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The Relationship between Elementary Principals' Conceptualization of

Instructional Leadership and their Perceived Use of Time

Mardel Smith Higginson

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

The Relationship between Elementary Principals' Conceptualization of
Instructional Leadership and their Perceived Use of Time

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Doctor of Philosophy

The purpose of this study was to learn about how elementary principals conceptualized instructional leadership and whether the way they thought about leadership influenced their allotted use of time for instructional leadership. In order to answer this question, two sub-questions needed to be answered about how elementary principals conceptualized instructional leadership and how elementary principals perceived they used their time. This mixed-method study interviewed 30 principals in an urban-suburban school district in Utah to produce data. Each principal participated in a newly constructed survey of 84 questions. The survey consisted of four parts including demographics, open-ended questions about instructional leadership, and paper and pencil questions about both instructional leadership and how the principal thought they spent their time.

The findings of the study showed that the principals recognized and agreed with a broad definition of instructional leadership when prompted, but they were only able to articulate a limited definition made up of between three and ten sub-concepts. Every principal's self constructed combination of the sub-concepts differed. However, when the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership was translated into the time they spent on each task associated with that conceptualization, 68% of the responses fell into those tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership, however only 60% of their time was used for tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership. (The principals conformed their instructional leadership time to their self constructed conceptualization from 10.7% to 100% of their time.) Principals committed between 7.0-38% of their total time to instructional leadership, but the average amount of time spent on instructional leadership was 20% of their total time. Principals who had more time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership committed more of their total time to instructional leadership. The principals who indicated that coaching, mentoring, and collaboration as the most important activities of instructional leadership spent more time doing these instructional leadership tasks than principals who said other activities were most important. The task most often associated with instructional leadership when principals self constructed their responses was "being in classrooms and evaluating teachers."

Keywords: instructional leadership, elementary principals, time use

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Chapter One

Introduction

Even before the 1957 launching of Sputnik and the publication of the Coleman Report (1966), researchers looked for new ways to improve American public schools (Cuban, 2007). The problem of making American schools more productive focused attention on the principal. Most researchers agreed that instructional leadership was a key role for a successful principal (Barth, 1990; Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990). Yet there was little agreement about what tasks and activities constituted instructional leadership in the literature.

The research literature about instructional leadership used different definitions—from broad to narrow (Sheppard, 1996). Although principals acknowledged that instructional leadership was one of their roles, they had different conceptualizations of instructional leadership. The research literature defined instructional leadership in various ways, so it was possible that principals also had varying ideas about instructional leadership (Sheppard, 1996).

When principals thought about instructional leadership they formed ideas of what instructional leadership was and what activities and behaviors principals should pursue in order to be the instructional leader (Ruff, 2002). This conceptualization guided the activities and behaviors of principals and determined how they thought they should spend their time (Ruff & Shoho, 2005). This chapter introduces the basic background of this study including movements to improve American public education, principals and their roles, instructional leadership and principals' use of time.

Recent American Education Reforms

After the Coleman Report (1966) which criticized the effectiveness of American schools, educational researchers looked for ways to disprove the Report (Cuban, 2007). This was the start of three major educational reforms. One of the first ways used to disprove the Coleman Report was to examine effective and ineffective schools (Spring, 1997). During the early 1980s, efforts focused on finding the characteristics that effective schools had in common (Brookover, 1978; Edmonds, 1982). This was called the *effective schools* movement. However, finding what effective schools had in common was not the same as proving that incorporating these same characteristics improved results in other schools (Rutter & Maughan, 2002). Continued efforts to find causal results failed. However, the role of the principal was coupled with effective schools in all of the studies (Marzano, 2003). The research studies associated principals who exercised instructional leadership with improving student test scores in effective schools (Krug, 1986).

In the 1990s, business organizations shrank the number of hierarchical layers in management and flattened business organizational structures (Clawson, 1999). Businesses gave more of the decision-making power to those closest to the customer. Responding to the fast-moving pace of the global economy, business researchers endorsed a more servant-oriented style of leadership for managers (Senge, Kleiner, Ross, & Smith, 1994). The *restructuring* reform movement in education similarly sought to reform schools by giving more decision-making power to those closest to the students including schools and teachers (Daft, 1999). Schools wrote strategic plans and trained teacher-leaders to plan professional development. Principals became facilitators of teacher decisions. The preferred style of principal leadership thus changed from being directive to being more participatory (Senge, 1995). Still during the restructuring

period of the 1990s, research linked the principal's instructional leadership role to improving schools (Hallinger & Heck, 1996).

Regardless of the efforts to improve schools, student test scores at the national level did not increase. This was partly because schools were examined as an aggregated educational whole. In the early 2000s, comparisons between schools nationwide were aided by improvements in data collection, data storage, and internet connections (Ackman Technology, 2007). These comparisons showed that while some schools were showing improvements, other schools were not (Marzano, 2003). The data connections and the passage of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2001 pushed schools into an age of accountability, guided by the philosophy of positivism that the data from the end-of-the-year test measured a school's effectiveness. This was called the *accountability* reform movement. Schools concentrated on teaching those parts of the state curriculum represented on the tests because under this philosophy, student learning was demonstrated on the summative test determining a school's effectiveness (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005). Although many educators disagreed with the assumptions and direction of NCLB, this law has become the guiding political foundation for most schools. In summary, all three recent educational reforms in the United States included principals in a vital role.

Instructional Leadership Role of the Principal

Although the principal was linked to improving schools during the effective schools period, the restructuring period, and the accountability period, the instructional leadership role during each wave of reform described different activities and behaviors (Witziers, Rosker, & Kruger, 2003). In other words, during each reform movement, instructional leadership included different activities and tasks for the principal.

During the effective schools wave, the instructional leader provided professional development that strengthened lesson delivery for teachers. However, the professional development provided was often disregarded by the teacher in the classroom (Black & William, 1998). The focus of the instructional leadership role was usually about the content of curriculum and strategies for teaching. Principals focused teachers' attentions on teaching the lesson well, not on how much students were learning.

Facilitating teachers on school-created goals became the main instructional leadership task of the principal during the restructuring period. The principal's role was to provide shared vision and to create a culture of school improvement (Rutter & Maughan, 2002). The central idea during restructuring was that teachers who were included in the goal-making process would see a connection between what happened in their classrooms and school goals. These connections, it was thought, would lead to better student outcomes. Like businesses, school reformers believed that having teachers' participation in writing the school goals would encourage their efforts in school improvement.

The focus of the principal's instructional leadership role during the accountability movement shifted to improving student test scores (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005). Although the principal had many roles, instructional leadership increased in importance because of its connection to teaching, learning, curriculum, and collaboration (Glanz, 2006). In order to meet the demands of NCLB, instructional leaders concentrated more of their efforts on teaching and learning, a narrower application of instructional leadership than previously used.

Meanings of Instructional Leadership

The focus and meaning of instructional leadership changed during the different stages of school reform. The stages of reform were not distinct from each other, but rather overlapped.

Therefore, the instructional leadership roles in each reform stage overlapped also. This overlapping meant that the meaning of instructional leadership during one stage of reform was not completely given up when moving into the next stage. The meaning of instructional leadership was blurred by and mixed with previous instructional leadership roles. Although the instructional leadership role focused on improving student test scores in the accountability time period, many of the past characteristics, behaviors, and activities important to instructional leadership were still considered important under some definitions.

Research included both a narrow and a broad definition of instructional leadership and many combinations of the two (Sheppard, 1996). The narrow definition included only those issues that had a connection to teaching, learning, curriculum, and collaboration with teachers about learning. The broad definition included these roles in the instructional leadership role of the principal as well as other roles such as community development, discipline, head of school, and developer of school culture. Many different definitions were used in the research about instructional leadership, yet the term was so common that most principals thought they knew what instructional leadership meant. However, principals may not be acting on the same definition of instructional leadership.

When different definitions of instructional leadership were used in studies, readers of the research had difficulty comparing the results of the studies. Consumers of research about instructional leadership included principals, trainers of new principals, those who supervised principals such as district supervisors, and professional developers of existing principals. Some of these consumers were probably not aware that there were different definitions (behaviors and activities) of instructional leadership.

Questions emerged as this study was being designed. What conceptualizations of instructional leadership did practicing principals accept? Was their theoretical definition was the same as their practicing definition? Did principals' conceptualizations change in lock-step with the stages of school reform? Did principals conceptualize instructional leadership by the broad or narrow definitions or by something in between? More information was needed about principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership in order to provide more effective and specific administrator preparation, principal supervision, and professional development.

Behaviors and activities in definitions of instructional leadership. A range of principal activities and behaviors were defined as instructional leadership in the literature. The broad definition of instructional leadership began to form from the work of Hallinger (1984) when he published a quantitative test that purportedly measured and ranked the instructional leadership skills of a principal. Hallinger published the Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scales (PIMRS) to measure instructional leadership in the 1980s. The PIMRS is still sometimes used today as a leadership measurement tool. The term *instructional management* was generally interpreted to mean instructional leadership in his study. The instrument tested for a range of management skills in the three main areas of (a) defining the school mission, (b) managing curriculum and instruction, and (c) promoting school culture. The PIMRS tested for one form of the broad definition of instructional leadership.

The broad definition of instructional leadership expanded to include more activities and behaviors with the emergence of new research since Hallinger. An association was found between other characteristics and behaviors of the principal besides the ones listed in Hallinger's PIMRS, such as being a change agent or building an organization that learns. The present study included activities and behaviors which could be grouped into six general categories of abilities

that came from a comprehensive survey of the literature: (1) combine many leadership personal skills, (2) manage basic operations, (3) develop social trust, (4) develop a compelling vision, (5) understand the change process, and (6) create an organization that learns and improves.

The narrow definition was only a small portion of the broad definition (Southworth, 2002) and included principal activities focused on teaching, learning, curriculum and teacher collaboration regarding improving student test outcomes. A principal exercising the narrow definition of instructional leadership was in the classroom giving feedback about instruction to teachers, discussing specific student data with teachers, asking teachers to evaluate and improve their own teaching, and encouraging teachers to collaborate with other teachers to improve student learning. The narrow definition was more in line with the principal's accountability requirements for NCLB because its focus was on teaching and learning.

Principals' role in improving student test scores. Many researchers have examined the principals' role in improving student test scores. Marzano and colleagues' (2005) and Cotton's (2003) studies tied certain instructional leadership behaviors to improving student test score outcomes. Cotton's (2003) study listed 25 instructional leadership tasks and behaviors tied to a variety of student outcomes drawn from previous research. The Marzano study listed 21 leadership tasks and behaviors of the principal found to be associated with student test scores. The results of these studies closely mirrored each other. The five behaviors and activities that Marzano claimed had the highest association with improving student test scores were situational awareness, flexibility, discipline, outreach, and monitoring and evaluation. These characteristics fell into the broad definition tasks of instructional leadership.

Two studies claimed that higher student test scores were associated with more principal time spent on the narrow definition of instructional leadership.   The Gaziel (1995) study

concluded that principals at high-performing schools spent nearly double the amount of time on instructional leadership, by the narrow definition, than the principals at average-performing schools. The Wallace Foundation (2005) study also showed that when principals were relieved of their managerial school duties and asked to focus all their efforts on teaching and learning, their corresponding schools showed unusually rapid progression in school student test score outcomes. In these studies, time of the principal doing the narrow definition of instructional leadership was a determining variable in student test score outcomes.

Little research literature existed on how elementary school principals actually spent their time. We did not know if elementary principals spent a lot or a little time on the behaviors and activities connected with instructional leadership in the research.   If a principal could influence student test scores by spending more time on instructional leadership as the Gaziel (1995) and Wallace Foundation (2005) studies suggested, then district supervisors of principals would want to know what amount of time the average principal spent on instructional leadership. They would also want to know how to encourage low-performing principals to increase the amount of time they spent on instructional leadership.

Factors Influencing the Elementary Principal's Time

Principals have many demands on their time (Kennedy, 2002). Measuring the principal's time usage is complicated in four different ways: collectivity, brevity, variety, and fragmentation (Peterson & Cosner, 2005; Mintsber, 1985).   A principal's constituents include district personnel, parents, students, community, and teachers. All these constituents desire a portion of the principal's time and attention. Most principals work 50-60 hours per week and are well-meaning in the performance of their jobs (Taylor, 2007). However, principals rarely have enough time to deal with all the demands in the jobs. One such time expectation is the

instructional leadership role. Whitaker and Turner (2000) found that principals would like to spend more time on instructional leadership but were unable to find time for all the demands put on them. Clearly principals need to prioritize their tasks in order to get the most important things done.

Although several studies examined how high school principals spent their time, few studies looked at how elementary school principals spent time. Researchers did not know how much time average elementary school principals spent on instructional leadership. Without this knowledge, supervisors and trainers of elementary principals would not know if principals were spending enough time on instructional leadership. If a school had sagging test scores, that principal may not be spending enough time at instructional leadership or perhaps the principal was spending enough time, but not using tasks and behaviors that were shown to improve student test scores. District supervisors and trainers of principals need to know which behaviors were causing the lower scores in order to make decisions about the training that would help principals be more effective in improving student test scores.

Only a few studies quantified the time doing spent instructional leadership by principals. Most of these studies used a form of the narrow definition of instructional leadership. However, comparisons between these studies were difficult because of the inexact definitions of instructional leadership. The high school studies indicated that the amount of time a principal spent in the classrooms (the very narrow definition of instructional leadership) averaged about 7%, while principals of high-performing schools spent 14% of their time on instructional leadership in classrooms (Gaziel, 1995). The difference between 7 % and 14% of the elementary principal's time (60 hours per week) was four hours. Because principals were already working full days, the challenge was finding that additional four hours in the principal's week to spend in

classrooms. Were there things that were less important and could be dropped from the

principal's duties? In principals' minds what were the most important things about instructional

leadership that could not be postponed?

Principals' Conceptualization of Instructional Leadership and Time

The conceptualization a principal accepted influenced how that principal interpreted

information and what that principal did about that information (Mitchell & Castle, 2005). The

research into mental models presented a case that our conceptualizations influenced our choices

(Duffy, 2003). Thus principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership were probably

influential in determining how principals chose to spend their time (Ruff, 2002)

Because principals were trained during different waves of school reform, principals most

likely were taught different conceptualizations of instructional leadership. They may have read

different articles or books, and they may have attended professional learning in which differing

conceptualizations of instructional leadership were discussed. As a result, principals may retain

different conceptualizations of instructional leadership (Mitchell & Castle, 2005).

The Ruff (2002) and Mitchell and Castle (2005) studies claimed that principals'

conceptualizations of instructional leadership influenced their behaviors and activities, which in

turn influenced how they spent their time.   These two studies only included a total of 15

principals. More research was needed to understand how principals conceptualized instructional

leadership.

Problem Statement and Significance of the Study

Although some information was available regarding the instructional leadership of high

school principals, the existing research did not address how elementary principals spent time on

instructional leadership. The problematic part of this gap is that the job of a high school

principal is essentially a different job from the job of an elementary school principal. In a high school, the principal has many more support staff to delegate some of the instructional leadership duties. Without the knowledge of what is an average amount of time that elementary principals spends on instructional leadership, a supervisor would not be able to evaluate how an individual principal compared to the average time used by all principals. The result is two possible problems about the instructional leadership of a non-performing principal's instructional leadership: (a) the principal is deficient because the principal is not spending enough time on the tasks of instructional leadership, or (b) the principal is spending the time but is deficient in the performance of the instructional leadership role. The first problem is a time management problem, while the second problem is a conceptualization problem or a knowledge problem. These two problems would require different professional development. Trainers of principals need this knowledge to refine principal preservice and inservice professional development and improve principal performance in instructional leadership.

The Ruff (2002) and Mitchell and Castle (2005) studies addressed the question of how principals conceptualized instructional leadership, but they used very limited samplings. The two studies did not provide concordant information about how practicing principals conceptualized instructional leadership. This lack of exact knowledge about how elementary principals defined instructional leadership in practice was problematic because if principals conceptualized instructional leadership in different ways, they may have actually intended to do different things with their time to fulfill their instructional leadership role. These two studies, although not complete, indicated that principals did conceptualize the instructional leadership role in different ways and acted in different ways as a result. The differences in conceptualization of instructional leadership held by principals make effective in-service and

pre-service training of principals difficult because the same words meant different things to the principals who were trying to implement the concept. A trainer of principals might ask, "Were the deficiencies in instructional leadership definitional and intentional, or were they caused by lack of instructional leadership skills?" Trainers of both new and existing principals needed to know the cause of the deficiency before they try to provide treatment to improve performance.

Some authors suggest that poor performance of instructional leaders is due to poor time management skills. Robinson (2006) wrote that 60% of principals choose to spend time by the *hopper* style. The hopper style is essentially a reactionary style, meaning that principals respond to the most critical crisis in front of them. In other words they are not choosing how to spend time, just reacting by responding to problems as these problems were presented. However, Gaziel (1995) suggested that effective principals control their time. A reactionary style is problematic because instructional leadership is rarely an immediate crisis with problems that could be fixed short-term. Trainers of principals need to know whether the amount of time a principal spends on instructional leadership by the narrow definition was related to a principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership or whether the principal is hopping from crisis to crisis. If the principal's time is aligned with the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership, then professional development about an expanded conceptualization might yield improvement results. However, if the deficiency in instructional leadership skills is caused by a reactionary style, then time management training may yield results.

Under the NCLB educational climate, how the principal performed the role of instructional leader is important because it may be related to improving student test score outcomes. If trainers knew how principals conceptualized instructional leadership and how that conceptualization related to the principals' use of time, this knowledge would help professional

developers of principals give more specific professional development to practicing elementary principals and more targeted pre-service development.

Research Questions

This study posed the following research questions:

1. How do principals conceptualize instructional leadership?

2. How do elementary principals perceive they use their time in a typical week with regard to instructional leadership by any definition?

3. Is there an association between the elementary principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and the principal's allocation of time to the tasks of instructional leadership?

Limitations and Delimitations

The purpose of the study was to discover how practicing elementary principals conceptualized instructional leadership, and whether the definition they adopted was related to the way these principals perceived that they chose to spend their time. Elementary principals and secondary principals have a similar responsibility to perform instructional leadership, but the instructional pattern in high schools is very different from the instructional pattern in elementary schools because there are more administrators who share responsibility in secondary schools. As a result, this study was delimited to the elementary public school principals. Also, this study was performed in one district. The results are only applicable to that particular district.

