impeded their ability (and time) to manage the reading program.

6. The extent of principals' experience was not related to how they managed the reading program or their perceptions of impediments to managing the program.

Discussion

Research findings can be clear and helpful or muddy and mystifying. These are both. One hoped that most principals involved their teachers in assigning students while not giving up control of the process. One also hoped that elementary principals who assigned students to reading levels used a reading inventory or tests, plus reading scores and other measures. It was generally comforting to learn that if we accept self-reported data, we are in reasonably good stead in these areas. There is obviously still some work to do.

Principals' perceptions of what impedes management of the reading program confirms our suspicions but raises questions. It is obvious that they feel overloaded. Hopefully, the data also reflect that their frustration results from their desire to be instructional leaders but that their desire is being thwarted by the need to supervise the lunchroom, the spate of committees on which they must serve, and other minutia. Some feel devoured by discipline while others feel the press of time consumed by curriculum development. What we don't know is whether their perception reflects the reality of practice. Are these "perceived" impediments or do discipline, district tasks, curricula, and non-instructional tasks really get in the way?

Finally, we come to the bottom line. What makes a difference? Experience? Size of school or district? Role? And to what extent are they related to practice and impediment? Again, some things that appear are clear and confirmatory. Principals who also serve as superintendents (or vice versa) see "other district tasks" as an impediment. The new state standards mandating a principal in each building should cure that. It was not a shock that principals' experience appeared to make little difference. One would posit that practitioners who either do not know what to do or how to do it are not likely to improve practices by not doing them over a larger period of time.

Frankly, there's little in the study to guide practice or research. Self report data are better than none, but still suspect. Perceptions reflect feelings, not practice. While it seemed like a good idea to extract a piece of this large (both in terms of content and sample) study, in truth, it confirmed that quantity of information and respondents do not by themselves make for good research.

Finding that principals in large schools were significantly more likely to see student discipline as an impediment to managing the reading program was also expected. Perhaps adding assistant principals might help principals who have to enforce discipline and apparently have too many students. It is difficult to glean much from the finding that there is no relationship between the size of district and principals' view as to what impedes reading program management. Why should a greater proportion of principals in medium size districts see non-instructional tasks, other district tasks, and student discipline as greater impediments than those in large districts? One could posit that it was because they were in medium size schools and were without assistant principals, but the data show principals in medium size schools were less inclined to report student discipline as an impediment. While there may be something about those principals in medium size schools "causing" the phenomenon, one suspects it is a spurious finding.

Suggestions for Further Research

If one learned anything from this research, it is that one must ask the right questions and find the right way to seek the answers. Below are suggestions for exploring the instructional management of reading programs.

1. We need to go beyond perception and self-reports. Research needs to be done in what principals are actually doing to manage reading programs.
2. We need to identify effective instructional practices for managing the reading program and identify the extent to which these practices are utilized.
3. We need to examine whether positive instructional practices for managing reading programs are being taught in preparation programs or provided through in-service.

REFERENCES

- A Critique of which School Resources Help Learning? Efficiency and Equity in Philadelphia Public Schools. (1975). Philadelphia: The School District of Philadelphia Office of Research and Evaluation.
- Aldridge, T. E. (1973). The Elementary Principal as an Instruction Leader for Reading Instruction. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.
- Amor, D. and others. (1976). Analysis of the School Preferred Reading Program in Selected Los Angeles Minority Schools. Santa Monica: The Rand Corporation.
- Anderson, R. C., and Biddle, W. B. (1975). On Asking Pupils Questions on What They are Reading. In G. H. Bower (Ed.), The Psychology of Learning and Motivation (Vol. 9). New York: Academic Press.
- Artley, A. S. (1975). Good Teachers of Reading Who are They? Reading Teacher, 29, 26-31.
- Austin, G. R. (1981). Exemplary Schools and Their Identification. New Directions for Testing and Measurement, 10, 31-48.
- Avery, P. (1972). The Obligations of School Administrators to the Reading Program. In T. Carlson (Ed.), Administrators and Reading. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Jovanovich.
- Barke, W. (1965). Grouping For Instruction. In Teaching Reading: Selected Materials (pp. 297-298). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Barr, R. C. (1973-1974). Instructional Pace Differences and Their Effect on Reading Acquisition. Reading Research Quarterly, 9, 526-554.
- Barr, R. C. (1975). How Children Are Taught to Read: Grouping and Pacing. School Review, 83, 479-498.
- Berliner, D. C. (1981). Academic Learning Time and Reading Achievement. In J. T. Guthrie (Ed.), Comprehension and Teaching: Research Views. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association.