The study was limited by the accuracy of the principals' perceptions about how they practiced instructional leadership and how they spent their time. This study is a perceptual study and not an observational study. The data were accumulated by allowing the principals to

construct their perception of their conceptualization and the way they spent their time. The study assumed that most principals were reflective enough to formulate working conceptualizations of instructional leadership and knew how they typically spent their time.

Definition of Terms

This study deals directly with instructional leadership. Instructional leadership is defined as a composite of those behaviors and activities of the principal that were connected with and promoted student achievement as measured by large-scale summative testing. In this paper, the definition of instructional leadership is in agreement with Acheson and Smith (1985) who wrote, "Instructional leadership is leadership that is directly related to the processes of instruction where teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact" (p. 3). This definition is large enough to include both the broad and narrow definitions of instructional leadership. The word *interact* does not specify what about the leadership was influencing teachers, learners, and the curriculum, so either the broad or narrow definition could apply.

Instructional leadership is furthered differentiated by broad and narrow definitions. The broad definition of instructional leadership is defined as all the roles that the principal participated in that combined to influence student test score outcomes, however remotely, in the school. These activities include tasks that build culture and promote a climate of learning and can include ordering books for learning, working with the community, or monitoring student discipline (Hallinger, 1984; McEwan, 2003). In the broadest sense, instructional leadership is everything that the principal does on the job that creates an atmosphere of learning. In this study, the broad definition is represented by the characteristics, behaviors, and activities on page 42 that represent a collection built from the various empirical research studies.

The narrow definition of instructional leadership is defined as only those activities in the role of the principal that focus on effective instructional behaviors of the teachers that influence student test scores outcomes (Southworth, 2002). They include observations in classroom with feedback to the teachers, engaging teachers in discussions about teaching and assessing learning, encouraging collaborative work between teachers, and using data to design differentiated and specific interventions for struggling students. The narrow definition of instructional leadership is a subset of the broad definition.

Summary

This study collected information about how elementary school principals conceptualized the instructional leadership role and documented the way they spent their time during a typical week. The study looked for an association between these two variables. This research is embedded in three theoretical frameworks: (a) the evolving role of the principal through recent efforts to reform schools in the last half century, (b) the changing behaviors and characteristics that constitute effective instructional leadership, and (c) the time usage of principals. Each of these subjects contributed to the interpretation of the research questions.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

This research is focused on two major topics: school principals' perception and implementation of the concept of instructional leadership and their use of time. However, in order to understand fully the factors and implications of these topics, one must explore the background of each topic. This literature review will discuss previous research on the role of principals in reforming schools through instructional leadership. Over recent years there have been many discussions and theories about how this is most effectively done.

Principals' Role in Recent School Reform

Recent school reform movements began in the late 1950s when the Russians beat the United States into space and the federal government began stepping funding to states and local school districts. The focus of these reform efforts was to increase preparedness in science and math. Along with increased funding from the federal government came increased curricular intrusions and requirements. Through the 1960s and early 1970s, the reform movement refocused to issues of poverty and racism (Murphy & Adams, 1998). The main thrust of this period of reform was equity. In an effort to dispute the highly publicized results of the Coleman study (1966) that asserted student achievements were merely a reflection of economic status, some researchers looked for ways to prove that good schools could make a difference to student achievement outcomes regardless of student backgrounds (Brookover, 1977; Edmonds, 1979; Rutter & Maughan, 2002). Each of these studies looked at the characteristics associated with effective schools. Each of these studies also affirmed that the principals who functioned as instructional leaders were central to effective schools.

Murphy and Adams (1998) pointed out that the reform movements were driven by economic, political, and social forces. Economic forces include an underlying worry that the United States will have to lower its standard of living if not ready to compete in a global economy (Friedman, 2005). The social forces include increased diversity in our country: minorities, languages other than English, and the gap between rich and poor. The political forces include the dissatisfaction and distrust with government, the declining trust in public schools and teacher unions, and the increasing power of the parent consumers of education.

Louis (2006) confirmed this idea when he wrote "schools are a part of larger, shifting social, economic, and cultural trends that are largely invisible to the cross-sectional observer" (p. 167). Louis continued, "It demands that we reflect on what we mean by school improvement, and we talk about what it means (outcome effectiveness? member satisfaction and commitment? adaptability?), but we are usually 'stuck' in a single time frame" (p. 168) because the desired objectives in each reform period were different. Reform, therefore, was tied to the economic, cultural, and political forces that appeared in a certain time period.

In each stage of recent educational reform, the school principal played an important, but different role (Barth, 1990). The role of the principal was not the same in the three major waves of recent reform, but the research of each wave found the principal indispensable in improving the school (Hallinger, 1992). In the 1980s, the effective schools research found that effective schools had a principal providing opportunities for teachers to participate in professional development (Edmonds, 1979). In the restructuring time period of the 1990s, principals became facilitative leaders to help teachers develop school-wide goals (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). In the standards and accountability period since 2001 and NCLB, the principal's role expanded to

include responsibility for school performance (Marks & Printy, 2003). However, no matter the educational reform period, the principal's instructional leadership played a major role in bringing about the goals of each reform movement.

Effective schools movement. The purpose of the effective school studies was to find schools that excelled despite low socio-economic and racially diverse populations. In interpreting effective school studies, a researcher needed to remember the types of outlier samplings that produced the "effective school" data. Effective school studies did not usually sample average schools, rather just the high and low schools. The studies used retroactive student outcomes and surveyed current conditions to find out what common characteristics produced these more recent test scores.

Brookover and Lezotte (1979) and Edmonds (1979) were some of the first that questioned the findings of the Coleman report. These studies found that some effective schools could and did overcome the educational effects of socio-economic status. From the early stages of effective schools research, researchers disagreed how an effective school should be defined. This disagreement about the definition of an effective school became a conceptual problem in the study of schools and became a role definition problem for the instructional leader in an effective school. Some researchers defined the effective school in terms of a standard of student outcomes, others in terms of equity of outcomes, and some in terms of cultural outcomes. Edmonds (1982) wrote that "to be effective a school need not bring all students to identical levels of mastery, but it must bring an equal percentage of its highest and lowest social classes to minimum mastery" (p. 4). Edmond's approach to effective schools represented an equity type of definition. Lezotte (1979) defined effective schools as a school where more than 95% of the students achieved basic mastery of the minimum academic standards for the grade and all

subgroups showed the same minimum mastery percentages.   This definition combined equity measures and external standards of minimum mastery. Lezotte's definition of effective schools was similar to the parameters of NCLB because equity measures and external measure of minimum mastery are carried over into the way NCLB measures school success.

Another way to define effective schools was in terms of culture. The Association of Effective Schools (1996) defined effective schools in terms of internal, cultural characteristics such as: (a) clear school mission, (b) high expectations for success, (c) instructional leadership, (d) frequent monitoring of student progress, (e) time on learning task, (f) safe and orderly environment, and (g) home and school connections (1996). This definition was much broader and could include nearly all schools because every school had these characteristic elements at some level. Because so many definitions for effective schools existed, determining the exact formula for an effective school was difficult (D'Amico, 1982), and identifying the exact formula for the effective instructional leader was equally hard.

Edmonds described five characteristics of effective schools: (a) important instructional focus on basic school skill acquisition for all students, (b) an expectation that all children can learn up to a minimum standard, (c) "principal's leadership and attention to the quality of instruction" (p. 4), (d) student progress monitoring, and (e) orderly environment that is conducive to instruction. Other studies of this time period added characteristics such as parent involvement (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979), reduction of class size and staff development (Phi Delta Kappa, 1980), and teacher approachability by the students (Rutter,1979).   Many of the early studies (Dwyer, 1985; Edmonds, 1979; Larsen, 1987) stressed the principal's role as influential in achieving effective schools.

These early studies emphasized the instructional leadership role of the principal. Edmonds (1979) wrote, "There seems to be a clear difference in the principal's role in the improving and declining schools. In the improving schools, the principal was more likely to be an instructional leader" (p. 18). In later writings, Edmonds (1982) summarized work from effective school research in the New York City School Improvement Project (SIP), the 1979-1980 Milwaukee Project, the St. Louis Project during 1980-1981, Jim Comer's New Haven, Connecticut project in 1980, and the 1980-81 Chicago Project by Robert Green by listing the common characteristics found in effective schools. Edmonds (1982) wrote, "One of the correlates of effective schools is the principal's instructional leadership" (p. 11). However, no clear model of instructional leadership emerged as dominant.

One way of illustrating the difficulty of determining the conceptualization of effective instructional leadership was to compare two similar studies published within a similar time frame. Marzano (2003) and Rutter and Maughan (2002) both concentrated on cultural elements as a way of producing higher achievement scores. Some interesting similarities about the definition of effective schools emerged, but the studies maintained dissimilar instructional leadership roles for the principal. Table 1 showed near agreement on the cultural aspects of the effective school definition between Rutter and Maughan and Marzano. The subject of "student motivation" was only partially covered by Rutter and Maughan study, and the subject of "attractive environment" is not covered by Marzano. Otherwise, the two studies essentially agreed on the characteristics of an effective school. Neither study mentioned external measurements or equity as a way of defining an effective school.

Table 1

Comparison of Two Internal Models of Effective Schools

_____

Rutter & Maughan (2002)	Marzano (2003)
Contextual Features	Home Environment Learned intelligence and background Parent and community involvement
School organization and management	Critical role of leadership
Orderly environment, focus on behavior, clear, fair discipline	Safe and orderly environment
Appropriate, well-conveyed high expectations, positive rewards and feedback, focus on achievement	Challenging goals and effective
Positive modes of good teacher behavior	Professionalism
Good teacher-pupil relationships inside and outside of the classroom	Collegiality
Involvement of pupils in taking responsibility	Student motivation
Attractive working environment	(Not mentioned)
Group management in classes	Classroom management
Pedagogic qualities	Guaranteed and viable curriculum Instructional strategies Classroom curricular design

Rutter and Maughan (2002) described the characteristics of the instructional leader as one who "provides strategic vision, staff participation with a shared vision and goals, appropriate reward for collegial collaborative working, attendance to staff needs and rewards, and effective home-school partnerships" (p. 23). Their definition of effective instructional leadership reflected a facilitative role. Marzano (2003) associated effective principals with making formal observations, seeking teacher input for key decisions, portraying confidence in teachers, and monitoring the continuity of the curriculum. Marzano also wrote about optimism, honesty, and consideration in an effective principal. Marzano's definition of effective instructional leadership was more a coaching and mentoring leadership style. These definitions of effective instructional leadership were quite different even considering the similar culturally-based internal definition of effective schools. The comparison of these two studies about effective schools with similar foundations showed the difficulty of assuming that the definitions of instructional leadership would also be similar. Even when the definitions of effective schools matched, the definition of effective instructional leader did not.

Without agreement on the definition of what an effective school was, researchers began to test some of the characteristics of effective schools to find causal relationships in an effort to improve other schools. Knowing some of the similar characteristics of effective schools and proving that these characteristics caused effective schools was harder than researchers imagined. Rutter and Maughan (2002) wrote, "Knowing the end result you wanted and knowing how to support schools to bring that about were two entirely different issues" (p. 6). The complexity of variables that contributed to student progress made it difficult to isolate any one characteristic that showed causal conditions for academic achievement. Finding one model of instructional leadership that fit all these complex variables became similarly difficult. Hallinger and Heck

(1996) wrote, "Although at the hortatory level there is little disagreement concerning the belief that principals have an impact on the lives of teachers and students, both the nature and degree of that [leadership] effect continues to be open to debate"(p. 6). Researchers continued to debate the issue of how the instructional leader can affect student outcomes (Gentilucci & Muto, 2007). In this reform movement, even when researchers could agree on a definition for effective schools, they could not agree on the activities and behaviors that comprised the instructional leadership role of the principal.

The effective school wave resulted in little change at the school level and little change in the instruction at the classroom level. Despite principals becoming the instructional leaders and providing professional development, what happened in the classroom remained essentially the same (Elmore, 2006). As Black and Wiliam (1998) stated,

> Certain inputs from the outside—pupils, teachers, other resources, management rules and requirements, parental anxieties, standards, tests with high stakes, and so on—are fed into the box. Some outputs are supposed to follow: pupils who are more knowledgeable and competent, better test results, teachers who are reasonably satisfied, and so on. But what is happening inside the box? How can anyone be sure that a particular set of new inputs will produce better outputs if we don't at least study what happens inside? (p. 139)

Despite the best efforts of administrators, teachers brought to the classroom those things that felt comfortable to them. Teachers wanted make-and-take training, and often their idea of make and take was the "crayon curriculums", worksheets that kept kids busy, but offered little real learning (Schmoker, 2001). Black and Wiliam stated the instruction that was happening "inside the box" continued on as before. The disappointments with the first wave of reform resulted in a new direction for school reform.

Restructuring schools movement. The next wave of reform, sometimes called restructuring, took ordinary schools and tried to improve their performance by changing their characteristics. Newmann, Rutter, and Smith (1989) wrote, "Technical improvements in teaching and curriculum are necessary, but they are unlikely to be put to work to the benefit of students unless they are supported by a positive organizational climate, culture, or ethos" (p. 221). Newman et al.'s study recommended building a sense of "consensus, cooperation, and mutual respect that constitute a sense of community" to reduce teacher alienation. The restructuring movement progressed from finding effective schools to turning average schools into effective schools by working on teacher efficacy and teacher buy-in. The role of the instructional leader changed as a result of this movement to an instructional leadership role of facilitator.

One way of viewing the reform movements in schools was to look at the locus of power (Murphy & Adams, 1998). The effective schools reform challenged counterproductive governmental regulations and programs concerning racism and poverty. The restructuring wave of reform aimed at changing the way schools were governed. The power structure of schools shifted away from principals and towards teachers. Just as business organizations restructured to become organized with fewer levels of leadership during this time, the general thought for school reform was that schools benefitted from more site-based decision-making (Daft, 1999). Organizationally, schools were to shed the direction of districts and states, and decide on-site about the school's rules and goals and how to fulfill them. The principal's instructional leadership role changed to site-based decision-making.

The restructuring wave of reforming schools focused on the *process* of becoming an effective school. This wave consisted of building site-based decision-making power structures with the philosophy that

> Change in a school comes much more satisfactorily if it is based upon school-based review or school appraisal. The remediation of any within-school problems is then related directly to their identification by teachers. The dissatisfaction with certain aspects of school organization review would be a motivator for the change process. (Austin & Reynolds, 1990, p. 175.)

Principals helped their schools write vision and mission statements and formulated strategic plans for change. In the restructuring time period, effective schools had these characteristics: (a) collaborative planning and collegial relationships; (b) sense of community; (c) commonly shared, clear goals; and (d) order and discipline (Austin & Reynolds, 1990). The principal's instructional leadership role was to establish a culture where this collaborative action could develop.

The restructuring period also had an effect on the role the principal as an instructional leader. Research about the principal during this reform focused on power sharing through servant-leadership, transformational-leadership, and morale leadership. These types of leadership were employee-centered (Daft, 1999). Though a shift in the role of the principal occurred during the restructuring period, Austin and Reynolds (1990) stated, "It is clear that effective schools allow teachers to have some say in their methods and subject matter whilst not allowing any deviation from the school's basic goals" (p. 168). Because systematic policy reform had not changed classroom instruction during the effective school wave, reform during restructuring now took a school-by-school approach (Slavin, 2001). The results of restructuring

on classroom practices did not differ significantly from the effective school movement. Change was a difficult and anxious process, and teachers were largely unwilling to make those changes on their own. The lack of results from the first two waves of reform fostered the growth of a third wave.

Standards and accountability reform. The third wave of reform gradually emerged as it became apparent that achievement gains from other reform movements were not reflected in school test scores. The focus of power in the third wave was individual choice (Austin & Reynolds, 1990). Economic, political, and social factors combined to favor individual democratic power (Murphy & Adams, 1998). The general distrust of government, loss of trust in public education, the loss of economic favorability in the world all combined to empower parents to make choices for their children's education. Rating public schools by business efficiency standards was a political, an economic, and a social idea. Consumers of education and policy makers in education desired competition and comparison among schools that would force test score improvements.

The legislative force for the accountability wave was the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. The reforms of NCLB called for increasing student test score achievement until all children met minimum standards by 2014. All schools were judged and held accountable as performing or non-performing based on improvements in student outcomes, as a whole school and as subgroups within the school. The school effectiveness definition applied by NCLB included aspects of equity and external standard of measurement. Under NCLB, a school was only defined as effective if it could pass Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Effectiveness under NCLB (and the politicians that supported it) must be proven using data collection on the summative, year-end tests.

Although the measurement of success under AYP used an equity and external measurement definition, in most schools the external measurements are difficult to attain without the internal, cultural aspects promoted during the effective school and restructuring schools stages. Under NCLB, the requirement for increasing student outcomes made the principal accountable for directing the teaching and learning at the school and responsible for student outcomes. According to Fullan (2002) the school principal's role in the standards and accountability wave was a change agent. Fullan argued that the desired changes should be in student test scores. An effective instructional leader would be able to lead a school staff through the process of instructional strategy change to meet the increasing standards and accountability under NCLB.

Key role of the principal in school reform movements. Through the three school reform movements described, the importance of the principal's instructional leadership role was prominent. However, disagreement about the conceptualization of the instructional leadership role was evident. Barth (1990) wrote that during the period of effective school research the role of the principal was constantly highlighted: "(a) The principal is the key to a good school; (b) the principal is the most important reason why teachers grow—or are stifled on the job; (c) the principal is the most potent factor in determining school climate; and (d) show me a good school, and I'll show you a good principal" (p. 64). However, ideas about what was a good school, how the principal influenced teachers, what was a good school climate, and what was an effective principal differ depending on the research consulted or the stage of reform.

In the effective school movement, the research showed an association between the effective school and the principal. Instructional leadership included managerial elements, where the principal selected professional development to train the teachers in the school. Hallinger

(2003) wrote, "With the advent of school restructuring in North America during the 1990s, scholars and practitioners began to popularize terms such as shared leadership, teacher leadership, distributed leadership, and transformational leadership" (p.330). Hallinger described a general dissatisfaction with the effective school model of principal leadership that cast the principal in a role of power and authority.