- Bernard, D., and Hetzel, R. W. (1976). The Principal's Role in Reading Instruction. Reading Teacher, 29, 386-388.
- Betts, E. (1973). What is Individualized Reading? Reading Teacher, 26, 678-679.
- Betts, E. A. (1946). Foundations of Reading Instruction. New York: American Book Company.
- Bocks, William M. (1977, February). New Promotion: A Year to Grow? Educational Leadership, 34, 379-383.
- Bond, G., and Dykstra, R. (1967). The Corporative Research Program in First Grade Reading Instruction. Reading Research Quarterly, 2, 5-142.
- Bradtmueller, W., and Egan, J. (1981). Perceptions of the Principal's Role in Reading Instruction. Journal of Association for the Study of Perception, 16, 19-26.
- Brookover, W. B., and Lezotte, L. W. (1979). Change in School Characteristics Coincident with Changes in Student Achievement. (Occasional Paper NO. 17). East Lansing: The Institute for Research on Teaching.
- Cohen, S. (1969). Local Control and the Cultural Deprivation Fallacy. Phi Delta Kappan, 50, 255-259.
- Cox, B. I. (1978). An Investigation of the Elementary School Principal as the Instructional Leader of the Reading Program. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, East Texas State University, Commerce.
- DeGuire, Michael R. (1980). The Role of the Elementary Principal in Influencing Reading Achievement. Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Colorado at Boulder. Dissertation Abstracts International, 41, 04-A, 1299.
- Doucette, J., and St. Pierre, R. (1977). Anchor Test Study: Correlates of Fifth Grade Reading Achievement. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service, NO. ED 141 418).
- Durkin, D. (1966). Children Who Read Early: Two Longitudinal Studies. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

- Durkin, D. (1974a). After Ten Years Where Are We Now In Reading? Reading Teacher, 25, 262-267.
- Durkin, D. (1974b). Teaching Them to Read. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Durkin, D. (1978-1979). What Classroom Observations Reveal about Reading Comprehension. Reading Research Quarterly, 14, 481-533.
- Eberwein, L. (1972). A Comparison of a Flexible Grouping Plan with a Three-Group Achievement Plan in Fourth Grade Reading Instruction. Journal of Educational Research, 66, 169-174.
- Eder, D. (1981). The Ability Grouping As a Self-Fulfilling Prophecy: A Micro-Analysis of Teacher-Student Interaction. Sociology of Education, 54, 151-163.
- Esposito, D. (1973). Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Ability Grouping: Principal Findings and Implications for Evaluating and Designing More Effective Educational Environments. Review of Educational Research, 43, 163-179.
- Fisher, C. W., Filby, N. N., Marliave, R., Cohen, L. S., Dishaw, M. M., Moore, J. E., and Berliner, D. C. (1978). Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time, and Student Achievement: Final Report of Phase III-B, Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. San Francisco: Far West Educational Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.
- Gambrell, L. B., Wilson, R. M., and Grant, W. N. (1981). Classroom Observations of Task-Attending Behaviors of Good and Poor Readers. Journal of Educational Research, 24, 400-404.
- Gehring, R. D. (1977). An Investigation of the Knowledge of Clark County, Nevada Elementary School Principals about the Teaching of Reading in the Primary Grades. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Colorado, Boulder.
- Gersten, R., Carnine, D., and Green, S. (1982). The Principal as Instructional Leader: A Second Look. Educational Leadership, 40 (4), 41-46.

- Gervais, Robert L. (1982). How Do Principals Affect Reading Achievement? PTA Today, February, 7, 25.
- Gettinger, M., and White, M. A. (1979). Which is stronger Correlate of School Learning? Time to Learn or Measured Intelligence? Journal of Educational Psychology, 71, 405-412.
- Goldberg, M., Passow, A. H. and Justman, J. (1966). The Effects of Ability Grouping. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Goodlad, J. I. (1966). School, Curriculum and the Individual. Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Company.
- Hart, S. (1982). Analyzing the Social Organization for Reading in One Elementary School. In G. D. Splinder (Ed.), Doing the Ethnography of Schooling: Educational Anthropology in Action. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Heathers, G. (1972). Overview of Innovations in Organizing for Learning. Interchange, 3, 47-68.
- Heim, J., and Perl, L. (1974). The Educational Production Function: Implications for Educational Man Power Policy. IPE Monograph (Ithaca: Institute of Public Employment, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University), 4, 25-26.
- Helms, D. C., and Heller, B. (1985). Using Research to Improve Instructional Effectiveness, Evolution of Achievement-Directed Leadership. (ERIC ED 262 915).
- Hillerich, R. L. (1983). The Principal's Guide to Improving Reading Instruction. (1983, pp. 200-202). Newton, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Houts, P. (1975). The Changing Role of the Elementary School Principal: Report of a Conference. National Elementary Principal, 55, 62-73.
- Jackson, D., and Pearson, P. (1975). Skills Management Systems: A Critique. Reading Teacher, 28, 757-764.
- Jorgenson, G. W. (1977). Relationship of Classroom Behavior to the Accuracy of the Match Between Material Difficulty and Student Ability. Journal of Educational Psychology, 69, 24-32.

- Kean, M., Summers, A., Raivetz, M., and Farber, I. (1979). What Works in Reading. Office of Research and Evaluation, School District of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania/Federal Reserve Bank, Pennsylvania.
- King, E. M., and Friesen, D. I. (1972, September). Children Who Read in Kindergarten. Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 18, 147-161.
- Lamme, L. L. (1976). Self-Contained to Departmentalized: How Reading Habits Changed. Elementary School Journal. 76, 208-218.
- Manning, G. L., and Manning, J. (1981). What is the Role of the Principal in the Excellent Reading Program? Principals Give Their Views. Reading World, 21, 130-133.
- Mazurkiewicz, Albert J. (1968). New Perspective in Reading Instruction. New York: Pitman Publishing Corporation.
- McHugh, W. (1967). Stimulating Professional Staff Development. In T. Carlson (Ed.), Administrators and Reading. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.
- McHugh, W. (1972). Current Administrative Problems in Reading. In P. Berg and J. George (Eds.), Highlights of the Pre-Convention Institutes (p. 164). Newark, Del.: International Reading Association.
- McKee, D., Brzeinski, J., and Harrison, L. (1966). The Effectiveness of Teaching Reading in Kindergarten (Cooperative Research Project NO. 5-1371). Denver, Co.: Denver Public Schools and Colorado State Department of Education.
- McNinch, G. H., and Richmond, M. (1981). Defining the Principals' Roles in Reading Instruction. Reading Improvement, 18, 235-242.
- Mississippi Educational Assessment Program. (1977). Pupil Achievement in Mississippi Schools. Jackson: State Department of Education.
- Moody, L., and Amos, Neil G. (1975). The Impact of Principal Involvement in Instructional Planning with Teacher Teams on Academic Achievement of Elementary School Pupils. Mississippi Bureau of Educational Research, Mississippi State University, Starkville, Mississippi.

- Moss, Kay R. (1985). More than Facilitator: Principal's Job in Educating New and Experienced Reading Teachers. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the National Council of Teachers of English, Houston, Texas, March 28-30. Education Abstract. (ERIC ED 253 856).
- Otto, Wayne and Smith, Richard J. (1970). Administering the School Reading Program. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Panchyshyn, R. (1971). An Investigation of the Knowledge of Elementary School Principals About the Teaching of Reading in the Primary Grades. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Iowa, Iowa City.
- Pearson, David P. (1984). Handbook of Reading Research. New York, N. Y.: Longman, Inc.
- Pflieger, Elmer F. (1949). A Study of Reading Grade Levels. Journal of Educational Research, 42, 541-546.
- Phi Delta Kappan. (1980). The Phi Delta Kappan Study of Exceptional Urban Elementary Schools: Why Do Some Urban Schools Succeed? Bloomington, In: Phi Delta Kappan.
- Pienaar, P. (1977). Breakthrough in Beginning Reading: Language Experience Approach. Reading Teacher, 30, 489-496.
- Rand Corporation. (1976). Reading Progress Linked to Principals. Education U.S.A., 18, 290.
- Roberts, T. (1976). "Frustration Level" Reading in the Infant School. Educational Research, 19, 41-44.
- Rosenshine, B. V. (1979). Content, Time, and Direct Instruction. In P. L. Peterson and H. J. Walberg (Eds.), Research On Teaching: Concepts, Findings and Implications. Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.
- Russell, D. H. (1946). Inter-Class Grouping for Reading Instruction in the Intermediate Grades. Journal of Educational Research, 39, 462-470.
- Sachs, A. W. (1981). The Effects of Three Pre-reading Activities on Learning Disabled Children's Short-Term Reading Comprehension. Dissertation Abstracts International, 42, 15939A. (University Microfilms NO. 81-21, 592).

- Sanacore, J. (1977). Evaluating Administrative Performance in the School Reading Program. Journal of Reading, 20, 312-316.
- School Improvement Project: The Case Study Phase. (1979). Revised Version of the Original Technical case Study Report by the School Improvement Project, New York City Public Schools.
- Shepherd, G. D., and Ragan, W. B. (1982). Modern Elementary Curriculum (6th ed.). New York, New York: CBS College Publishing.
- Sherwood, J. (1977). An Analysis of Basal Reading Programs. Unpublished Specialist's Field Study, University of Mississippi.
- Smith, C., and others. (1978). Teaching Reading in Secondary School Content Subjects: A Book Thinking Process. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Spache, G. (1976). Investigating the Issues of Reading Disabilities. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- SPSS User's Guide. (1981) (2nd ed.). SPSS Inc., Canadian Census Division, Ontario, Canada.
- St. John, W., and Runkel, J. (1977). Professional Development for Principals: The Worst Slum of All? National Elementary Principal, 56, 66-70.
- Stallings, J., Needles, M., and Stayrook, N. (1979). The Teaching of Basic Reading Skills in Secondary Schools Phase II and Phase III. Menlo Park, California: SRI International.
- Stallings, J. (1980). Allocated Academic Learning Time Revisited, or Beyond Time on Task. Educational Researcher, 9, 11-16.
- Summers, A. A., and Wolfe, B. L. (1975). Which School Resources Help Learning? Efficiency and Equity in Philadelphia Public Schools, Federal Reserve Bank of Philadelphia. Business Review, February, p. 14.
- Tikunoff, W. J., Berliner, D. C., and Rist, R. C. (1975). Special Study A: An Ethnographic Study of the Forty Classroom of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study Known Sample (Tech. Rep. 75-10-5). San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