In the restructuring reform wave, the principal still played an instructional leadership role by building up the component supports (Penny Bender, Allensworth, Bryk, Easton, & Luppescu, 2006) and helping teachers reach consensus on vision, mission, and goals. Instructional leadership in the restructuring stage was facilitative in nature, helping teachers decide what changes needed to be instituted. Unfortunately, results of the effective schools and the restructuring reform movements did not show the amount of improvement that politicians were looking for.

In the reform period of standards and accountability, the principal did all the managerial, instructional leadership, and collaborative work of other waves, and also took responsibility for improvement in student test scores. Improvement meant change. The principal in the standards and accountability wave worked on changing ineffective teaching practices that hampered student test score outcomes. The emphasis on teaching practices and learning brought the instructional leadership role of the principal to the forefront. NCLB set the objectives for the instructional leader in terms of equity and external measures of achievement. However, the exact instructional leadership behaviors and activities that the principal should use to influence student achievement and equity were not completely defined.

In summary, through the three different stages of educational reform, differing roles for the instructional leader have been promoted. These differing expectations have resulted in

confusion about the types of activities that a principal should pursue who wants to be an effective instructional leader.

Principal's Instructional Leadership Role

Although most researchers agreed that the principal has an instructional leadership role in the school, less agreement exists about the nature of that role. The evolving role of the instructional leader through different reform stages, and the basic underlying assumptions about instructional leadership confused the role of leadership for practicing principals. The first area of debate was the connection between the principals' actions and student test score gains. This argument revolved around the question of whether the principal directly affected student test scores or whether the principal indirectly affected scores through the climate, culture, and teachers. (The debate about indirect and direct influence on student achievement was not included in the research of this study because direct and indirect influences interacted with each other in confounding ways.) The second debate focused on the principal's instructional leadership role. Was instructional leadership a broad role or was it a narrow role? These two debates about the pathway and definition of instructional leaders' role have made it difficult for researchers of instructional leadership to come to useful conclusions.

Affect on student achievement. Even with general agreement that the school principal played a pivotal role in school improvement, researchers did not agree about how the principal influenced student achievement (Witziers, Rosker, & Kruger, 2003). Researchers had particularly been trying to find a link between the school principal and student test scores during the current accountability reform movement.

Hallinger and Heck (1996) proposed five different models of how principals affected student achievement: (a) direct effect, (b) direct effects with antecedent effects, (c) mediated

effects, (d) mediated effect with antecedent effects, and (e) reciprocal effects model. Because of the difficulty measuring antecedent variables and reciprocal variables, this argument about the pathways to influence test scores had distilled to two models: direct effects (the principal directly affected student test scores), and mediated or indirect effects (the principal effected student test scores through culture, climate, and teachers).

Several researchers have studied the idea that efforts of a principal directly increased student test scores. Early studies by Larsen (1987) and Leitner (1994) tried to show a causal relationship between principal behaviors and student outcomes and found some evidence that this was true. However, they found isolating and controlling the numerous variables that contributed to student achievement challenging to manipulate with linear regression. Heck, Larsen, and Marcoulides (1990) tried to solve those problems by applying structural equation modeling to test a causal theory using an outlier sampling. They showed the principal's "instructional leadership is directly related to the school's performance at both higher and lower academic levels" (p. 121). The study concluded that the principal was a definite variable in the factors that influenced student test score achievement but did not show what behaviors of the principal were effective.

In 2003, Cotton focused on the topic of principals and student achievement. She examined 81 studies done after 1985 to find ones that showed a positive correlation between principal leadership and a number of outcome variables for an improving school such as student test scores, student and teacher attitudes, student and teacher behaviors, and dropout rates. She identified, through her meta-analysis 25 principal behavior categories that were related to these outcomes. According to Gentilucci and Muto (2007), "Her cogent analysis bolstered Larsen's (1987) and Leitner's (1994) claims of causality" (p. 221). Because Cotton used other outcome

variables in addition to test scores such as attendance and discipline records, her study was not fully accepted among researchers who were looking for causality and not associations. By 2003, educational reform had drifted into the standards and accountability stage, which used only test scores as a measurement of student outcomes. However, Cotton's study claimed that only a few principal activities and behaviors commonly associated with instructional leadership were related to student outcomes. Her study inspired other researchers to tackle this same subject.

About the same time, Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) used meta-analysis to find an association between principal leadership and outcomes limited to student test scores but found no significant correlation. The Witziers et al.'s study implied that the principal had almost no effect on student outcomes, despite the responsibilities put on the principal through NCLB. The Witziers study minimized the instructional leadership role of the principal. These two studies with opposite conclusions re-opened the question of whether a causal connection between principal behaviors and academic student test score outcomes existed.

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) refuted the Witziers et al. (2003) study by limiting the studies in their meta-analysis to those studies that used student outcomes as the dependent variable and principal behaviors as the independent variables. These researchers found only 70 such studies that met their criteria. Marzano et al. listed 21 principal behaviors that closely mirrored the 25 principal behaviors found in Cotton's (2003) study. Marzano's study concluded that some principal behaviors and activities did have a relationship to student outcomes, but a relationship did not prove a causal connection. The lack of causal conclusions was a limitation in the Marzano study and all other correlation studies because a correlation cannot prove causation.

A correlation study is not causal, so in the debate about indirect and direct principal behaviors, researchers were looking for causal relationships, but were unable to produce one. Researchers wanted to be able to tell principals to "do this" and test scores will go up. Gentilucci and Muto (2007) believed that some evidence was accumulating to indicate that perhaps the principal's influence on student test scores was direct.   Gentilucci and Muto (2007) asserted that

> Evidence is emerging, however, to help principals better meet accountability
>
> requirements by focusing their limited instructional leadership time on factors that
>
> directly and significantly influence student achievement. The notion of direct and highly
>
> influential principal behavior effects is intriguing because it may lead to more effective
>
> use of instructional leadership time and improvement in student learning and
>
> achievement. (p. 220)

Although some promising principal behaviors associated with increased test scores have been uncovered in the research, the causal effects cannot be definitively proven.

Direct and indirect behaviors. A second direction of research was to find which efforts by the principals were associated with student test scores. As previously stated, Marzano et al. (2005) reported 21 behaviors that principals engaged in were associated with student test scores. The five activities with the highest correlation with student outcomes had correlation measurements between .27 and .33. The five activities were: (a) situational awareness meaning "aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems" (p. 42), (b) flexibility meaning "adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent" (p. 42), (c) discipline meaning "protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their

teaching time or focus" (p. 42), (d) outreach meaning "is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders" (p.43), and (e) monitoring and evaluating meaning "monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning" (p. 43). Looking at the definitions of these principal behaviors, situational awareness and flexibility seemed to be a combination of having an "ear to the ground" and using contingency leadership practices to deal with the things that are discovered. The principals knew what was going on and were able to adjust their style of leadership to cope. Discipline and outreach also seemed related because the principals buffered the organization from within and from without against distractions that interrupt the main purpose of the school, learning (Goldring, 1990). Monitoring and evaluating by Marzano's definition, included more than examining data. They also included program fidelity and program evaluation. The Marzano research was important because for the first time the different activities and behaviors of the principal were analyzed to see what part of the conceptualization of instructional leader was related to student test scores. The study concluded that some behaviors and activities were more influential than others.

The behaviors reported by Marzano, however, were "indirect" behaviors of the principal, and they would mainly be put into the category of influencing the culture of the school. The connection to the school culture refuted the argument that these were "direct" principal effects. If the effects were through culture, they were 'indirect" by the definition. The intermixing of the factors that form the connection between the principal, the culture, and the teachers confounded the argument that these behaviors were directly related to student achievement.

Gentilucci and Muto (2007) mentioned even more specific activities in a secondary school study that could be considered direct. The Gentilucci and Muto definition of direct behaviors included activities such as visiting classrooms on a regular basis, interacting with

students, publicly celebrating the accomplishments of students, and being visible to students on a daily basis. These types of principal behaviors were defined in this study as direct because the principal actually communicates with students face-to-face about expectations of high achievement and circumvented the teacher. The Gentilucci and Muto study was based on qualitative interviews with students from effective and ineffective schools about the behaviors of the principal that the students perceived affected their learning. This study stated, "It was clear from their narratives that students at all three schools believed effective principals can and do directly influence learning and academic achievement in their schools by engaging in certain student-principal activities and instructionally-focused behaviors" (p. 228). This study cited as high-influence, direct activities: (a) visible and approachable about learning, (b) frequent classroom visits, marked by interactive conversations about learning with students, (c) getting to know the students and helping in the role of a teacher. Through these principal-to-student behaviors the principal had direct instructional influence in students' lives because these behaviors did involve teachers. Low-influence principals were rarely visible to students, and rarely in classrooms except to take care of school business. The study, however, lacked any statistical comparison of student opinions of the behaviors of the principal and student achievement. The study was based solely on qualitatively collected student perceptions. This study recognized the difficulty of the direct-indirect argument.

The Gentilucci and Muto study did not dismiss the other indirect activities as helping with student outcomes. They accepted the idea that principals influenced student achievement through indirect and direct means. Their altered definition of direct activities was limited to meaningful principal-to-student behaviors, and all other principal activities fell into the indirect

category.   This study introduced the idea that the principal might influence student achievement by both direct and indirect methods.

Some researchers had the idea that the efforts of the principal only indirectly related to student test scores. Researchers in the 1990s, while accepting the principal as a factor contributing to student achievement, argued against the possibility that the principal could directly influence student achievement (O'Donnell & White, 2006). Because most principals never taught children in their role as a principal, many researchers had difficulty seeing how the principal's activities and behaviors directly influenced student test score achievement. At the same time, more participatory leadership styles began to gain importance in American schools (Hallinger, 1992). Restructuring meant a change in the way principals interacted with teachers, and began to recognize teachers (those closest to the students) as responsible for student outcomes. The indirect view of the principal's role was aligned with the idea of teacher empowerment.

"Although principals and teachers are the two most frequently examined sources of leadership in schools, there is almost no evidence concerning their relative effects" on student achievement (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999, p. 679). The authors attributed this lack of evidence to the teacher-controlled conditions in the classroom that mediated the change efforts of the principal and to the other variables that contributed to student achievement. The principal tried to change things by setting the goals for the school, providing professional development to the teachers, interfacing with the community about goals and vision, and enabling teachers to grow in leadership, but all these changes were really changes on the school culture. The principal could not change things in the classroom unless the teachers were agreeable to the changes.

Research showed a connection between principal instructional leadership and school cultural conditions, such as teacher leadership, vision and goals, planning, and evaluative standards (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). Lindahl (2006) stated that "school leaders can shape and develop cultures and climates that are in harmony with, and supportive of, the desired organizational changes" (p. 12). Hallinger and Heck (1996) listed four aspects of school conditions that influenced student performance: (a) purpose and goals, (b) school structure, (c) people, meaning employees, and (d) organizational culture. These four aspects happened outside of the classroom, suggesting to some researchers that the principal had an indirect influence on student achievement through the school culture (Gentilucci & Muto, 2007).

Although this study recognized that there is a debate over direct effects and indirect effects of instructional leadership, the research has not proven that direct effects actually exist. For this reason, the present study will be limited to a discussion of another debate about instructional leadership. This debate examines behaviors and activities of school principals that were included in the conceptualization of instructional leadership. However, the debate over direct and indirect effects had a major influence on the conceptual debate about instructional leadership.

Definitions of Instructional Leadership

As Sheppard (1996) pointed out, two definitions of instructional leadership emerged during the 1990's. A narrow view limited instructional leadership to only those activities that influenced curriculum, teacher instruction, staff collaboration and development and teacher supervision (Leithwood, 1994; Murphy, 1988). The other view of instructional leadership, which was much broader, included all principal activities and behaviors that had an impact on student learning and the culture of the school (Andrews and Soder, 1987; Donmoyer & Wagstaff,

1990; Murphy, 1988). The broader view of instructional leadership included principal activities such as resource acquisition and distribution, participating in discipline, and interfacing with the community, as well as issues of teaching and learning. The broad view contested the idea that the principal impacted student achievement directly, but instead supported the idea that the principal first influenced the school culture that in turn influenced student achievement (O'Donnell & White, 2006).

In 1984, Hallinger developed the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) as a way to measure the extent of a principal's instructional leadership. This instrument was used as a measurement tool in early principal effectiveness studies (Krug, 1986; Pavan & Reid, 1990, 1991). At the same time, another model for instructional leadership came from the Far West Lab and seven case studies done by Dwyer (1985). Hallinger and Murphy wrote, "Instructional management has meant anything and everything; an administrator trying to be an instructional leader has had little direction in determining just what it means to do so" (1985, p. 217). Instructional management is used synonymously with instructional leadership in this study. Included in their definitions of instructional leadership were (a) framing and developing school goals; (b) communicating the school goals to teachers, students, and parents; (c) supervising and evaluating instruction; (d) coordinating the curriculum and special programs; (e) monitoring student progress; (f) protecting instructional time; (g) maintaining high visibility; (h) providing incentives for teachers; (i) promoting professional development; (j) developing and enforcing academic standards and norms; and (k) providing incentives for learning . The PIMRS became the instrument of choice for many researchers in the late 1980s and early 1990s because it was easy to administer and quantitative in nature. However, PIMRS measured instructional leadership according to the effective school model. School leadership in this model resided in

the principal's hands and played out upon the school, teachers, and students. PIMRS's popularity waned as restructuring called for more teacher participation in school leadership and also in the standards and accountability period when student learning was the focal interest. PIMRS measured just one conceptualization of the broad definition of instructional leadership.

Broad definition. Many characteristics, behaviors, and activities were included in the broad definition of instructional leadership. Studies of instructional leadership explored many activities and behaviors of principals categorized in this study in six different areas of leadership. These are similar to the categories listed in Gupton's book (2003) about instructional leadership. The categories were compiled from the ground up from the literature by the researcher from many sources. The six categories are the abilities to: (a) combine many leadership personal skills, (b) manage basic operations, (c) develop social trust, (d) develop a compelling vision, (e) understand the change process, and (f) create an organization that learns and improves. Each of the six categories had several subtopics. For example, the ability to manage basic operations included managing resources, protecting teachers from distractions, creating a systematized order in the running of the school, and situational awareness. Table 2 summarized these qualities and activities included in the primary research that contributed to the broad definition of instructional leadership. The broad definition included the narrow definition, therefore, in the broad list are behaviors and activities of the principals that might also be included in the narrow definition. In the following pages, the reader will find an explanation of each characteristic, behavior, or activity included in Table 2.

Table 2

Characteristics of the Broad Definition of Instructional Leadership

The Ability to Combine Many Leadership Personal Skills
 Energy and enthusiasm (Fullan, 2002)
 Emotional intelligence (Byrk & Schneider, 2002a) (Tooms, 2003)
 Communication (Danielson, 2005)
 Decisiveness (Gupton, 2003) (Peterson & Cosner, 2005)
 Desire to be recognized (Waters, 2003)

The Ability to Manage Basic Operations
 Management of resources (Sebring & Bryk, 2006) (Tooms, 2003)
 Protection of teachers from distractions (Fullan, 2002)
 Creation of systematized order (Marzano, 2003)
 Situational awareness (Marzano, Waters, McNulty, 2005)

The Ability to Develop Social Trust
 Relationship builder (Fullan, 2002) (Sebring et al, 2006)
 Self-integrity (Hopkins, 2000) (Wherry, 2004)
 Acceptance of diversity (Fullan, 2002)
  (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003)
 Respect for others (Byrk & Schneider, 2002a)
 Visibility in school (Brewster & Klump, 2005) (Hopkins, 2000)

The Ability to Develop a Compelling Vision
 Vision for future (Fullan, 2002) (Hopkins, 2000)
 Articulation of vision (Sparks, 2005b)
 Inspiration for higher performance (Collins, 2001)
  (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003)
 Boundary spanning to community (Oliver, 2006)

The Ability to Understand the Change Process
 Organizational change agent (Fullan, 2002) (Sebring & Bryk, 2006)
 Acceptance of ambiguity (Fullan, 2002) (Peterson & Cosner, 2005)
 Conflict to cooperation (Fullan, 2002) (Tooms, 2003)

The Ability to Create an Organization that Learns and Improves
 Improvement of teaching practices (Brewster & Klump, 2005)
 Role model of continuous learning (Sparks, 2005b) (Tooms, 2003)
 Creation of knowledge (Fullan, 2002)
 Collaboration (Danielson, 2005) (Fullan, 2002) (Hopkins, 2000)
 Sustainability builder (Byrk & Schneider, 2002a) (Fullan, 2002)
 Reflection on practice using data (Cross & Rice, 2000)
  (Sparks, 2005b)

Personal leadership skills. Certain personal skills were considered necessary for effective instructional leadership in some research. These characteristics were generally included in lists of personal skills that a leader might possess. Without these valuable personal skills, the ability of the principal to deliver the broad definition of instructional leadership was impeded. Five subsets resulted.

Energy and enthusiasm. This characteristic was called positivity, achiever, and competitor who tried to make things better by Gallup's PrincipalInsight (2004), a test to measure the capabilities of potential principals. Waters et al. (2003) called this quality "optimizer". Fullan (2002) called for principals with energy and enthusiasm when he wrote, "cultural change principals display palpable energy, enthusiasm, and hope" (p. 16). Many authors believe that this energy is the means by which a principal can inspire co-workers. The principal's ability to maintain optimism through the implementation dip of change was often the difference between successful change and an abandoned hope for change.

Emotional intelligence. Gallup (2004) described this quality as "self-assurance" and "responsibility." Waters et al. (2003) described this quality as "independence," and Marzano et al. (2005) described it as "self-confidence" and "perseverance." Fullan (2002) and Tooms (2003) talked about emotional intelligence as a necessary characteristic of an effective principal. The principal deals with teachers, students, and parents. The principal must have the strength to separate what issues belonged to the principal and what issues belonged to other people. Fullan wrote, "Thus, leaders build relationships with diverse people and groups—especially with people who think differently. In complex times, emotional intelligence is a must" (p. 17). Principals

should be able to keep their own counsel and depend on people outside of the school for emotional support. Tooms (2003) wrote,

> Because the principalship is a lonely position, principals are tempted to confide in those whom they work closest with. But be careful, for this can be another pitfall. Machiavelli was on target when he pointed out that, given the choice between loyalties and saving one's own skin, most people will save themselves first . (p. 535)

Still, Bryk and Schneider (2002b) suggested that having a "positive regard" for others promoted respect for others as well.

Communication. Gallup (2004), Waters et al. (2003), and Kouzes and Posner (1995) wrote about the importance of the ability of a leader to communicate ideas. Communication skills were also espoused by Danielson (2005), Fullan (2002), Sparks (2005a), and Hopkins (2000).   Gupton (2003) included non-verbal communication and listening skills as well. Sparks (2005b) and Hopkins (2000) also discussed the principal's role as a communicator. Communication could be categorized as a characteristic that spreads across all the categories. The inability to communicate effectively hampers the educational leader's ability in all areas. Without supportive communication a principal cannot develop social trust; manage the basic operations and systematize procedures; transmit a compelling vision; help others through the change process; or turn an organization into a teaching and learning group. Communication was listed in nearly every article as a necessary attribute for a successful instructional leader. Sparks (2005a) interviewed Noel Tichy about his "*Teachable Points of Views*". These points are succinct, inspiring messages of ideas, concepts, and values designed to help a principal communicate more effectively. Tichy said there "is an urgent need that [your goal] is clear to others" (p. 3). All persons around the principal should know the "clearly stated goals and

expectations for students, teachers, and parents" (p. 3). Sparks (2005b) wrote, "Those organizations that take the final 2% of steps to permanent change must have leaders that shape the conversation by persistently offering their values, intentions, and beliefs to others and by expressing themselves in clear declarative sentences"(p.1). Both Tooms (2003) and Hopkins (2000) expressed that a sense of humor is necessary for an instructional leader. Some things were best expressed through humor instead of criticism. Some situations that caused conflict or stress could not be fixed. When a principal came up against such an unfixable problem, a humorous comment or attitude helped get everyone through to a solution. In the Hopkins (2000) survey of behaviors administrators felt were important for a principal to possess, out of 43 characteristics, a sense of humor rated eighth most important. Humor was sometimes the grease that helped the organization slide through the tough situations.

Decisiveness. Gallup's PrincipalInsight (2004) named this quality "deliberate" and "able to command." Waters et al. (2003) named it "multi-tasking" and "problem-solving. Peterson and Cosner (2005) also named decisiveness as a necessary personality trait of a successful leader. Teachers, who worked under the direction of a principal, sometimes appreciated a final decision on contested issues. Trust was eroded when decisions were inconsistent for different people, or decisions were left undecided.

Desire to be recognized. Waters et al. (2003) mentioned this characteristic as "significance", meaning the desire to make a difference. PrincipalInsight (2004) named this trait as "charismatic" or "woo-winning". The principal was central to the organization of the school, and whether the principal liked the role or not, the principal must be willing to assume the leadership role. Accepting the role of principal sometimes meant speaking in front of others, taking charge of meetings, getting people back-on-track, and being the center of attention. A

principal could not be an effective instructional leader if he or she was unwilling to assume the centrality of the role.

Managing basic operations. Even before the effective schools reform era, a good principal was expected to manage the operation of the school. Although other reforms in the educational system were sometimes stressed, the efficient operation of the school was still expected and cited as a source of an effective learning climate. As Bryk and Schneider (2000) pointed out, "Negative judgments about the principal's competence are quick to form when buildings are not orderly and safe"   (p. 24). Districts administrators and parents assumed that the principal should have success in this area. Other positive qualifications of the principal were not seen by parents and the district if basic operations were not done well. Bryk and Schneider wrote, "Competence in the execution of an individual's formal role responsibilities represents the second criterion for trust discernment" (p. 23). People regarded failure in the basic aspects of school management as failure as an effective principal. There are four aspects of school management that are important: management of resources, protection of teachers from distractions, creation of order by systematizing, and situational awareness.

Management of resources. Sebring and Bryk (2006) wrote that effective principals were efficient managers. They "got things done" and saw that teachers had the resources they needed. They made sure that students had the services and support they needed. Tooms (2003) suggested that new principals observe where other successful principals were getting resources and try to imitate them.

Protection of teachers from distractions. In addition to effective management, teachers need to be protected from distractions that are under the control of the principals. The distractions that prevented learning could include too many public announcements, visits from

insurance salesmen, and too many assemblies. The principal's job is to protect instructional time from outside influences. Schools have access to hundreds of good programs and sales items. However, the focus of a school must be on learning and not fancy programs. A common mistake for principals is allowing too many changes to happen at once. Every organization has a finite capacity. If the principal allowed the efforts of the staff to be diluted in too many directions, the likelihood of success on major goals was limited. Skilled principals, knowing that complex systems tend to overload (Fullan, 2002), made sure that the overall system could endure the number of innovations and projects proposed.

Creation of systematized order. Productive principals make decisions about hundreds of items concerning how the school is run. Teachers want to know where and when their class should come in from recess, who should be on duty at recess, how many minutes before class begins they could expect children in the building, and when they should go to library, computer, and physical education. The principal must establish a systemized way of dealing with all the details of the school to keep it running smoothly. Having a school-wide discipline program contributed to systematized school order (Marzano, 2003).

Situational awareness. Principals need a high degree of situational awareness. According Marzano et al. (2005), the instructional leadership behavior with the highest correlation with student learning was situational awareness. The study defined situational awareness as the ability to anticipate problems and solve them before others were aware of them. Situational awareness meant that the principal recognized from the slightest clues that a situation might be about to occur and act to subvert the situation.

Developing social trust.   Sebring and Bryk (2006) wrote that "a climate of trust was established when (a) the principal was accessible and really listened, (b) the principal

demonstrated integrity because words matched actions, (c) the principal provided basic resources

for teachers, and (d) the principal took a personal interest in the well-being of others" (p. 442).

Bryk and Schneider (2002b) wrote, "Specifically, we see relational trust operating as a resource

for school improvement in four broad ways: (a) organizational change entailed risk for all, (b)

transactional costs were reduced when people trust each other, (c) role obligations were routinely

reinforced in day-to-day behavior, and (d) sustained an ethical imperative to advance the best

interest of children" (pp.33-34). Trust was what made people risk in the change process; they

risked because they knew they would not be censored when trying new things that did not work

out. The actions and characteristics of the principal influenced the amount of social trust in a

school. In other words, a sense of gratitude for the work of others helped the principal build

social trust and a community culture of cooperation. Bryk and Schneider wrote, "In the context

of schooling, respect involved recognition of the important role each person played in a child's

education and the mutual dependencies that existed among the various parties involved in this

activity" (p. 23). No one person could run the school alone, so the principal must trust others to

carry out the mission of the school. The following seven subgroups fit into this category.

Relationship builder. Fullan (2002) argued that the ability to improve relationships was

one of five essential characteristics of leaders in a knowledge society. "The single factor

common to successful change is that relationships improve. If relationships improve, the school

gets better" (p. 19). The relationships that were built in the change process today would be a

critical resource for future change. In the Hopkins (2000) study administrators who were

surveyed mentioned offering meaningful kindnesses and kudos to staff and students as the tenth

most important behavior of instructional leaders. Teachers and students wanted to be treated

with positive regard and the assumption of good motives.

Self-integrity. Hopkins (2000) wrote the words of Cyndi Peterson, a principal from Texas, "If people—staff members, students, parents, community members, central office employees, school board members—don't believe you to be a person of integrity, it won't matter how well you communicate a vision, how visible you become, how hard you work to develop strong leaders and teachers." Not only do principals have to act consistently, they must also act in accordance to the moral standard in schools to do what is in the best interest of students. The underlying moral imperative in schools was "to do what is right for children" (p. 34). Wherry (2004) wrote that educators must focus on the shared goal of helping children to learn. In the school community, we live and work together on this great goal. Behavior by the instructional leader that was seen as counter to this goal was perceived as a breach of trust.

Acceptance of diversity. Fullan (2002) encouraged the educational leader to build relationships with diverse people, "especially those that think differently" (p. 2). Gallup (2004) called this being an includer, a relator, or builder of connectedness with others. Accepting the diversity of constituents helped build broad-based support for school improvement. Gallup called this "individualization" and Water et al. (2003) called this "flexibility." Recognizing that not all persons or events should be approached in the same way, an educational leader validates the diversity among people.

Respect for others. Bryk and Schneider (2002b) asserted that

> The school community members indeed attend to instrumental concerns. They value achieving desired personal outcomes and being able to influence core organizational procedures that affect their lives. Yet they also attend to the intimate personal qualities of these social exchanges: Do they appear respectful; promote a sense of

regard, affiliation, and self worth? And they bring a moral lens as well: Can the

behavior of others be understood as advancing the best interests of children? (p. 16)

Within the school faculty, respect for others also included recognition and respect for the

contributions of each party that touched the students.

Visibility in the school. An absent principal cannot build social trust because at those

critical moments when support for teachers is needed, the principal was not on site. "Visibility

in the school is one of the most important characteristics of effective administrators, according to

other administrators" (Hopkins, 2000, p. 1). Teachers advised principals to be visible and

available to teachers (Brewster and Klump, 2005). Being visible, teachers say, is more than

announcing an "open-door" policy. It means making time to listen to what teachers say. Being

approachable and visible was part of developing social trust.

Developing a compelling vision. In the 1990s, principals were seen as facilitators of

teacher progress. That progress was meant to be a function of the principal's compelling and

well-articulated vision. Oliver (2006) wrote, "As principals we must constantly be thinking

about the future, what changes are on the horizon, and how to keep the school on a path of

continual improvement" (p. 1).   This was particularly true in the information age when

everything was constantly changing. However, no vision will make a difference to the operation

of a school unless that vision was adequately packaged and articulated. All the participants in

the collaborative process within the school must be working towards the same compelling vision

or the efforts of the participants were at cross-purposes. Four subgroups contributed to this

category.

Vision for the future. Teachers must rally around a unified plan in order to make school

progress. Providing that plan, according to administrators surveyed in the Hopkins (2000) study,

is the #1 behavior of an effective principal that influenced student achievement. Each school should have an individualized vision that fits the circumstances of that school and the culture of the surrounding community. Fullan (2002) claimed that "coherence making' is one of the five essential skills of a leader in the knowledge society. This meant that the principal brought as many staff members as possible to work on the most critical goals that improved student achievement.

Articulation of vision. In an interview about articulation of vision, Noel Tichy talked about a principal's "Teachable Points of View" (TPOV). Principals should carefully examine their value systems and decide on several carefully selected and prepared ideas about their vision that they want to communicate with their staff. The principal's vision is three or four TPOV's that contain ideas, values, and emotional energy. The principal's value system should determine tough yes-no decisions. When those values are carefully and continually articulated, everyone knows what the critical decisions will be in advance. Tichy recommended the use of interesting stories to communicate the vision (Sparks, 2005a).

Inspiration for higher performance. Collins (2001) pointed out that real leadership "catalyzes commitment to a compelling vision and higher performance standards" (p. 20). This inspiration towards higher performance was what Waters and his colleagues (2003) called optimizer and PrincipalInsight (Gallup, 2004) called maximize. The principal communicates the goals and continues to focus attention on the goals. The principal communicates the goals not only to teachers, but beyond to the students and community. In a way, the leader became the spokesman for the goal through his/her repeated articulation. Sebring and Byrk (2006) stated that productive principals "align efforts with goals and put change on a timeline" (p. 441). Sparks (2005b) said that a true leader "sets goals that people think are impossible to achieve, and

then helps them to achieve them" (p. 1). This focusing of the efforts of an organization is what is meant by a compelling vision. It was not just a vision; it was a vision that led people to action. As Sparks explained, "It is the translation from what is learned in professional learning into the experiences of classroom practices" (p. 2).

Boundary spanning to community. The principal was the boundary spanner for the school according to Goldring (1990). The principal brought ideas to the school from the community, from university research, and from the district administration. This exposure gave the principal a different lens with which to view the school compared to teachers within the school. Oliver (2006) wrote, "Change comes from different sources. In some cases, the mandate for change may come from a source outside the school (district) . . . Other changes may come as a result of the vision of the school leaders who see that there is a need or deficiency within the school as a whole or in a certain segment of the school" (p. 2).   Oliver also wrote that every change has the potential for negative consequences as well as positive consequences. He urged principals to examine the potential results of change.

Understanding the change process. An effective instructional leader knows that in order to improve the school, habits must change. However, teachers seldom want to change and rarely feel that change is necessary. Teachers usually feel comfortable with the way things have been done because familiarity brought comfort. In order to change, teachers must risk what is comfortable to try new things, and that risk often causes anxiety. Fullan (2002) warned principals of schools in the process of change to "appreciate the implementation dip. Leaders cannot avoid the inevitable early difficulties of trying something new. They should know, for example, that no matter how much they plan for the change, the first six months or so of implementation will be bumpy" (p. 17). Teachers will often try the change, but immediately

want to give up because trying something new feels uncomfortable. The principal in a changing organization may have to endure complaints and drag along the stragglers who do not want to change. However, the principal should constantly articulate the vision of change until the change became sustainable. Three subgroup characteristics helped to explain how the principal promoted change.

Organizational change agent. Sebring and Bryk (2006) wrote that a productive principal began by correcting a few, highly visible, but easily solvable problems. This builds coherence and the positive momentum to tackle the longer-range goals of improving student achievement. Management problems were highly visible and usually easily corrected, thus a good place to start. Michael Fullan (2002) wrote, "The goal is not to innovate the most. Innovating selectively with coherence is better" (p. 2). Oliver (2006) wrote that the principal should consider the type of environment that will be left after the change was made before beginning to implement a new idea. "Change is primarily about leadership," stated Gil (2003, p. 309). But at the same time, change put a natural barrier between leadership and the worker (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). Many followers felt threatened by their fear of instability, fear of the loss of their power, fear of taking risks, or fear that change will cause anxiety . The leader must work to overcome this resistance and develop trust and tolerance for the proposed changes (Evans, 2001). The development of this trust was done through shared participation, facilitation, communication, negotiation, and managing the speed of change (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). A change that leaves in its wake a demoralized faculty made the next change that much harder to make. Sometimes administrators learned by their mistakes in this area. As Tooms (2003) wrote, "What our administrative team thought were small changes were not always received as such" (p. 5). According to Marzano and his colleagues (2003), "It is not simply enough to know what to do,

but principals need to know why, how, and when to do things" (p. 8). Marzano wrote that "flexibility" in leadership style or situational leadership was important in directing change. Controlling the pace of change helps the organization risk during the change process. Fullan wrote, "To make change longer lasting, the change leader must rewrite "what people value in the organization and how they work together to accomplish it" (p. 19). Building sustainability for the change was the ultimate goal of the instructional leader. Sustainability is built through changed habits in teachers.

Acceptance of ambiguity. The change process did not always go exactly as planned and the principal cannot get discouraged by temporary setbacks. The change process is messy and proceeds at its own pace. Peterson & Cosner (2005) wrote about the work of the principal, "Many tasks and actions also are marked by ambiguity. The core problem is not immediately clear. . . Principals face a high level of uncertainty each workday" (p. 28). Gallup (2004) named "adaptability or the ability to cope with ambiguity" as one of the important characteristics of the effective instructional leader. "The change leader did not necessarily need to be an expert in the content of the innovation, but must be an expert in managing the process of change", wrote Fullan (2002, p. 19). Understanding that everything will not be clear at certain times during the change process helps the principal maintain the steady course, even when things are a little uncertain.

Conflict into cooperation. Fullan (2002) claimed that the ability to improve relationships was one of the five characteristics of leaders in a knowledge society. If a principal understood the change process, the changes were done in such a way as to preserve relationships. The change principal did this by redefining complaints into helpful suggestions for improvement. Tooms cautioned principals to be aware that in "some situations it is just not possible to 'fix it'

or 'make it go away'. A principal's job was to try and solve problems. When they can't be fixed, a principal's job also meant dealing with frustrations and angry people" (2003, p. 533) and lessening their impact.

Creating an Organization that Learns and Improves. Perkins (2004) asserted that "knowledge art in tune with professional learning communities was (a) creating knowledge, (b) communicating knowledge, (c) organizing knowledge , and (d) acting on knowledge" (p. 14). A professional learning community is about knowledge and how it is transmitted through an organization. In a school, the new knowledge produced concerns teaching strategies, student learning, curriculum, and assessment. The new knowledge includes learning to work together in order to use the expertise within and without the school to improve practice. It also utilizes that knowledge for the benefit of students. There are six subset categories that fit under creating a learning organization.

Improvement in teaching practices.   Brewster and Klump (2005) asserted that teachers wanted professional development opportunities, but were often hesitant to use the ideas unless it fit easily into their comfort zone. However, the difference between activities that keep children busy and real learning activities was sometimes large. Also, if professional development focused on what the *teacher* should do instead of what the *student* should do, teachers were often unwilling to implement the learning. Sparks (2005b) wrote,

> Profound professional learning produces teachers and administrators who say what they have not said, believe what they have not believed, understand what they have not understood, and do what they have not done. This is the final 2% of professional learning. It is the translation from what is learned in professional learning into the experiences of classroom practice. Some of the methods of profound change are action

research, designing and evaluating student assessments, case discussions, classroom

walk-throughs, critical friend groups, curriculum design, data analysis, journal writing,

mentoring, peer coaching, portfolios, shadowing students, turning protocols, and study

groups (p. 9).

Brewster and Klump found in their research that only a few teachers were asked to talk about

instruction with their principals and most principals admitted to spending much more time on

safety than on instruction.

Levine and Lezotte (1990) highlighted the principal's role in selecting and replacing

teachers and supervising their performance. Because the teacher is the single most important

variable in the school that affected student learning (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999), the

principal's role of hiring good teachers was essential. After hiring strong teachers, the principal

should assure that they remain strong through clinical supervision and professional development.

Role model of continuous learning. Nothing was more powerful than the power of

example. Teachers were much more willing to try new things if they could see their principal

taking risks with new learning. Tooms (2003) claimed that "principals are like the patriarchs or

matriarchs of a huge family. . . What we wear, how we interact with others, and the kind of car

we drive are all open to scrutiny" (p.1). If principals wanted teachers to learn new things and try

new things, then the principal should set the example. Tichy defined a teaching organization as

"one in which everyone is a teacher, everyone is a learner, and as a result, everyone gets smarter

every day" (Sparks, 2005b, p. 12). The principal set the example for this cultural phenomenon.

Creation of knowledge. The purpose of a professional learning community was to work

together to build the joint capacity of the teaching faculty. In an age of rapidly changing

knowledge, a faculty whose knowledge remained stagnant could not to offer excellent

educational experiences. Fullan (2002) wrote, "Knowledge creation and sharing is one of five essential characteristics of the leaders in the knowledge society" (p. 11), and it ought to be part of what teachers do every day as part of their job. "A norm of sharing one's knowledge with others is the key to continual growth for all" (p. 12). In a knowledge producing organization teachers were teaching but also learning from their teaching experiences every day.