- Vanilla, Salvatore A. (1978). Analysis of Observed Critical Task Performance of Title I-ESEA Principals State of Illinois. Education Doctorate Dissertation, Loyola University.
- Veatch, J., and others. (1974). Key Words to Reading: The Language Experience Approach Begins (2nd ed.). Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
- Venezky, Richard L., and Winfield, Linda F. (1979). Schools That Succeed beyond Expectatons in Teaching Reading (Technical Report NO. 2). Newark, Delaware: Department of Educational Studies, University of Delaware, August 9.
- Weber, G. (1971). Inner-City Children Can Be Taught to Read: Four Successful Schools. Washington, D. C.: Council for Basic Education.
- What's Behind the Reading Score? (1953, January). Elementary English, 30, 1-7.
- White, R. E. (1981). The Effects of Organization Thomas and Adjunct Placements on Childrens' Prose Learning: A Developmental Perspective. Dissertation Abstracts International, 42, 2042A-2043A.
- Wiley, D., and Harnischfeger, A. (1976). Explosion of a Myth: Quantity of Schooling and Exposure to Instruction, Major Educational Vehicles. Educational Researcher, 3, 7-1.
- Wilkinson, L. C., and Calculator, S. (1982). Requests and Responses in Peer-Directed Reading Groups. American Educational Research Journal, 19, 107-120.
- Wurtz, B. J. (1975). Supervisory Involvement of the Principals in the Reading Program. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, Madison.
- Yap, K. O. (1977). Relationship between Amount of Reading Activity and Reading Achievement. Reading World, 17, 23-29.
- Zinski, R. J. (1975). The Elementary School Principal and the Administration of a Total Reading Program. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation for the support that numerous people provided during the preparation of this study. I wish to thank the faculty and staff in the Department of Professional Studies in Education at Iowa State University of Science and Technology. Specifically, my thanks go to Dr. Larry Ebbers, Chair of the Department, for giving me assistantship and support to finish the study. Also, I wish to thank in a special way Dr. James E. Sweeney, my major professor and moderator of my dissertation for his continued advice, patience, encouragement and unwavering support. I needed a lot of guidance and advice. Thanks to Dr. Ross Engel, Dr. Norman Boyles, Dr. Geoffrey Abelson, and Dr. Harold McNabb, Jr. for serving on my committee and for your advice, incentive, and assistance in planning and conducting the study.

Sincere gratitude is also extended to Beth Ruiz for her assistance in computing the data.

Thank you very much Mary Duffy and LeAnn Paulsen, my typists, for your patience, kindness, and hard work in the arduous task of typing and retyping you did.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends Dr. Victor Okereke and Paul Hillyer who provided me with the information I needed for the study, and all those individuals who gave me

permission to use their publications. Special thanks are directed to Dr. Charles Railsback of Iowa State University for his unconditional permission to use his questionnaire for the study and for his valuable suggestions and support in the production of this manuscript.

APPENDIX A. IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDY
QUESTIONNAIRE

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

*1. What is your position in the district?

- 1. Principal, K-3
- 2. Principal, K-4
- 3. Principal, K-5
- 4. Principal, K-6
- 5. Principal, K-8
- 6. Principal, K-12
- 7. Principal, 4-8
- 8. Principal, 5-8
- 9. Superintendent-elementary principal
- 10. Superintendent-principal, K-12 (sole administrator)
- 11. Half-time elementary principal, half-time teacher
- 12. Other (describe) _____

*2. In how many buildings are you directly in charge of the elementary program?

- A. One
- B. Two
- C. Three
- D. Other (describe) _____

3. If you are in charge of more than one building, please answer the questionnaire on the basis of information about the school to which this study was addressed. For this school circle the number of class sections you have in each grade, then list the total number of students in each grade housed in the building.

Grade level	Sections per grade	Number of students in each grade
K	1 2 3 4 5	K _____
1	1 2 3 4 5	1 _____
2	1 2 3 4 5	2 _____
3	1 2 3 4 5	3 _____
4	1 2 3 4 5	4 _____
5	1 2 3 4 5	5 _____
6	1 2 3 4 5	6 _____

*4. Is this a public school? 1. Public 2. Parochial 3. Private

*5. How many people, full or part-time, certified and non-certified do you directly supervise?