Collaboration. Fullan (2002) wrote that "fragmentation was a natural tendency of complex systems" (p. 9). Teachers easily shut the door and "do their own thing" within the confines of their own classrooms. However, effectiveness of the school is determined by the collective capacity of all the teachers. Sharing knowledge happens through the act of collaboration where teachers come together and share their knowledge with each other. Danielson (2005) claimed that part of the professional development that teachers need is training on how to collaborate with each other. After years of working separately, many teachers did not know how to share and be supportive of each other. Hopkins (2000) suggested that principals acknowledge that they were not in charge alone; that the principal actually shares that power with all the teachers in the building.

Sustainability builder. Bryk and Schneider (2002a) echoed this power-sharing idea by writing, "A principal's willingness to share decision-making power also communicates his or her trust in fellow staff members, an essential step toward building the rich, respectful relationships fundamental to lasting school change" (p. 39). Sustainability means the ability of a staff to sustain changes that are made within the school far beyond the principal's tenure. Sustainability grew from the leadership of teachers. Fullan (2002) scribed "the goal is sustainable change in a knowledge society. Sustainability's key components are (a) social environment, (b) learning in context or learning at work, (c) leaders at many levels, and (d) enhancing the teaching

profession" (p. 11-12).   Individual achievement did not make sustainable change, collaborative achievement made sustainable change.

Reflection on practice using data. "Great leaders I've observed have the ability to both act and reflect. If all they do is reflect, they suffer from analysis paralysis. If all they do is act, they are hip-shooters" stated Tichy (Sparks, 2005a, p. 51). Reflection is a critical part of learning from experience. Reflection is a process of considering what happened and why, what it meant, and how to change it in the future (Hole & NcEntee, 1999). No matter how we try to see the results of our actions, reliable data illuminated what happened more clearly. Cross and Rice (2000) wrote,

> Training faculty to use data as an avenue to evaluate their instruction and as a guide for making future plans was imperative for principals in a collaborative setting. If teachers could discover the trends themselves instead of being told about the trends, they might be more accepting of the changes that must be made and begin to improve. (p. 62)

This is the last of the abilities deemed important to the principal by the broad definition of instructional leadership. These six characteristics and subtopics paint a picture of the many roles that a principal has.

Narrow Definition. In the early 1980s, the role of the instructional leader was defined as the entire role of the principal (Hallinger, 2003), or the broad definition of instructional leadership. Later during the restructuring time period, conceptualizations of the term "instructional leader" viewed instructional leaders as the culture transformers. Some research suggested that top-down instructional leadership was no longer a viable model for leadership (Hallinger, 2000). As the standards and accountability wave began to take hold, the focus of school reform concentrated on student test scores. The definition of instructional leadership

began to narrow to those principal behaviors that made a difference to student achievement test scores (Cotton, 2003; Marzano, Waters, & NcNulty, 2005).

Leithwood et al.(1999) wrote that instructional leadership's attention should be on the "behaviors of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students" (p. 8). This idea was reinforced by Southworth (2002) who wrote,

> It was also noted that some versions of instructional leadership focus, additionally, on other organizational variables such as school culture because these are believed to influence teacher behaviors as well. Therefore, it is possible to distinguish between 'narrow' and 'broad' views of instructional leader. Broad forms encompass organizational and teacher culture issues, whereas narrow forms restrict themselves to leadership which focuses only on teacher behaviors which enhance pupils' learning (p. 77).

The narrow definition of instructional leadership was thus a subset of the broad definition of instructional leadership.

Confusion about Instructional Leadership in Research. The debates –direct or indirect, broad or narrow—are the assumptions of the research literature about instructional leadership. Research literature rarely declared outright the assumptions it took on these two debates, yet subtle differences were in the assumptions and in the quotes. The following table showed how leading writers used their assumptions about instructional leadership. The quotes on Table 3 illustrate that the authors made certain assumptions about the broadness or narrowness of instructional leadership and also about whether the principal could make a direct or indirect contribution to student test score outcomes.

Table 3 showed the range of assumption combinations that formed the basis of the conclusions of different studies about improving schools. Every combination of narrow-to-broad and direct-to-indirect definitions was represented describing the term of instructional leadership. These assumptions affected how each author viewed instructional leadership and what they saw as the meaning of instructional leadership. They wrote different descriptions of what instructional leadership meant as a result of their differing assumptions.

One of the difficulties of comparing studies about instructional leadership was trying to discern which definition of instructional leadership was used. The term instructional leadership was used to mean many different principal activities and behaviors. Many articles and studies assumed that the reader knew the definition of instructional leadership and failed to define this term at all. When there were so many nuances to the definition, principals had difficulty understanding what the role meant.

Four of the recent books published about instructional leadership took different definitions of instructional leadership. Two of them took the broad definition of instructional leadership. Gupton (2003) wrote about vision, mission, culture, climate, and looking for clues that teaching and learning were taking place, a broad approach. McEwan (2003) wrote about setting standards, developing a coherent program, being an instructional resource to teachers, creating a climate and culture, developing teacher leaders, and holding teachers accountable. This approach was also broad, but essentially different. The McEwan approach was broad because the principal improves practice through teachers. Glantz (2006) wrote about best practices in teaching, curriculum, and supervision. Glantz's approach was narrow by listing things an effective instructional leader could do to improve achievement through instruction.

Table 3

Assumptions in the Literature about Instructional Leadership

_____

Author and Date	Assumptions	Quote
Austin & Reynolds, 1990, p. 169	Broad, Indirect	"The role of the principal as the developer of a clear vision of the school. Strong leadership skills of teachers are essential to produce positive results."
Bossert, Dwyer, Rowen, & Lee, 1982, p. 35, 54	Narrow,	"perceived to be strong programmatic leaders who knows the learning problems in their classrooms. Provides coherence to their school's instructional programs, conceptualizing high academic standards, staying informed of policies and teacher's problems, making frequent classroom visits." "A principal's management behavior have both direct and indirect effects on student learning."
Cross & Rice, 2000, p. 1	Narrow Indirect	"Where schools are successful, one will find a principal who places academics first who knows how to motivate staff and teachers. The principal can demonstrate a new emphasis on instructional leadership through active support of good teaching, fostering a climate that continually monitors the content to be learned, and by recognizing high student performance on rigorous standards."
Dwyer, 1985 p. 10	Broad Indirect	Nine activities were important in the principal's daily routine for instructional leadership: goal setting, planning and monitoring, evaluating, communicating, scheduling, and allocating resources and organizing, staffing, modeling, governing and filling in.
Edmonds,	Narrow	"One of the correlates of effective schools.

1982, p. 11	Indirect	is the principal's instructional leadership. One of the manifestations of instructional leadership is frequent principal-teacher discourse focused on diagnosing and solving instructional problems in the classroom."
Gaziel, 1995 p. 182, 184 191	Narrow Direct	(p.182) "Instructional management includes activities related to teaching, curriculum, and staff meetings." (p.184) "Principals at high-performing schools spent 60.7% of the observed time initiated by the principal." (p. 191) "principals at high-performing schools spent 87% more time than their counterparts in planning and acting for school improvement."
Hallinger & Murphy, 1985 pp. 220-221	Broad Indirect	"Studies of instructionally effective schools suggest that the instructional management role of the principal can be subdivided into three general dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting a positive learning climate."
Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990, pp. 100,104, 120	Broad Direct	(p. 100) The model splits the principal instructional leadership governance behaviors into school climate and instruct-tional organization that impacts student achievement. (p. 104) The instrument tested for 34 instructional leadership behaviors of the principal and found 29 most important. (p.120) The results of the study supported the idea that through the "the frequency and effectiveness of implementing instructional leadership behaviors identified principals can have a direct effect on achievement levels of their schools."

Blasé and Blasé (2004) wrote about three things that the instructional leader should do: the instructional conference, guiding teacher reflection, providing staff development. Blasé and Blasé presented a conceptualization that is much narrower. These four recent books exemplify the conceptual problems for the term instructional leadership as each book developed a different conceptualization.

As the standards and accountability reform began to influence practices in the schools, test scores became paramount. Principals were eager to do things that promoted this academic measurement. The most recent definitions of instructional leadership narrowed to those principal behaviors that affected student test scores (Marzano et al., 2005). This narrower definition moved away from the broad definition prevalent during the restructuring period. However, both definitions are currently acceptable.

Confusion about the conceptualization of instructional leadership made comparisons of research difficult. Practicing principals define for themselves what instructional leadership meant, based on their understanding of the term. The purpose of this research will be to find out what conceptualizations of instructional leadership principals operated under, and whether those conceptualizations affected how the principals spend their time.

Principal's Use of Time

The principal's daily work is very complex. The number of daily decisions, the number of people, the judgment calls made, and the interruptions, all combined to make the principal's day stressful (Fields, 2005). Peterson and Cosner (2005) listed four ways that the principal's job was complex: (a) "collectively" meaning that the sheer number of tasks was overwhelming, (b) "brevity" meaning that each short interaction required a quick decision based on the interests of different stakeholders in multiple situations, (c) "variety" meaning that the knowledge base

required for each interaction was broad, and (d) "fragmentation" meaning that the tasks were often performed in short, interrupted time periods. All of these conditions make the principal's job difficult .

Peterson and Cosner (2005) wrote, "Principals' daily work comprises an enormous number of brief tasks. Principals engaged in more than 200 separate interactions a day and the first and last hours of their days may include more than 50-60 separate interactions with multiple stakeholders needing answers to questions, problems solved, and concerns addressed" (p. 1). These data were collected in 1982. The rapid increase of responsibilities falling on the principal's job plate in the last decade caused Kennedy (2002) to write after attending a meeting at the U.S. Department of Education where they were discussing the job of the principal:

> At one such meeting, participants concluded that today's principal must be a manager, instructional leader, visionary, politician, strategist, community leader, and, following the events of September 11th, an emotional leader as well. That made me wonder if a principal's job posting should read, 'Only God need apply.' As if it isn't enough to ask principals to fill all of those roles, the new "No Child Left Behind" legislation places the responsibility for raising achievement levels for all students squarely on their shoulders. (p. 28)

The job of principal is a complex mixture of many different roles.

Martin and Willower (1981) found that most of the high school principal's task interactions were very brief. In their study, 81.4% of the tasks took one to four minutes. The most frequent amount of time that a task took was one minute. Only 9% of tasks took over 10 minutes. The study showed that the principal was literally jumping from task to task, sometimes doing two tasks at once. Most of the principal's interactions were face-to-face interactions with

people within the school. Even conversations with other people tended to be brief. Blendinger and Snipes (1996) found that the principals they observed had about 249 face-to-face people interactions in one day.

The variety of the tasks that principals deal with is also found to be difficult. On the same day, the principal might manage problem cases of discipline, monitor students in the hall, make sure the lunch program functions properly, deal with ice on the sidewalk, inspect the playground equipment, make sure a repair is done on the building, hire new personnel, work on budgets, answer the school phone when the secretaries are busy, deal with a playground injury, interface with a government agency about child abuse, hold special education meetings, listen to the personal problems of teachers, look at data about student achievement, and look in on the instruction in the classroom. Add to these the tasks of dealing with daily mail, e-mail, and telephone calls and the principal has an over-full day. Because each of these tasks takes specialized background knowledge, the principal must have immediate access to a great deal of tacit knowledge (Quinn & St. Germain, 2005).

Fragmentation meant that the task that the principal was doing was interrupted by other tasks before completion. In Martin and Willower 's (1981) study of five high school principals over 25 days, literally 50% of all tasks were interrupted at least once. This study pointed out that the principals were often interrupted by some sort of crisis, the resolution of which required the principal's attention and problem solving skills.   Jeff Archer (2004) described this as "putting out fires" (p. 1). The fires included things like disgruntled parents, sexual harassment between students, fights on the playground, drop-in inspectors, and arguing teachers. These interruptions take up the principal's time during the school day.

Ways principals use their time. Few primary research studies examined how elementary principals really spend their time. Five studies put a quantitative value on the principal's time. Four of the five studies tracked the high school principal's time. One Israeli study tracked elementary principals (Gaziel, 1995). The descriptions for the parameters in each study varied in name. Using the Martin and Willower (1981) descriptors (which were the most comprehensive) and fitting the other studies around these descriptors , each study's percentages were fit into the chart on Table 4. All five studies employed qualitative data collection methods and translated the data into a quantitative form. The purpose of the studies was theory building. In the Hill (1993) study, the principal self-reported her use of time over 60 days. The purpose of this study was to demonstrate that conflict resolution and special education were taking up a large portion of her day. Hill felt that her principal preparation training had not covered the two tasks that were taking up much of her time. The potential for bias was high in the Hill study because the study's method was self-observing to prove a point. The validity of this study was questionable (Trochim, 2006). Hill lumped teacher and student supervision into one category accounting for only 6% of her day. Her study indicated an alarmingly small amount of time devoted to teaching and learning. However, this percentage agreed with the Morris and colleagues' (1984) study where outside observers followed high school principals around for 200 hours in 26 schools. They found that principals only spent 7% of their time in classrooms. The Blendinger and Snipes (1996) study was done by two outside observers, but the duration of the study was short (2 days) and the sample size was one novice high school principal. Reliability was in question on this study (Trochim, 2006) because the principal's job changed so drastically from day to day. Also, taking data from a novice principal added another variable into the data.

Table 4

Comparison of Studies That Quantify Principals' Time Use

_____

Work Type	Martin & Willower 1981	Morris et al 1984	Blendinger & Snipes 1996	Hill 1993	Gaziel 1995 (Average Principal)
Desk Work	6%	45%	44%	58%	34%
Scheduled Meetings	17%		10%	12%	11%
Unscheduled Meetings	28%			16%	1%
Conversations	9%		249/day	8%	
Phone	6%				
Personal	5%				5%
Monitoring Building	13%		37%		
Outside Trips	2%				15%
In Classrooms	2%				14%
Strategic Planning	.1%				5%

The Blendinger and Snipes study accounted for 90% of the principal's time and showed

that in the remaining 10% of the principal's time, he/she handled 249 exchange interactions. No

observations or teaching and learning activities were recorded in this study, but if these activities

occurred, they would have been less than 10% of the principal's time. The results of this study

verified the low percentage of time that principals actually spend on teaching and learning. The Blendinger and Snipes (1996) study was more than ten years old . The results of this study did not include the changes brought about in the role of the principal with the introduction of NCLB. According to the Martin (2005) study, 83.4% of 300 respondent principals thought the job of principal had changed with the added roles under NCLB. The Martin (2005) study showed that NCLB had a huge impact on the role and focus of the principal.

Martin and Willower (1981) also studied high school principals. This qualitative study was more reliable and valid because of a larger number of study participants drawn from different types of schools and covered a longer period of observation (five weeks). The study used the Mintzberg (1979) business model of how managers spent time to compare the principal time use. Martin and Willower found that the five principals in their study used their time in approximately the same proportional ways as business managers. They noted that principals spent 3.5% of their time observing teachers, but some teaching and learning activities could have been included in the 17% of scheduled meetings depending upon how instructional leadership was defined. This study agreed with the other three studies because it shows that a small amount of the principal's time was used for instructional leadership. The study was outdated, having been done before site-based management, parental empowerment (choice), Goals 2000, and NCLB.

In the Blendinger's and Snipes' (1996) study, Hill's (1993) study, and the Morris's and colleagues' (1984) study, the amount of office work that the principals did was fairly stable (45%, 44%, and 53%), but the Martin's and Willower's (1981) study reported only 16%. However, if you combined the descriptor "desk work" and "unscheduled meetings" which both occur mostly in the office, the percentage is more comparable (43.3%).   All the studies

confirmed that the principal did a lot of work within the office. Office work kept the principal out of classrooms.

Although these five studies quantified (percentages) the way principals spent their time, they were mostly high school principal studies, out of date (before the passage of NCLB), and two of them had marginal research methods. The one elementary study, Gaziel (1995), was an international study in which the author asked for comparable studies from other countries. Clearly more information about the elementary principal's use of time is needed.

Kennedy (2002) suggested that the principal's job be redefined and split into two jobs – one managerial and one the leader of teaching and learning. The Wallace Foundation (2005) agreed and piloted a study at three schools with different intake demographics. The Foundation hired a $30,000 per year manager to do office work and community relations, leaving the principal free to focus his/her time on improving student test scores. In each of the three schools in the pilot study, student test scores went up significantly. The pilot study showed that student test scores rose when principals focused more of their time and attention on student learning regardless of the socio-economics of the school. Gaziel (1995) agreed with these findings when he wrote, "Principals at high-performing schools spent more time on instructional management than did principals at average schools (13.45 vs. 7.4%, 81% more)" (p. 184). If improving student performance was tied to increasing the principal's time spent on teaching and learning, then we needed to know how principals were spending their time.

Perceptions of the principal's time. The five aforementioned primary research studies quantified the percentage of time that principals spent on different activities. However, a number of other primary research studies examined the way principals feel about the time they spend at their jobs. These studies focused on the principal's perception of time usage.

The Kellogg (2005) study was the only quantitative study that addressed the issue of how the elementary principal spent time.   The response rate was very low (10%), calling into question the sampling distribution of the study, although in the end 286 elementary principals did self-report in this study. The research did not report how the respondents represented the stratified random sampling that the researcher originally set up for sampling. The principals were asked to rank by order how they would like to spend their time and then the way they actually spent their time. The principals were asked to respond in seven categories of activities: (a) staff, (b) student, (c) managerial, (d) curriculum, (e) strategic, (f) fiscal, and (g) community. The rank orders did not represent percentages of time spent at the activities in this study, but rather the average percentage of principals that ranked that category first, a different measurement system than the five studies in the previous section.

The Kellogg (2005) study found that there was a large gap between how the principals wanted to spend their time and how they were actually spending their time. This finding agreed with the Whitaker and Turner (2000) finding that principals wanted to spend more time on instructional leadership, but because of the many other roles they were expected to fill, they could not find time to fit more instructional leadership into their schedules. These two studies introduced the idea that although principals may have a concrete conceptualization of instructional leadership, the principals may not be able to spend their time as they think would most benefit their schools. Too many competing roles kept the principal from doing instructional leadership.