- A. 5-10 D. 21-25 G. 36-40 More than 50 (give number) _____
- B. 11-15 E. 26-30 H. 41-45
- C. 16-20 F. 31-35 I. 46-50

*6. What is the total number of elementary buildings in your district?

- A. 1-2 C. 5-6 E. 9-10 G. 13-15
- B. 3-4 D. 7-8 F. 11-12 H. over 15 (give number)

*7. Do you have any teaching responsibilities? 1. No 2. Yes Indicate the average number of hours per day _____

*8. For how many years have you served in the role of elementary principal? _____

*9. For how many years were you a teacher?

- A. 1-2 C. 5-6 E. 9-10 G. 13-15
- B. 3-4 D. 7-8 F. 11-12 H. over 15 (give number)

10. What grade level or subject did you teach? _____

* 11. What is your gender? A. Female B. Male

For each question below, first mark the responses that represent actual practice in your school. Mark these responses by putting a check or "x" on the line in front of the lettered statements that describe your school's practice. For most questions more than one response may be marked.

After responding to each item please use a red pencil or pen to circle the question numbers representing an area in which you feel principals desire additional training. On the last page there is a place for you to list other topics you think should be addressed in inservice or university courses that are not mentioned on the questionnaire.

Part I. General Organization

12. What type of organization do you use at each grade level? Please check the appropriate boxes on the table.

Type of organization	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Self-contained (students are assigned to one home room teacher)						
Departmentalization (different teachers like in a high school)						
Team teaching						
Other (specify)						

If you use team teaching or some other type of organization please explain what you use. _____

13. If you are dissatisfied with your present method of organization please indicate why. _____

* 14. Who assigns students to their new teacher for the fall term?

- 1. The principal works out the assignments
- 2. Last year's teachers make the assignments
- 3. The principal, based upon recommendations from last year's teacher, makes the assignments
- 4. Next fall's teachers select their own students
- 5. Other (describe)

* 15. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures for assigning students please indicate why. _____

* 16. What is the predominant basis upon which students are assigned to home rooms for the following year? (Select only one response)

- 1. Progress in the reading curriculum
- 2. Progress in the reading curriculum, adjusted for other factors
- 3. Pure random assignment
- 4. Random with adjustments for such things as boy/girl ratio, and special problems
- 5. On the basis of parent request
- 6. Other (describe)

17. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures for assigning students to home rooms please indicate why.

* 18. Do you ever double promote students? For example, at the end of first grade a student is promoted to third grade instead of second or, you advance a child to the next grade during the school year

1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Other (describe) _____

* 19. In a typical school year, for how many students would double promotion be considered?

- A. none D. 5-6 G. 11-12
 B. 1-2 E. 7-8 H. 13-14
 C. 3-4 F. 9-10 I. 15-16

* 20. Of the number of students considered in a year, typically how many are actually double promoted?

- A. none D. 5-6 G. 11-12
 B. 1-2 E. 7-8 H. 13-14
 C. 3-4 F. 9-10 I. 15-16

* 21. Of the students you double promote, do they tend to be from certain grade levels? If so which?

- A. Kdg C. 2nd E. 4th G. 6th I. 8th
 B. 1st D. 3rd F. 5th H. 7th

22. If you were to consider whether a child should be double promoted, what criteria would be used?

1. Age of the child when he/she entered school
 2. Sex of the child
 3. Physical size
 4. Social and emotional maturity
 5. Intelligence as measured by an individual intelligence test
 6. Intelligence as measured by a group intelligence test
 7. Achievement level
 8. Attitudes of parents
 9. Recommendation of the child's teacher
 10. Recommendation of AEA personnel
 11. Others (describe) _____

23. If you are dissatisfied with your current double promotion policies please indicate why. _____

* 24. Do you ever retain students? (place a child in the same grade in the fall that he was in the spring, or move him back a grade during the school year?)

1. Yes
 2. No
 3. Other (describe) _____

* 25. In a typical school year, for how many students would retention be considered?

- A. none D. 5-6 G. 11-12
 B. 1-2 E. 7-8 H. 13-14
 C. 3-4 F. 9-10 I. 15-16

* 26. Of the number of students considered in a year, typically how many are actually retained?

- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| <u> </u> A. none | <u> </u> D. 5-6 | <u> </u> G. 11-12 |
| <u> </u> B. 1-2 | <u> </u> E. 7-8 | <u> </u> H. 13-14 |
| <u> </u> C. 3-4 | <u> </u> F. 9-10 | <u> </u> I. 15-16 |

* 27. Of the students you retain, do they tend to be of certain grade levels, if so which?

- | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| <u> </u> A. Kdg | <u> </u> C. 2nd | <u> </u> E. 4th | <u> </u> G. 6th | <u> </u> I. 8th |
| <u> </u> B. 1st | <u> </u> D. 3rd | <u> </u> F. 5th | <u> </u> H. 7th | |

28. If you were to consider whether a child should be retained, what criteria would be used?

1. Age of the child when he/she entered school
2. Sex of the child
3. Physical size
4. Social and emotional maturity
5. Intelligence as measured by an individual intelligence test
6. Intelligence as measured by a group intelligence test
7. Achievement level
8. Results of district's criterion referenced tests
9. Attitudes of parents
10. Recommendation of the child's teacher
11. Recommendations of AEA personnel
12. Others (describe) _____

29. If you are dissatisfied with your current retention policies please indicate why. _____

30. What auxiliary personnel do you have in your building? (Indicate by putting down the number of people in each position)

Position	# of people	average number of hours per week each works (teachers may be reported as FT (full time) or in fractions of a school day)
<u> </u> 1. Aides	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 2. Chapter I teachers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 3. ESL teachers(English as a second language)	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 4. LD resource teachers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 5. BD resource teachers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 6. Self-contained LD	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 7. TAG teacher	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 8. TAG coordinator	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 9. Counselor	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 10. Students that are peer teachers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 11. Nurse	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 12. Secretary	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 13. Custodian	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<u> </u> 14. Volunteers	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

Position # of people average number of hours per week each works
(teachers may be reported as FT (full time) or in fractions of a

15. Cook

16. Others (describe) _____

31. Who is the direct supervisor of the auxiliary personnel in your building? Check the one appropriate box for each person in your building.

Personnel	Teachers	Principal	Buildg Coordinator	District Supervisor (Please specify)	Principal and Other Ples Spec	Other Ples Spec
1. Aides						
2. Chapter I techrs						
3. ESL teachers						
4. LD resource techrs						
5. ED resource techrs						
6. Self-contained LD						
7. TAG teacher						
8. TAG coordinator						
9. Counselor						
10. Peer tutors						
11. Nurse						
12. Secretary						
13. Custodian						
14. Volunteers						
15. Cook						
16. Others						

32. In what ways does your school involve parents in the instructional program?

- 1. Participate as volunteers or aides
- 2. Parents give children assistance with school assignments, that is cooperatively planned and organized with the teacher
- 3. Parents help to develop the school's curriculum (such as a parent advising group)
- 4. Parents visit classes
- 5. Parents sign their child's papers and return them to school
- 6. Other (describe) _____

33. If you are dissatisfied with parental involvement in your school please indicate why. _____

Please turn the page to the next section, Part II.

Part II. Reading Instruction

34. What does your school do with in-coming first graders who do not have the prerequisite skills needed to learn how to read?

- 1. Place the children in first grade but expect teachers to teach the prerequisite skills
- 2. Put the child back in kindergarten
- 3. Place the child in a full day special program (such as a "pre-first" or "transition" to develop the prerequisites)
- 4. Other (describe) _____

If you marked more than one response to this question please explain in what way you use more than one of the procedures.

35. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures for handling children unprepared for first grade please indicate why. _____

* 36. What procedures are used to determine students' reading levels at the beginning of a school year? (A teacher has been given a new class of students in the fall and has to decide at what place in the reading program to start each child)

- 1. Determine reading level on the basis of grade level assignment (students who will be in fourth grade will start with the fourth grade book)
- 2. The teacher starts where the student left off in the reading program last year
- 3. Students are administered an individual reading inventory (IRI)
- 4. Test results from the reading series are used
- 5. Determine level on the basis of reading grade from the past year
- 6. Other (describe) _____

37. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures for determining reading levels please indicate why. _____

* 38. Who makes the final decision concerning a child's placement in reading at the beginning of a school year? (Select only one response)

- 1. The principal, based upon teacher recommendations
- 2. Last year's teachers
- 3. This year's teachers
- 4. Automatically set by grade placement of the student
- 5. Other (describe) _____

* 39. What criteria and procedures are used to determine a child's placement in the reading curriculum during the school year? (For instance, a child begins the school year and struggles in the reading program and the teacher decides to reevaluate his/her placement in the program.)

- 1. Comprehension of stories in the reader as determined by the teacher
- 2. Proficiency in reading the text orally
- 3. Performance of other skills such as decoding, study skills, as measured by administering tests provided by the reading series
- 4. Performance of reading skills as measured by other reading tests besides those published by the basal text company
- 5. "Comfort level" as determined by the student
- 6. As student experiences difficulty he/she is observed and evaluated by the staff
- 7. Other (describe) _____

40. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures please indicate why. _____

* 41. Does your school group students for reading instruction, if so on what basis are children assigned to groups?

- 1. We don't group students for reading instruction
- 2. How far in the reading curriculum the child has been taught
- 3. Proficiency in comprehending the reading text
- 4. Oral reading ability
- 5. Performance on "book" tests of the basal series
- 6. Intelligence or aptitude score
- 7. Other (describe) _____

* 42. If your school groups students for reading instruction, which of the following procedures do you use? Please check the appropriate boxes.