Researchers might question if the frustration principals felt about how they spent their time was related to their career stage. The Kellogg (2005) study controlled for length of tenure and found no significant difference between the perceptions of experienced principals and non-

experienced principals about their ideal and actual time spent on instructional leadership. Because the Blendinger and Snipes (1996) study of a novice principal showed similar percentages of time usage as the five experienced principals in the Martin and Willower (1981) study, these two studies combined together present additional evidence that career stage was not a factor in the way principals used their time. Martin and Willower indicated that the percentages of time spent were remarkably similar for all five of their study participants. The amount of time for instructional leadership did not seem to increase with increased tenure of the principal.

Berlin, Kavanaugh, and Jensen (1988) wrote another rank order study of how superintendents, high school principals, and middle school principals rated the principal's ideal and actual time on tasks. Superintendents saw few discrepancies between what the principal was doing and what they should be doing, except in the area of mentoring new teachers. Principals responded that they thought they were doing the right things, except they didn't think they were "encouraging articulation" or "giving rewards for innovation" (p. 45). Superintendents, principals, and teachers were in agreement about what was important for the principal to do. When interpreting this study, it is important to remember that the study was done in l988. The principal's job at that time was much less involved because effective school studies were just beginning to gain importance in the 1980s. The Martin (2005) study indicated that principal perceptions may have changed about their jobs.

In the Taylor (2007) dissertation from Kansas State University, an online survey study of 200 Nevada secondary principals was completed during the 2006-2007 year. Sixty principals responded to the survey. The survey had a demographics section, a Likert scale of twenty-five questions about whether they used certain time management strategies as well as 18 instructional

leadership questions on a Likert scale. On time management skills, principals rated themselves highest on setting goals for themselves. They rated themselves lowest on "delaying in making a decision for fear of making a mistake." This finding agreed with the Peterson (2005) and the Martin and Willower (1981) studies that indicated that most principal tasks took under four minutes. Principals did not feel they had time to stew over the correctness of decisions. The Taylor dissertation found that secondary principals in larger schools perceived that they used more time management skills than principals of smaller schools. Female principals rated themselves higher on instructional leadership items.

Robertson's (2006) article was based on her dissertation research and divides principal work styles into five groups: (a) "hoppers "(p. 12) who take every task that comes their way as it comes, (b) "perfectionist plus" (p. 13) who keep track of everything they do and try to do everything perfectly, (c) "allergic to detail"(p. 13) who prefer to deal in the big picture and delegate the detail to subordinates, (d) "fence sitters" (p. 13) who won't make up their minds until they are sure they have the very best solution, and (e) "cliff hangers" (p. 14) who procrastinated everything until the last minute. Sixty-one percent of principals used the hopper style predominantly, although most principals reported using several different styles when needed. The hopper style, according to this researcher, was a reactionary style. The hopper style might be explained by both the rate of interruptions and the average length of time for task completion talked about in the Martin and Willower (1981) study. Work styles clearly influence time usage.

Values reflected in the principal's time use. The Gaziel (1995) study suggested that high-performing principals controlled their time to be more in line with their values than average-performing principals. These high-performing principals initiated more of their

activities by scheduling their time and thus reducing the amount of unscheduled and interrupted time. High-performing principals spent 68% of their time at work dealing with internal school affairs. They also spent a higher percentage of their time dealing with these internal affairs roaming the school rather than in the office (10% more time in the teachers' rooms, and 10% less time in the office). High-performing principals spent twice as much time on instructional management, twice as much on parent-community relations, half as much time dealing with interruptions, and a lot less time managing the office. The list of high-performing schools in this study was chosen randomly from an award winning four-year list. To be on the high-performing list, a school was evaluated by the Ministry of Education and had to have academic performance above the expected range of performance for the represented student population. The Gaziel study implied that high-performing principals chose different patterns of time usage than average-performing principals by aligning their time more closely to the narrow definition of instructional leadership than average-performing principals.

McEwen and Salters (1997) studied the values of principals of primary grade schools and found that the high-performing principals highly valued principal activities that focused on developing relationships between colleagues. This study agreed with Gaziel's (1995) finding that 77% of all principals' time was spent on verbal communication. This finding agreed with the Martin and Willower (1981) study that asserted that 70% of the principal's time was spent in face-to-face interactions. With so much time interacting verbally with people, it was easy for a principal to be thrown off their value regimen, but high-performing principals continued to talk about teaching and learning despite the interruptions. McEwen and Salters also found that high-performing elementary principals valued activities that focused on planning and reflection on teaching practices.

Robinson's (2006) study contended that 61% of principals used "the hopper" style of time management. Principals that use the hopper style jumped from problem to problem, solving whatever crisis came in the door. Often this hopper characteristic was described as an open-door policy that was sometimes applauded among principals. However, the Gaziel (1995) study argued the value of this style with evidence that scheduled objectives were more effective.

Pavan and Reid (1994) wrote that female principals practiced instructional leadership at a higher rate than male principals. Bulach, Boothe, and Michael (1999) found that teachers rated female instructional leaders higher than male principals. Researchers were not sure why females may be more likely to display instructional leadership in a different way than male principals. Some researchers suggested that female principals were more likely to have had a well-grounded experience background as a teacher before becoming principals. Some researchers have suggested that female principals engaged their teachers in more dialogue about teaching and learning.

An effective instructional leader operates from a preconceived conceptualization of instructional leadership, either narrow or broad or somewhere in between the two. Gupton (2003) wrote, "There is no value-free leadership; the term is an oxymoron because at the heart of leadership and its close companion—good decision making—are the values and beliefs that form the framework for guiding behaviors and action." (p. 3). The core beliefs and values about instructional leadership guided a principal's behaviors and activities when they were participating in this role. Ruff's and Shoho's (2005) research told about three principals with different conceptualizations about instructional leadership, and showed that administrators chose different activities as a result of their conceptualizations. Ruff and Shoho found that although all the principals had a conceptualization for the term instructional leadership, their ideas were not

the same. In other words, the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership determined the types of stimuli that the principal perceived and gave a response to. These responses shaped an instructional effect on the culture of the school.

The Ruff and Shoho (2005) study emphasized the way the principal's perception affected the principal's interactions with the school. Three different principals spent their time in different ways according to the values they held. Ruff and Shoho wrote,

> The perceptual focus directs the active observation of what is happening through a filter of expectancy. Individual values and beliefs establish desired states or standards in which the observation is assessed. Procedural schema directs the considerations that are made in designing an approach in response to the assessment. Tacit assumptions combine with situational factors in implementing the approach. (p. 557)

Principals saw their schools in different ways through the schema of values they possessed; they thus spent their time working on what they saw as important in their schools, according to their conceptualization.

Differences among principals in time use. Only a little research has been published about how elementary school principals spend their time. The one elementary study, Gaziel (1995) represented Israeli elementary principals. The study was done in 1995 and NCLB was not a factor. Also, Israeli elementary principals were required to teach six hours a week, and this requirement skewed the time usage of Israeli principals in a way not representative of American elementary principals. From the primary research articles about high school principals in the United States the researcher found that the principals spent an average of about 7% of their total time on instructional leadership. This percentage did not account for differing broad to narrow definitions. This figure agreed with the Gaziel study. Research literature does not give

information of instructional leadership time for the elementary principal. The research existing about high school principals and their instructional leadership time is hard to compare because of the problem in the differing definitions of instruction leadership.

Discussing instructional leadership, Marks and Printy (2003) wrote, "Although the variation made the study possible, it served as a reminder that effective school leadership, as distinct from management, was a relatively rare commodity" (p. 392). Answering the questions about how principals defined instructional leadership and if that definition changed the way principals spent their time may help us understand some of that variation that made some principals effective school leaders and others, who also worked hard, less successful. The conceptualization of instructional leadership that the principal carried may play a role in how the principal chose to spend time.

Conclusion

The first section of the literature review summarized how the role of the principal had changed through different educational reform stages. The role of principal changed in ways that mirrored the changes in business theory, government policy, and social demand. However, in every period of reform, the role of principal seemed to be central to improving schools and obtaining better student test scores. Because these stages of reform built upon each other, the accompanying conceptualizations overlapped as well. This overlapping and changing definitions of instructional leadership over time fostered confusion about the exact meaning of instructional leadership.

The second section summarized the development and definitions of the principal as instructional leader of the school (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Instructional leadership is currently closely associated with increasing student test scores. Yet in the literature review, the meaning

of instructional leadership was debated. The definition of an instructional leader has multiple, acceptable definitions. A broad definition included almost everything the principal did on the job to establish a learning environment. A more narrow definition, which was a subset of the broad definition, is also acceptable in current literature. Many variations of the two also exist.

The third section of the literature review summarized the literature about how principals spend time and how their use of time related to instructional leadership. Although the researcher found little literature about how an elementary principal spent time, the literature available about secondary principals indicated that principals spent very little of their time doing instructional leadership (by the narrow definition). The Gaziel (1995) study, the only study of elementary principals' time usage, concluded that those principals who spent more time on the activities in the narrow definition of instructional leadership led schools that had higher than expected achievement. (However, the Gaziel study was done in Israel and may not compare to American principals.)

The Ruff and Shoho (2005) study raised the question about whether the way the principal conceptualized instructional leadership affected the way principals spent their time. People made time for the activities that they valued. If a principal operated on the broad definition, will that principal use their time differently than a principal who operated on a narrow definition? This study sought to discover how principals defined instructional leadership, and how that definition translates into their practice. There was little research that focused on how elementary principals in the United States formed their conceptualization of instructional leadership and spent their time. Therefore, the intent of this study is to compare elementary principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership with their time usage and examine if the way the principals spent their time was affected by the way they conceptualized instructional leadership.

Chapter Three

Methods

The purpose of this study was to explore principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership and how these conceptualizations influenced the way principals used their time. This study used qualitative methods coupled with survey methodology to collect data through constructed and focused questions about how practicing elementary principals conceptualized instructional leadership and how they used their time. The information for this study was collected through face-to-face interviews with 30 practicing elementary principals who participated in the sample. During the interview, the principals were asked 84 questions in a four-part survey. The survey asked questions about how principals viewed instructional leadership and how principals used time.

Participants

The target population of this study consisted of practicing Utah elementary principals who were expected to exercise instructional leadership. The sampling frame included all the elementary principals in a large, suburban school district in the Wasatch Mountain Front area of Utah. Instructional leadership was one of many job expectations of principals in this district, so every principal practiced instructional leadership to some extent.

The sample was drawn as a stratified random sample in order to represent three different economic levels of schools and two different school achievement levels. The stratification of the sample controlled for principals who may have had different conceptualizations of instructional leadership because of the academic and socio-economic conditions of the schools. The economic level of the school was determined by the free-and-reduced lunch rate. The three

levels of socio-economic conditions were (a) under 45% free-and-reduced lunch, (b) 45-65%, and (c) over 65%. The two achievement levels were passing Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and not passing. Five principals in each of the six stratification groups were included in the sample, for a total of 30 principals. All 61 elementary schools in this district were listed from the lowest to the highest according to their free-and-reduced lunch percentage rate. The schools were then divided into the three socio-economic groups. Each of these three groups was then divided into passing and non-passing schools, thus forming the six groups. From each group in the stratified sample, the schools were selected randomly. The principals from the first five schools drawn from each group were asked to participate in the study. Details of the sample selection are found in Appendix C.

Survey Instrument

The data were collected using a survey specifically designed for this study. The limited information about the constructs for the research questions necessitated the development of a new survey (see Appendix A). The survey was compiled using information from an extensive literature review of the instructional leadership role and time usage of principals. The survey contained four sections. The four sections together were designed to collect the necessary information answer the research questions.

Measurement of constructs. The first two research questions focused on the two unknown constructs that needed to be measured before the main question could be answered. The two constructs were the elementary principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and the elementary principal's perceived time usage.

Conceptualization of instructional leadership. The two different models of instructional leadership are broad or narrow. Many variations of these two models were used by practicing

principals. The second research question necessitated an exploration of the elementary

principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership. Section B and C of the survey had

questions aimed at discovering the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership.

Section B asked the principal to answer open-ended qualitative questions about instructional

leadership. Section C asked the principal to respond by indicating the level of agreement to

statements that contained the component parts of the broad definition of instructional leadership

as it was revealed in the literature review.

   Perceived time usage. The principal has limited time to do all the duties necessary to

fulfill the job (Hill, 1993; Kergaard, 1991). In that time, some portion could be spent on

instructional leadership. Whether that portion was large or small might, in fact, be influenced by

the conceptualization of instructional leadership that the principal was incorporating into his or

her daily work (Ruff, 2002). Some researchers used a broad definition of instructional

leadership in their studies, which included nearly every activity of the principal. In other words,

nearly all activities and behaviors that the principal engaged in during the day in support of

learning were considered part of the principal's role of instructional leadership. Others used a

narrower definition that included only those activities that affected teacher instruction and

student learning. Because principals might spend various amounts of time on different activities,

the researcher posed the question about whether the distribution of the principal's time and the

type of instructional leadership tasks were, in fact, aligned with the principal conceptualized

instructional leadership. Previous research studies suggested that principals actually spent very

little of their time on instructional leadership, but this information was confusing because of the

conflicting definitions of instructional leadership. The purpose of Section D was to find out how

the elementary principals perceived that they spent their time, focusing on time devoted to instructional leadership.

Description of the Survey. The survey contained 84 questions divided into four basic parts (see Appendix A). Section A contained demographic questions. Section B contained qualitative, open-ended questions about the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership. Section C contained statements about the component parts of the broad and narrow definition of instructional leadership discovered through many research articles, and asked for the principal's agreement with the statements. Finally, Section D asked the principal to estimate the amount of time spent on different principal activities. Section C and D had Likert-style questions, so that each statement about instructional leadership in Section C was represented by a time manifestation question in Section D, plus other time and task questions that principals included in the job. The following paragraphs describe the sections of the survey in more detail.

Section A. Section A of the survey asked for demographic open-ended information about the principal. The research literature suggested that instructional leadership might be influenced by gender, length of service as a teacher (before becoming a principal), and when the principal was trained. The demographic questions were designed to examine these variables. Additionally, some demographic information was gathered from public information. The demographic information derived from public information included information about the school's results on the AYP test report and the free and reduced lunch percentage. The public demographic information was controlled for in the selection of the sample.

Section B. Section B of the survey contained eight qualitative, open-ended questions about instructional leadership. These questions were designed to help the researcher know what behaviors, activities, and traits were part of the principal's conceptualization of instructional

leadership. The principals were also asked to reveal the tasks that got in the way of instructional leadership. The purpose of this question was to reveal what principals excluded from the conceptualization of instructional leadership. The purpose of the questions in Section B was to discover how the principal self-constructed their conceptualizations of instructional leadership without cueing the principal in advance. The purpose of the first two open-ended questions (defining and visualizing instructional leadership) was to help the participants construct in their minds a full conceptualization of instructional leadership so that when the principal was asked about the most important task, the principal would be able to answer. The first open-ended question in Section B asked the principals to define instructional leadership. Principals were allowed to talk as long as they wanted and all responses were recorded. On this question about defining instructional leadership, the principal could list as many tasks or characteristics of instructional leadership as they wanted. Ultimately, these questions helped to find groups of principals who conceptualized instructional leadership in similar ways.

Section C. Section C of the survey also explored the principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership. Section C of the survey contained statements about the 27 traits, behaviors, or activities that were included in the broad definition of instructional leadership according to the research. Six of the statements represented characteristics included in the narrow definition of instructional leadership. Principals were asked to indicate their level of agreement with these statements. The survey included seven questions that represented time tasks in the narrow definition of instructional leadership. These time tasks included talking to teachers about the goals of the school, observing in classrooms and giving feedback, collaborating with teachers about instructional strategies and student learning, curriculum, helping teachers become leaders, helping teachers examine and use data, planning and attending professional development for

teachers, and helping teachers design specific interventions for struggling students. The narrow time tasks are tasks that focused the principal's attention exclusively on the production and results of instruction. These time tasks could be filled as a result of different conceptualizations (see Appendix B). Combinations of several activities could fill all or some of the narrow time tasks. These combinations could include having a vision, being in classes, evaluating teachers, collaborating, building teams, improving instruction, developing teacher leaders, mentoring, using data, providing professional development, and working with teachers on interventions for struggling students. The conceptualizations filled the seven narrow time tasks in different configurations and with different time allotments.

Section D. The questions in Section D asked the principal to estimate the amount of time he/she spent on different activities during a typical week. Each task listed in Section D was an outwardly observable activity that took up the time of the principal according to a focus group of seven elementary principals. Not all the tasks were related to instructional leadership, but each characteristic that was mentioned on Table 2 had a related time question. Section D included time statements that represented the narrow and broad definition of instructional leadership.

Design of the Survey. The survey design began with a study of the broad definition of instructional leadership. The researcher compiled a comprehensive list of all activities, characteristics, and behaviors of an instructional leader that were mentioned in various studies and research (Table 2).

To organize the list, the researcher classified these behaviors and activities into six different groups, although the classifications were more for organization than for the study. The original list was narrowed again by including only empirical research or sources from prominent authors in the field. Activities and behaviors that were not mentioned in several sources of

literature were excluded. The narrow definition of instructional leadership was a subset of the broad definition, therefore those activities and behaviors that were related to the narrow definition of instructional leadership were identified by their relationship to teaching and learning. A principal who adhered to a broad conceptualization of instructional leadership would probably identify characteristics of the narrow definition, and would also include more characteristics and activities as well.

Next, several observable time tasks that fit each characteristic or behavior were identified. The best time indicator for that characteristic remained on the final survey (see Appendix A).   For instance, from the principal's behavior on Table 2 one characteristic was "Is decisive." The statement in Section C was, "A principal who is an instructional leader is decisive." Then three possible time usage tasks were identified: thinking strategically about decisions, making the hard decisions, and dealing with situations where two people had equal but opposite points of view.   From those three time usage possibilities, the first attempt at a question was, "How much time did you spend reasoning out and making decisions?" In the final survey, some of the time questions were made more specific in order to cover the totality of the principal's time.

Development of survey validity. After the initial development of the survey, steps were taken to refine the instrument. These steps included interviews with retiring principals who were not part of the sample. According to their responses, modifications were made in the survey to the content more clear and understandable and also to make it more usable. Groves and colleagues' (2004) cognitive interviews were used to assure the survey met cognitive and usability standards. Cognitive standards for survey questions verify that the respondent understood the words and information in the survey so that the responses represented their true

opinions. Usability standards of the survey sought to make the length and directions of the survey easy to understand. Usability also assured that the survey instrument fell within the ability and time capability of the respondents.