Method of grouping	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
1. Group students only within a classroom						
2. Group students from different home rooms but only students from the same grade level						
3. Group students from different home rooms and from different grade levels						
4. No permanent groups are formed but temporarily groups for a specific purpose are used						
Other (describe) _____						

43. If you are dissatisfied with your current grouping procedures for reading placement please indicate why. _____

44. For how many minutes does one session of a reading group typically last?

(A reading group could possibly meet twice a day, please list all times, example low group meets= 9:00-9:45 & 2:00-2:30)

	<u>Grade</u>	<u>Reading Level</u>	<u>Times</u> (if groups don't meet daily please indicate)
Example	Fourth	low	10:30-11:15 & 2:00-3:00
	Kindergarten	_____	_____
		_____	_____
	1st	_____	_____
		_____	_____
		_____	_____
		_____	_____
	<u>Grade</u>	<u>Reading Level</u>	<u>Times</u> (if groups don't meet daily please indicate)
	2nd	_____	_____
		_____	_____
		_____	_____
	3rd	_____	_____
		_____	_____
		_____	_____
		_____	_____

4th

5th

6th

* 45. Who makes the final decision concerning the time allocations for each reading group?

- 1. Principal
- 2. Teachers
- 3. Other (describe) _____

Please turn the page to the next section, Part III.

Part III. Monitoring of Instruction

"Monitoring of instruction" refers to steps taken to insure that teachers teach the curriculum and students learn what has been taught.

46. Given your many duties and the fact that time is short, how important do you think it is for someone other than the teacher to check whether or not each student is learning what is being taught and is meeting the school's behavior standards?

Subject Area	Level of importance						
1. Art	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
2. Language arts (except reading)	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
3. Mathematics	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
4. Music	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
5. Physical Education	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
6. Reading	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
7. Science-health	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
8. Social studies	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant
9. Student conduct	Extremely important	1	2	3	4	5	Unimportant

47. How satisfied are you with your current monitoring practices?

Subject Area	Level of satisfaction						
1. Art	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
2. Language arts (except reading)	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
3. Mathematics	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
4. Music	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
5. Physical Education	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
6. Reading	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
7. Science-health	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
8. Social studies	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied
9. Student conduct	Extremely satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely dissatisfied

- *48. What impediments, if any, stand in the way of your improving your monitoring of instruction?

1. I have to spend too much time on student discipline matters
2. I have to spend too much time on curriculum improvement activities
3. I have to spend too much time on non-instructional building tasks such as running the lunch program, working with parents, working with the custodian, etc.
4. I have to spend too much time on other district administrative tasks not related to my elementary assignment
5. My teaching responsibilities interfere
6. The board of education and superintendent do not seem to see this activity as being very important
7. We do not have a written curriculum in some subjects thus I am not sure what teachers should be teaching or students learning
8. I am not sure how to verify learning in some subject area
9. Other (describe) _____

49. For which subjects are you not sure what teachers should be teaching because there is no curriculum adopted?

- 1. None
- 2. Art
- 3. Language arts (except reading)
- 4. Mathematics
- 5. Music
- 6. Physical Education
- 7. Reading
- 8. Science-health
- 9. Social studies

50. For which subjects are you not sure how to verify a child's learning?

- 1. None
- 2. Art
- 3. Language arts (except reading)
- 4. Mathematics
- 5. Music
- 6. Physical Education
- 7. Reading
- 8. Science-health
- 9. Social studies

51. What procedures do you use in monitoring learning in the subject listed in the table? Please check the appropriate boxes

Procedure for monitoring	Art	Music	Physical Educ
1. Have teachers turn in lesson plans			
2. Observe school work done by students			
3. Observe the student at work in the classroom			
4. Record and review students' test results			
5. We have student objectives for the subject area			
6. We have measures of the student objectives in the subject area			
7. Review reports to determine when a student has accomplished an objective			
8. Have teachers report those students who fail to turn in homework			
9. Have teachers report those students who fail to get a certain percentage on assignments or tests			
10. Use annual reviews to assess the students's progress on objectives set for the student			
11. Use computer management programs to monitor student progress			
12. Use parent feedback			
13. Other (describe) _____			

52. What procedures do you use in monitoring learning in the subjects listed in the table? Please mark the appropriate boxes.