A series of steps were used to create cognitive and usability validity. The first step tested the original draft of the survey that included only the time questions of the narrow definition in the last section. The interviewee was a skilled, retiring principal. After taking the survey, the interviewee pointed out that if the respondent subscribed to the broad definition of instructional leadership, and was only given the opportunity to answer questions directed toward the narrow definition, then that principal would be unable to list all the activities in his or her conceptualization. This suggestion helped refine the content and usability of the survey. The interviewee also suggested that the time questions would be easier to answer if the questions were classified into groups by the object of the time, another usability suggestion. As a result of these suggestions, the next version of the last section was divided into seven sections according to whom or what took up the principal's time. Another comment was about the exactness of the wording of the behaviors and activities that characterized instructional leadership. This suggestion was a cognitive suggestion because the inexact wording of the survey made it difficult for the respondent to differentiate between the questions. These three comments led to several major redesigns of the survey. In addition, this version of the survey took almost an hour to administer. Participants are very busy. The survey needed to be easily completed, yet gather the needed information. The wording of each question in Section B and C was revised multiple times to become clearer and more impartial. The method of response was refined to be more similar for each statement so that the principal could easily work through the statements.

The second step in developing the survey used a revised survey that included all four sections. The demographics and qualitative questions sections took 5 minutes each, the instructional leadership section took 5 minutes, and the time section took 10 minutes. The interview took a total of 20 minutes without much difficulty. One suggestion was made about the wording in the "school" section of the time portion of the survey. The wording needed to be revised to refer more exactly to the strategic plans on which principals in Utah worked--the Quality Teaching and Student Assessment (QTSA) Plan and the Trust Lands Plan. The principal was unfamiliar with the wording "strategic plan." This question was revised to say, "Working on QTSA Plans and Trust Lands reports", which is more recognizable to Utah principals.

The third step retested the last section (Section D) of the survey to validate the time usage questions. It was noted after the first two interviews that the principals could not recall or reconstruct the exact amount of time. The principals only estimated the amount of time spent on each task in hours, regardless of the fact that the survey asked for hours and minutes. Also, both principals made a comment about how that week was not a usual week. After the two interviews, the researcher decided to change the configuration of the time section to time estimates and to estimate time usage for a typical week instead of the previous week. However, the principal could use the previous week as a guide to estimate time. To check whether the tasks listed covered most of the time consuming activities, a test principal was asked if any activities that were usually done were not represented on the survey. An "Other" question in each section was added to accumulate additional time tasks not listed in the survey. The principal was also asked to estimate the time spent on each activity in a typical week.

The fourth step rechecked several questions in Section B. The purpose of this interview was to test the length of the added questions and to test the wording of the qualitative questions.

The administration of this cognitive interview went smoothly, so the researcher was assured that the survey would be successful.

The fifth step was a final check on the instrument validity. A focus group with seven principals was held to give more feedback on the time categories in Section D. This group examined the time categories already listed and suggested other time tasks that took up their time. The purpose of the focus group was to make sure that the survey covered most of the activities that principals engaged in during a typical week. A place for participants to add other activities was added to each time category in case something was missed. With the additions and changes to the survey from the cognitive interviews and the input from the focus group, the validity of the survey instrument was improved particularly in the time use section that needed three major revisions.

Administration of the Survey

Since the survey collected both qualitative and quantitative information, some of the information was collected orally and some by paper and pencil. The researcher elected to personally interview each participating principal in the sample. The researcher made an appointment with each principal. The researcher administered the entire survey in one sitting with the principal at the school site at the participant's convenience. Each survey averaged about 30 minutes to administer, depending on the decisiveness of the principal. The questions in Section A and B were asked orally, and the respondent's answers were recorded on a digital recorder. Then the participating principal took the paper and pencil section of the survey that included questions 12-84 in Section C and D.

Management of the Data Pertaining to Leadership Activities and Time Use

The data collected from the survey was handled in various ways according to the nature of the data. It was first organized according to the type of data whether written or recorded. The process of organizing the data will be discussed in this section followed by a description of the statistical analysis of the data.

Organization of the collected data. There were many forms of data in this survey. Questions one through three and question ten were coded onto a spread sheet, along with the demographic information about the school found in the public record. This public information included the AYP test passage score and the free and reduced lunch percentage. Question #1 was coded "M" or "F," question #2 and #3 encoded with a number standing for the number of years.

The qualitative data from questions #4-11 in Section B were first recorded, then transcribed, and finally encoded using NVivo with the purpose of finding groups of principals that conceptualized instructional leadership in the same way (Bazeley, 2007). First in NVivo, the researcher open coded and made free nodes to develop meaning. Next the researcher employed axial coding to merge the free nodes and identify patterns, inconsistencies, and repetitions in the data. Finally the researcher used selective coding to identify groups of different conceptual types. The groups were identified from the responses to the questions. The questions were constructed to guide the principals to express their opinions about instructional leadership, but not to impose responses on the principals. From the data, six different conceptualization types were identified. Also, information about the frequency of certain types of responses was collected. All of this information was quantified and collected on spreadsheets.

In Section C, each statement received a score from 1 to 5 based on the principal's level of agreement with the statement. Section C had a total of 27 questions that corresponded to the 27 behaviors and characteristics found in the literature (see Table 2). Six of these statements corresponded to the narrow definition of instructional leadership. Each principal received a score for each statement (1-5) relating to the level of agreement that the principal had for each statement. Each statement received an average score for all principals (potentially 1-5). The scores were used to compare a single principal's responses to the composite averages of all principals. These scores were used to describe the cued knowledge of principals about instructional leadership to the self-constructed knowledge gleaned from Section B.

Section D had a total of 45 questions about time-consuming, outwardly observable tasks or behaviors. The items in the time section tried to cover how a principal might spend time, especially relating to instructional leadership. The tasks had six levels of time response: none, 1 hour or less, about 2 hours, about 3 hours, about 4 hours, and about 5 hours. At first these levels were scored from 1 to 6, 1 being the lowest. These times were entered on a spreadsheet for each principal in slots representing the time tasks. After the initial encoding, the scores were changed to represent the mid-point between the two times in the answer. For example, if a principal chose between one and two hours, then that principal received 1.5 as a time score. The tasks were grouped by the object, person, or location of the task. At the end of each group, an "Other" category was designed to capture any tasks not identified by the focus group of principals. Each principal received a score for each item which was compared to the average score for all principals. When answering the research question about how the principal's conceptualization related to the principal's perceived use of time, a new spreadsheet was created to show only

those time tasks that were represented in each principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership.

Analysis of the data. The purpose of the analysis of the data was to find the answers to the three research questions and to discover new information about how elementary principals practiced instructional leadership. On each of the questions, the analysis was done on three different levels. The first level looked at all the principals as a group and tried to see patterns as a whole group. The second level focused how individual participants responded. The third level first looked at individual principals, and then aggregated the responses looking for patterns. Although the data was analyzed on each level for each question, the data seemed more fruitful for answering the different questions by doing the analysis of one or two particular levels reported in these findings. The accumulated data from the spreadsheets that were created as a result of the survey were analyzed using descriptive statistics and comparisons of differences between groups on variables using simple analysis of variance. In one case where only two groups were being tested, a t-test for independent samples was used.

The demographics in Section A were used to check to make sure that the sample was representative of the district that was sampled as a whole. Also the results in Section B, C, and D were compared to the results in Section A to make sure that tenure as a principal, previous teaching experience, and previous school administration experience were not factors that influenced the results in the other sections.

The results of Section B were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using NVivo, a computerized program specifically designed to analyze qualitative data. The results were compiled onto a spreadsheet where they could be compared both by individual principals and by the whole group for each sub-concept mentioned in the responses of the principals. In this way

the study identified how principals defined instructional leadership, visualized instructional leadership, and how principals identified what was most important about instructional leadership. Principals also identified what distracted them from instructional leadership and characteristics they felt that an instructional leader should have. The results from this section were used to find the most common way that principals formed conceptualizations of instructional leadership. The results for each individual principal were compiled onto a spreadsheet to examine the way each individual principal conceptualized instructional leadership and how that compared to other principals.

Section C responses were averaged for each question and ranked by that average to identify how much agreement the principals gave to each statement. These results were compared to the results in Section B to see if the principals' self-constructed conceptualizations of instructional leadership matched the cued conceptualizations of instructional leadership.

After encoding and recording the responses of the principals on a spreadsheet, the data from Section D were analyzed both by whole group and by individual principal. The whole group comparisons divided time usage into the object groups in the survey and described how time was spent in each object group on the activities included in the group. The whole group's perceived time usage was compared using descriptive statistics.

Research question three about the relationship between the principal's conceptualization and the principal's perceived time usage required data from both Section B and D compiled on a combined spreadsheet. The spreadsheet included only the perceived time described by the principal that was associated with that individual principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership. A linear regression was used to show a relationship between the amount of time spent

on the principal's self-constructed conceptualization of instructional leadership and the number

of entries in the time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership.

Chapter Four

Results

Findings were identified to address the questions relating to principals' conceptualization of instructional leadership and their perceptions of time use. In addition, the data were explored to gain insights into how conceptualizations of leadership related to time use.

Findings from Responses about Instructional Leadership

This section presents results of survey questions dealing with participants' perceptions of instructional leadership. These questions allowed the participants to define and visualize instructional leadership, identify what leadership activities are important and identify which tasks they incorporated into their work.

Instructional leadership activities defined. Many of the participants had a hard time forming an answer to the first question and thought a long time before answering. Although there were no wrong answers and no certain number of responses required, many principals felt that they should know the answer, yet did not seem to readily be able to answer it. Many of the principals prefaced their answer with something like, "That's a tough question" or "That is sort of broad, isn't it?" Twenty percent of principals just answered, "I don't know". Some of those principals went on to add things after saying, "I don't know." One principal answered, "I don't know. It is like salt; I know what it tastes like" (2B5, meaning that the principal who was interviewed came from a medium socio-economic neighborhood, failed AYP, and was the fifth school in this group). Another principal answered vaguely, "I'd probably define instructional leadership as acting in the administrative capacity in which you are comfortable" (1B3). A third principal said, "Instructional leadership is the one that you never have enough time to do" (1A2).

Finally, an experienced principal said, "You know it is hard to do instructional leadership anymore because they have cut our funding and our time" (3B2). Table 5 shows the most frequent responses.

Table 5

Principals' Definitions of Instructional Leadership

Concept	# of Principals	% of Principals
Providing professional development	12	40%
Ensuring curriculum	8	27%
Helping teachers	7	23%
Improving instruction	6	20%
Keeping current knowledge	6	20%
Creating a vision	6	20%
Providing resources for teachers	6	20%
I don't know	6	20%

The responses to the question about defining instructional leadership added up to more than 30 responses because a principal could give more than one concept in his or her answer, however the percentages were computed for the thirty principals in the study. Although the question did not ask for tasks of instructional leadership but only to define instructional leadership, the principals almost exclusively listed tasks associated with instructional leadership.

Interestingly, many principals defined instructional leadership in terms of arranging professional development for teachers. The most common meaning of providing professional development was to send the teachers to some sort of training. One principal defined providing professional development as, "Encouraging your teachers to take outside workshops and provide financially for them to do that" (1A2). Six principals talked about making sure they themselves

attended professional development and knew what was the "latest and best" or the current buzzwords in education. These principals may have believed that being more knowledgeable than the teachers was important. One principal put it, "You have to have knowledge yourself to kind of guide your teachers and staff" (3A4).

By "ensuring curriculum," the principals meant providing the teachers with a copy of the prescribed curriculum and assuring the curriculum was being used. One principal said, "You know you need to stay current on the curriculum, so you should know your core curriculum for each grade" (2A3). Seven principals mentioned "helping teachers do their job," meaning running interference for them with discipline, parents, and district. One principal said, "I think instructional leadership is allowing people to do their job" (3A1).

Instructional leadership activities visualized. The next question asked principals to visualize a principal (not necessarily themselves) doing instructional leadership and describe what activities the principal was engaging in at the school. (This question did predispose the respondents to answer in tasks.) Table 6 shows how principals answered this question. Principals described "being in classrooms" most frequently (53%) when they visualized principals functioning in the role of an instructional leader. "Being in the classroom" for most principals seemed to consist of a physical presence, almost equivalent to "being visible" in the classroom, although some principals connected observing in classrooms to evaluating teachers and some did not. One principal described this activity as "visiting classrooms" (1A3). By "talking to teachers", most principals meant talking to teachers about their classroom. One principal said he saw the principal "having conversations with the teachers about what is going on in their classrooms" (1A1).

When principals visualized themselves doing instructional leadership, they saw very specific tasks. For instance, when principals defined instructional leadership, they included "improving instruction." Whereas, when they visualized instructional leadership, they included "being in classrooms" and "evaluating teachers," which are more specific ways of improving instruction.

Table 6

Principals' Visualizations of Instructional Leadership

Response	# of Principals Mentioning	% of Principals
Being in classrooms	16	53%
Evaluating teachers	11	37%
Providing professional development	10	33%
Modeling of appropriate strategies	7	23%
Looking at data	7	23%
Talking to teachers	7	23%

Most important tasks identified. Principals fell into definite groups when asked about what they thought was most important to do when acting as an instructional leader. When the interviewer came to this question about the most important task of instructional leadership, the respondents already had a fairly clear mindset about their conceptualization of instructional leadership. The answer was self-constructed, but limited to one response. The principals quickly chose the one thing they thought was most important about instructional leadership. Twelve (40%) principals said that "being in classrooms and evaluating instruction" were the most important activities of instructional leadership. Eight (27%) principals said that "evaluating the school and developing a vision for school improvement" was most important. These two top categories are principal-directed activities that require the principal to act as boss.

The final three "most important" categories are also top-down but represent the broad definition of instructional leadership. Each of the last "most important" groups has only a few principals in the group, making it difficult to draw statistical conclusions. The decision was made to combine these principals into an "other" group. The advantage of grouping these principals was that it preserved all the data; the disadvantage was that the grouping really represents principals who mentioned different "most important" ideas. Only one principal mentioned "establishing a culture," and that principal did not elaborate. The table shows that the largest group of principals perceived that being in classrooms and evaluating instruction is the most important activity of the instructional leader. Eighty-three percent of principals fell into the top three groups.

The next open-ended question asked the principals to list three more activities that are important for the principal to do. In this question, principals were allowed to elaborate on what they felt was most important. Four principals mentioned more than three activities and eight principals could not recall three to mention. Although a target of three things was asked for, the question was open-ended, and the researcher recorded whatever the principal said. Table 7 shows the results of this question. Again these responses were largely the same as when principals defined, visualized, and identified the most important activities of instructional leadership.

Table 7

Principals' Perceptions of the Most Important Tasks of Instructional Leadership

_____

Conceptualization	# of Principals	% of Principals
Being in classes and evaluating instruction	12	40%
Evaluating the needs of school and having a vision for school improvement	8	27%
Mentoring, coaching, and collaborating	5	16%
Providing resources and professional development for teachers	2	7%
Hiring for excellence	2	7%
Establishing culture	1	3%

Table 8

Principals' Perceptions of Other Important Things the Instructional Leader Should Do

_____

Concept	# of Principal Mentioning	% of Principals
Examining data	10	33%
Mentoring and coaching	10	33%
Providing professional development	10	33%
Providing materials	6	20%
Knowing community	6	20%
Helping teachers	6	20%
Keeping current on research	6	20%
Being in classes	5	17%
Building trust with teachers	5	17%
Providing safety in building	5	17%

Comparison of tasks and behaviors. Tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 showed a large amount of overlapping information about the tasks and behaviors of principals acting as instructional leaders. The overlapping information led the researcher to think that something could be learned by combining the responses on the first four questions. Using NVivo, the researcher went through the survey responses on the first questions (Questions 5-8) and encoded them again into characteristics that are called sub-concepts. Together, the results showed a more complete picture of the principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership. This approach had the advantage that each principal could only indicate a sub-concept once instead of being able to mention a sub-concept for each question. The most common responses are in Table 10. Together, these responses represent a collective idea of what principals conceptualized most often when they thought of instructional leadership. For example, the "use of data" was not a top-scoring item on the other lists, it was well represented in all the responses, and thus combined to appear on this list. The most consistent agreement was "being in classrooms" (73%).

Table 9

Most Common Answer on Open-Response Questions about Instructional Leadership
_____

Topics	# of Principals	% of Principals
Being in classrooms (without feedback)	22	73%
Providing professional development for teachers	19	63%
Doing teacher evaluations	16	53%
Providing resources for teachers	11	37%
Building relationships with teachers	9	30%
Providing and using data	12	40%

*All other response categories of principal responses scored well below 20 responses.

Characteristics and qualities identified. Participating principals were also asked to list qualities and characteristics that an instructional leader should have. The participants had no trouble answering this question. The principals' responses on Table 10 mirrored many of the items included in the researched broad definition shown on Table 2. "Seeing the big picture" is interpreted as having a vision of the whole school. However, much less agreement was held by principals about the personality characteristics compared to the activities and tasks.

Aggregating the data on Table 11 lets the reader see an overview of how each principal conceptualizes instructional leadership. An "x" in the column on this table indicates that the sub-concept was mentioned as part of that principal's conceptualization. Twenty-five different sub-concepts of instructional leadership were identified by the principals in this study.

Table 10

Characteristics and Qualities of Instructional Leaders

Characteristics/Quality	# of Principals	% of Principals
Able to see the big picture	11	36%
Able to communicate well	11	36%
Shows integrity in keeping word	9	30%
Willing to work to improve education	8	27%
Able to motivate	8	27%
Has a positive attitude	7	23%
Is organized	7	23%
Is a people person	6	20%
Able to collaborate	5	17%
Has confidence to make hard decisions	5	17%
Is respectful of others	5	17%

About two-thirds of the participants mentioned "being in classrooms," "providing professional development," and "evaluating teachers" received the largest number of principal responses. About one-third of principals mentioned items including "looking at data," "providing resources," "providing a vision for the school," "mentoring and coaching," "ensuring curriculum," and "talking to teachers." About one-fifth of principals mentioned "improving instruction," "being visible," "knowing the community," "I don't know," "working on student achievement," and "collaborating with teachers." Table 11 showed that no two participants answered with the exact same combination of sub-concepts. The most sub-concepts that any one principal held as part of their conceptualization was 10; the least was three. The total number of sub-concepts that made up any one principal's total conceptualization was relatively small compared to the total possible responses that could have been given according to the research based findings into this area.