Procedure for monitoring	reading	other language arts	math	science- health	social studies
1. Have teachers turn in lesson plans					
2. Observe school work done by students					
3. Observe the student at work in the classroom					
4. We have student objectives for the subject area					
5. We have measures of the student objectives in the subject area					
6. Review students' responses and scores on teacher-made tests					
7. Review students' scores on commercially prepared criterion referenced tests					
8. Review students' progress on standardized tests such as ITBS					
9. Review reports to determine when a student has accomplished an objective					
10. Have teachers report those students who fail to turn in homework					
11. Have teachers report those students who fail to get a certain percentage on assignments or tests					
12. Use annual reviews to assess the students' progress on objectives set for the student					
13. Use computer management programs to monitor student progress					
14. Use parent feedback					
15. Other (describe) _____					

53. What procedures do you use in monitoring student behavior?

1. Observe students in the halls, lunchroom, and other places on the school site
2. Observe the student at work in the classroom
3. We have student objectives describing what types of behavior are expected in different situations
4. We have measures of the student objectives for behavior
5. Review reports to determine when a student has accomplished an objective
6. Have teachers report those students who fail to meet their standards
7. Use annual reviews to assess the students' progress on objectives set for the student
8. Use computer management programs to monitor student progress
9. Use parent feedback
10. Other describe) _____

54. Which of the following test scores are available for the students in a typical classroom?

- 1. Scores on nationally standardized tests
- 2. Scores on other commercial tests such as those sold by textbook publishers
- 3. Scores on locally developed district-wide tests
- 4. Scores on locally developed school (your school) tests
- 5. Scores on teacher-made tests for his/her classroom

55. Who, other than you, verifies learning, such as checking reports of mastery of objectives, grade distributions, test scores, or actual student work from individual classrooms on a regular basis?

Please check each box that represents practice in your building

Records of objectives mastered Grade distributions Test results Student work

Teachers				
Other building administrators				
Counselor Dept Cfm				
Grade Cfm				
District office personnel				
AEA personnel				

Other (specify)

56. What procedures do you use in monitoring and evaluating teaching performance?

- 1. Direct observation
- 2. Use teacher evaluation procedures
- 3. Video tape lessons
- 4. Audio tape record lessons
- 5. Use parental feedback
- 6. Use student feedback
- 7. Use feedback from other teachers
- 8. Critique lesson plans
- 9. Sample student work
- 10. Evaluate student standardized test results
- 11. Review student objectives and the measures of them to determine if the objectives were met
- 12. Use computer programs to monitor student progress
- 13. Other (describe) _____

57. If you give the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills or some other group achievement test please give the name of the tests and indicate the grade levels at which you give it.

Name of test _____ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Circle the grades at which it is given

58. How do you use the information gained from monitoring student learning?

- 1. To assess strengths and weaknesses in the curriculum
- 2. To point out weak aspects of student performance and suggest ways of improving it
- 3. To evaluate individual teachers
- 4. To change the amount of time allotted to certain curricular content for either a small group or whole class
- 5. To select a new curriculum or new teaching materials
- 6. Other (describe) _____

59. If you are dissatisfied with your current procedures for using information from your student monitoring system please indicate why.

60. What additional topics do you wish to suggest for principals' inservice or course work? (Hopefully you placed a red circle around topics addressed in the questionnaire for which you felt inservice for principals was needed)

Thank you very much for helping us with this study. The results of this study will be available from our office or from EAI. (The number in the top corner of the first page identifies you for purposes of checking off the return of your questionnaire, it will be deleted upon being checked in.)

APPENDIX B. LETTER TO DR. CHARLES
RAILBACK ASKING FOR
PERMISSION TO USE HIS
QUESTIONNAIRE

145

921 Twelfth Street
Boone, Iowa 50036
March 10, 1988

Dr. Charles Railsback
N229D Lagomarcino Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50010

Dear Dr. Railsback:

Permit me to introduce myself to you. My name is Peter C. Nwaogu, a Catholic priest from Nigeria, West Africa, and a graduate student in the Department of Professional Studies at Iowa State University of Science and Technology.

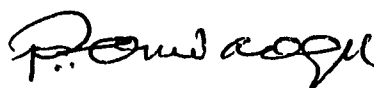
I am presently engaged in a research project which is designed to identify the strategies or procedures used by Iowa's elementary principals in managing reading programs.

My Major Professor, Dr. James Sweeney of Iowa State University has asked me to contact you concerning your questionnaire entitled "Iowa State University Elementary School Study Questionnaire." The questionnaire you developed is appropriate to my study.

Would you please give me the permission to use your questionnaire for my study?

Thanking you very sincerely for this special favor and hoping to hear from you soon!

Sincerely yours,



Peter C. Nwaogu

PCN:1kp

APPENDIX C. DR. RAILSBACK'S LETTER
GRANTING PERMISSION TO
USE HIS QUESTIONNAIRE

March 17, 1988

Rev. Peter C. Nwaogu
Church of the Sacred Heart
921 Twelfth Street
Boone, IA 50036

Dear Father Nwaogu:

It is with pleasure that I give you permission to use the results of my study of the principals of the State of Iowa for your dissertation research. Your analysis of the questionnaire, Iowa State University Elementary School Study Questionnaire, should help us provide useful information in future work with the elementary principals of the state.

Sincerely,



C. E. Railsback
Associate Professor
Educational Administration

jb