Table 11 shows each principal's self-constructed responses. The data also reveals which of the sub-concepts are most accepted by the principals. For the purpose of this research, the principal's self-constructed conceptualization of instructional leadership was called the principal's *working conceptualization*. This conceptualization is manifested by actions that can be quickly self-constructed from memory while working and can thus be used to guide their daily decisions.

Concepts associated with school reform identified. Table 12 shows a rearrangement of the sub-concepts on Table 11 based on each wave of educational reform. More sub-concepts from effective school reforms are part of the principals' conceptualization compared to newer reforms.   A single principal could have sub-concepts from several school reform movements and most of the principals did have responses in more than one period.

Table 11

Individual Principals' Conceptualizations of Instructional Leadership

	Being in Classrooms	Providing professional Development	Evaluating Teachers	Looking at data	Current on research- know latest	Providing Resources	Visions for School	Mentoring & Coaching	Ensuring Curriculum	Talking to teachers/ Building relationship	Improving Instruction	Being Visible	Knowing Community	I don't know	Working on student achievement	Collaborate or PLCs	Helping Teachers	Modeling Practice	Hiring for excellence	Build teams	Safety of School	Establishing Culture	Do what is best for kids	Assessment	Develop teacher leadership	Totals
2B1	x	x	x		x			x	x		x		x			x							x			10
1A1	x		x	x	x		x	x	x	x					x											8
1A4	x	x		x		x		x		x									x	x						8
1B2	x	x		x		x	x	x		x						x										8
1B3	x	x	x	x	x					x				x										x		8
2B3	x	x	x		x						x				x				x					x		8
2B4	x	x		x	x	x				x							x					x				8
3A5	x		x	x					x					x		x			x		x					8
2A3			x	x		x	x	x	x			x				x										7
3A1	x	x	x								x					x	x								x	7
3B1		x	x	x		x		x			x							x								7
3B4	x		x	x		x	x	x	x	x					x											7
3B5	x					x		x		x	x					x					x					7
1A2	x	x			x							x		x				x								6
1A3		x						x		x					x		x		x							6
1A5		x								x			x	x	x								x			6
2B2	x	x			x	x	x																		x	6
3A3	x		x					x		x		x						x								6
3A4	x	x	x		x	x			x																	6
3B3	x	x				x					x	x									x					6
1B1		x			x	x				x			x													5
2A1	x	x	x	x				x																		5
2A4	x	x			x	x				x																5
2B5	x	x											x	x			x									5
3A2			x	x					x		x				x				x							5
3B2		x				x							x	x								x				5
1B4	x	x	x		x																					4
2A5	x		x		x	x												x								4
2A2	x		x	x		x																				3
1B5								x	x				x													3
Total	22	20	16	12	12	11	11	11	9	9	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	

Many principals included that they are to manage teachers by observing them, evaluating

them, and providing them with professional development as part of instructional leadership. In

the center section of Table 12 are activities associated with the restructuring period such as

developing vision and culture and facilitating teachers. Table 12 shows a decline in the average

degree of admission of these sub-concepts among principals (7.4 principals). The characteristics

of instructional leadership that are associated with the accountability time period are using data,

developing professional learning communities and working on instruction. A further decline in

the average degree of inclusion was seen (6.0). The sub-concepts associated with the roles of

instructional leadership from the effective school reform time period are admitted into the

working conceptualizations of more principals than the sub-concepts of the newer waves of

school reform, the restructuring and the accountability reform time frames.

Agreement with broad definition of instructional leadership. Section C asked

principals to indicate the level of agreement the principal held for each instructional leadership

activity. The questions in this section contained statements representing the 27 research-based

characteristics of the broad definition of instructional leadership found on Table 2. The

principals' responses on every researched aspect of instructional leadership averaged between a 4

and a 5 (agree and strongly agree). The principals recognized the broad definition of

instructional leadership. They agreed with the various researchers about what characteristics and

activities should be included in instructional leadership, even though the combined list came

from many different research sources. The responses on Table 13 are quite different from the

responses in the self-constructed portions of the survey about instructional leadership. When

principals were asked to construct their own conceptualization, their responses were fairly

limited. However, when prompted, principals recognized and agreed with nearly every

Table 12

Incorporation of Instructional Leadership Stages into Principal Practice

	Effective Schools				Restructuring						Accountability								
	Being in Classrooms	Evaluating Teachers	Providing professional Development		Visions for School	Providing Resources	Establishing Culture	Helping Teachers	Talking to teachers/ Building relationship		Mentoring & Coaching	Improving Instruction	Looking at data	Working on student achievement	Build teams	Collaborate or PLCs	Assessment	Develop teacher	
1A1	x	x			x				x		x		x	x					
1A4	x		x			x			x		x		x		x				
2B1	x	x	x								x	x				x			
1B2	x		x		x	x			x		x		x			x			
1B3	x	x	x						x				x				x		
2A3					x						x		x			x			
2B3	x	x	x									x		x	x		x		
2B4	x	x	x			x	x	x				x							
2B5	x		x					x											
3A5	x	x										x				x			
3B1		x	x		x							x							
3B5	x					x			x		x	x				x			
1A2	x		x																
1A3			x					x	x		x			x					
2B2	x		x		x	x												x	
3A1	x	X	x					x								x		x	
3A3		x			x							x							
3A4	x	x	x		x	x					x								
3B3	x		x			x						x							
3B4	x								x		x		x	x					
2A1	x	x	x		x								x						
2A4	x		x			x													
3B5	x		x									x				x			
1A5			x						x				x						
2A5	x	x			x														
3A2		x									x	x	x	x	x				
3B2			x			x	x												
1B1		x			x	x			x										
1B4	x	x	x																
2A2	x	x				x							x						
1B5					x						x								
Total	22	16	20		11	11	2	4	9		11	6	12	6	3	6	2	2	
			ave.	19.3					ave.	7.4								ave.	6

item on the survey. The researcher called this wider recognition by the principals of the broad definition of instructional leadership their *academic conceptualization*.

Table 13 indicates that the highest agreement was on "keeping current on educational research" (4.97), "being emotionally stable" (4.93), "respecting others" (4.93), and "building relationships with teachers" (4.93). The lowest agreement was on "having a vision for the future of the school" (4.07) and "being committed to the best education of children" (4.07). Of interest is the fact that "being emotionally stable" was not ever mentioned by any principal in the self-constructed responses, yet it is rated one of the highest.

There were also some inconsistencies in the participants' responses. "Having a vision for the future of the school" was rated in this section as one of the two lowest (two standard deviations below the mean), yet "having a vision" appeared on the list of the "most important" aspects of instructional leadership in the open-ended questions. These differences showed inconsistencies between the principals' prompted academic conceptualizations and their self-constructed working conceptualizations. Many of these inconsistencies had to do with building and communicating a vision, dealing with change, and building an organization that can learn and improve. Also, participating principals agreed with promoting order and discipline, but in this study in a later section, principals listed student discipline as a distraction from their instructional leadership. Participants also agreed with the idea that instructional leaders should be decisive, but never mentioned it once in the open-ended responses.

The open-ended questions (Section B) represented the concepts the participants can remember without prompting, while the Likert-style questions (Section C) represented the conceptualization that the principal recognized when prompted but could not recall from memory. Some well-accepted and well-researched sub-concepts of instructional leadership were

Table 13

Average Principal Responses on Likert Questions about Instructional Leadership

_____

Question	Descriptor	Average Response	s.d. for Question
34	Keeping current on educational research	4.97	.18
27	Being emotionally stable	4.93	.25
16	Respecting others	4.93	.25
13	Building relationships with teachers	4.93	.25
31	Encouraging teachers to learn new practices	4.90	.31
21	Being visible in school	4.90	.31
28	Being able to communicate	4.87	.35
23	Engaging teachers in establishing goals	4.80	.41
26	Collaborating with teachers about teaching and learning	4.77	.50
17	Sharing with teachers knowledge about teaching and learning	4.77	.43
36	Being the head of the school	4.73	.45
38	Having energy and enthusiasm	4.70	.47
37	Helping teachers provide for different types of students	4.70	.54
18	Helping teacher plan specific improvement for teaching	4.70	.63
40	Helping teachers plan interventions for struggling students	4.67	.48
30	Promoting order and discipline	4.67	.61
33	Managing budgets and supplies	4.60	.56
29	Helping teachers examine and interpret data	4.60	.56
14	Minimizing interruptions in the classrooms	4.60	.50
15	Interfacing with the community	4.53	.57
24	Anticipating and solving problems in the school	4.47	.63
19	Accepting that change doesn't happen at an even pace	4.47	.63
22	Being decisive	4.43	.68
20	Managing and directing the pace of change	4.40	.56
35	Being committed to the best education for children	4.07	.83
32	Having a vision for the future of the school	4.07	.83
	Section C mean for all	4.66	
	Section C average s.d. for all	.48	

missing from principals' working conceptualizations of instructional leadership. Because the principal must self-construct their conceptualization as they do their job, the researcher decided to preference the self-constructed responses for this study.

Principal activities that distract from instructional leadership. When asked in the open-ended questions about things that distracted principals from instructional leadership, the principals were fairly explicit about what things get in the way in Question 10 in Section B of the survey. This question was an indication of what principals did not see as instructional leadership. Table 14 shows the most common distractions that principals suggested interfered with instructional leadership.

Table 14

Distractions that Take the Principal Away from Instructional Leadership

Distraction	# of Principals	% of Principals
Doing student discipline	21	70%
Managing the office	16	53%
Solving parent issues	16	53%
Doing district paperwork	14	47%
Going to district meetings	10	33%
Other district expectations and programs	9	30%

All of these distractions were tasks that interrupt the planned activities of the principal. The distractions all fell into the broad definition of instructional leadership. Although not all participants agreed with these distractions, most principals agreed that dealing with student discipline, dealing with parental issues, and answering the district demands were detrimental to the practice of instructional leadership. Conclusively, 70% of participants thought dealing with student discipline was an activity that took time away from instructional leadership, and 50% of

principals included managing the office, parental issues, and district paperwork as activities that distracted from instructional leadership.

Findings Regarding Time Use

Two parts of the survey examined the elementary principals' perceived use of time. One question in the self-constructed part of the survey asked principals to estimate in an open-ended question the number of hours they worked during a typical week. Although principals struggled somewhat answering this question because many weeks are different, all the principals were able to think back over the last few weeks and come up with a number that estimated how much they worked in a typical week. The other section of the survey that addressed how the principals spent time were the questions on time in Section D. The questions asked how principals spent time in specific categories, such as students, parents, teachers, school, office, district and personal. The next section will examine the principal's time by looking at the principals as a whole group.

Self-reported work hours in a typical week. When principals were asked to estimate the number of hours they worked in a typical week, most of the respondents felt a need to qualify their answer by saying that they worked different hours during various parts of the year depending on how much they needed to do. For instance, in the spring when evaluations were due, many principals said that they had to work more hours, but in the summer perhaps less. When pressed for a number during a typical week, most of the principals said they worked between 50-60 hours a week. In the encoding, if the principal estimated between 55-60 hours, a middle number (57.5) was encoded into the worksheet. The average amount of time that the elementary principal self-reported working was 53 hours per week (s.d.=7.13), or about 10.6

hours per day. The highest reported typical weekly working hours was 70 per week (this principal worked weekends) and the lowest was 45 hours per week.

Time data reported by tasks. Because of the complexity and overlapping nature of their job, principals had difficulty reporting accurately the amount of time worked when the tasks were broken down into 40 time tasks. This section also gave the principals an opportunity to list other tasks that took up time. The responses to Question 12 did not match the total amount of time reported in Section D. When principals broke down their time, they found it harder to keep track of the total amount of time they were reporting. Sometimes the principal over-reported or under-reported their individual tasks compared to their reported total time that they worked, so the researcher needed a way to correct this discrepancy in Section D. It was assumed that the principal's estimated total working hours per week was reported more accurately because it was a single answer and principals were not likely to forget what time they usually arrived and departed from work.

The reconciliation of this disparity was executed to compare the time usage of different principals. If a principal marked the answer "1-2 hours" as a response, the data were first encoded as 1.5 hours first. A ratio was formed of the reported hours on Section D to the total reported hours earlier in the survey. Each answer was then adjusted by the ratio of over-estimation or under-estimation of the answers. For instance, principal 1A5 reported "4-5 hours" spent on Question 41 in Section D. That number was first encoded as "4.5 hours." However, the ratio of the total hours worked to the hours reported in the Likert section was .997. Then the researcher recalculated every answer the principal gave in the Likert section to match the total amount of reported work time in Question 12. The final amount for Question 41 was 4.40 hours.

Using these recalculated time amounts, Table 15 represent the generated time usage as perceived by principals. Table 15 shows the average percentage of time and the average hours that principals spent in each category. The survey measured the amount of time principals perceived they spent on teachers, students, school, office, parents, district, and personal time. The data showed that principals spent nearly half of their time on students and teachers. Principals spent nearly 31% of their time on office and school issues. Parent and district issues each consumed about 10% of the principal's time. The following discussion breaks down the summaries on Table 15 into the component parts starting with the area of the highest time expenditure to the least.

Table 15

Perceived Time Spent by Elementary Principals

| | % of Total Time Reported for a typical week | | | Hours reported for a typical week | | |
	Mean	s.d.	Range	Mean	s.d.	Range
Teachers	25.98	5.75	9.92-35.94	13.71	3.63	4.69-20.2
Students	21.80	3.17	12.79-36.99	11.44	2.87	5.72-17.48
School	17.00	3.94	9.97-27.99	8.91	2.46	5.1-14.65
Office	13.73	3.32	6.52-20.76	7.20	1.93	3.28-10.37
Parents	10.92	4.02	2.35-19.95	5.58	2.12	2.45-10.65
District	9.91	2.22	5.09-13.86	5.13	1.23	3.02-14.19
Personal	.74	.50	0.00-2.04	.38	.25	0-.96

Time spent with teachers. The results of the study revealed that principals spent the largest amount of time with teachers, 13.71 hours in a typical week or 25.98% of their time. Table 16 shows the responses about the time spent on teachers. The activities that principals

reported most were listening to teachers' personal problems (2.09 hours) and observing in classrooms (1.93 hours). Although "being in classrooms" was the most common response from the principals and was listed as the most important activity of instructional leadership by 40% of the principals, they spent only 3.6% of their time in classrooms. Principals said they spent the most time talking to teachers about their personal issues. Principals spent the least amount of time helping teachers become leaders (.94 hours), providing professional development (.92 hours), and covering classroom (.76 hours). Although "providing professional development" was an activity listed by the most principals when principals defined instructional leadership, they actually spent little time doing this activity. In the "Other" category, they mentioned corrective discipline as a major time consumer. They also mentioned faculty meetings.

Table 16

Perceived Principal Time Spent With Teachers

Activity	Hours reported in a typical week		
	Mean	s.d	Range
Talking about personal issues with teachers	2.09	.76	.49-3.88
Observing in classrooms and giving feedback	1.93	.98	.36-4.1
Collaborating with teachers about teaching strategies	1.42	.53	.31-2.36
Planning and providing professional development for teachers	1.24	.64	.31-2.46
Expressing gratitude for efforts of teachers	1.21	.67	.31-3.62
Talking to teachers about goals of school	1.12	.65	0-2.87
Negotiating differences between teachers	1.01	.62	0-2.43
Helping teachers become leaders	.94	.60	.32-2.42
Helping teachers design specific interventions for students who struggle	.94	.77	0-2.16
Covering classrooms when needed	.92	.61	.31-2.46
Other	.76	.40	0-2.46

Time spent with students. Principals reported spending an average of 11.44 hours or 21.8% of their time on students during a typical week. Table 17 represents the disaggregation of the student line on Table 15. Principals reported spending the most time on student discipline issues (2.27 hours) also listed as the most distracting use of time. Principals spent the least amount of time on home visits (0.18 hours). Over half the principals reported spending no time at all on home visits. Well over half the time spent on students was taken up by three activities: greeting students and parents (2.1 hours), discipline (2.27 hours), and special education and English language learner issues (1.84 hours). "Other" included student complaints and emergencies, counseling students, and providing incentives for students.

Time spent on other school work. Principals reported that they spent an average of 8.91 hours or 17% of their time doing other school work. "Other" school tasks included working on 504 plans, finding missing students, working on fairs and programs, and addressing public concerns.

Time spent in the office. All principals reported that they spent a large amount of time dealing with issues in the office that were not related to students or teachers. The average principal reported spending an average of 7.2 hours or 13.73% of their time on office work. Table 19 shows the average amount of time that principals spent on office work. The most amount of office time was spent on e-mail and other mail (2.28 hours). Also, a significant amount of time was spent dealing with money issues such as budgets and deposits (1.88 hours). The least amount of time was spent on dealing with salespeople and keeping interruptions in the classroom at a minimum (.68 hours). The "Other" in this section included following up with secretaries, fixing copiers, dealing with injuries, meeting with non-teaching staff, building maintenance, and inspections.

Table 17

Perceived Principal Time Spent With Students

Activity	Hours reported worked in a typical week		
	Mean	s.d.	Range
Taking care of student discipline	2.27	1.06	.39-5.07
Greeting and talking to students and parents	2.10	.99	.36-4.37
Working on ELL and Special Education issues	1.84	.85	.39-3.62
Supervising students	1.67	.88	.31-3.28
Talking to students about learning	1.27	.80	.31-3.43
After school activities	1.19	.99	0-3.62
Health related issues	.46	.31	0-1.16
Other student activities	.43	.82	0-3.66
Home visits	.18	.23	0-.81

Table 18

Perceived Principal Time Spent on Other School Tasks

Activity	Hours reported worked in a typical week		
	Mean	s.d.	Range
Establishing a culture	2.20	1.05	.61-5.0
Making decisions for school	1.70	.85	.39-3.69
Communicating procedures and rules	1.36	.84	.34-3.49
Working on strategic plans	1.14	1.14	.37-3.98
Doing building maintenance	.79	.79	0-2.03
Working with business partners	.71	.51	0-2.17
Putting on assemblies	.74	.55	0-1.83
Other	.29	.29	0-3.62

Table 19

Perceived Principal Time in the Office

Activity	Hours reported worked in a typical week		
	Mean	s.d.	Range
Working on e-mail, district, and regular mail	2.28	.68	.73-3.46
Working on budgets, ordering supplies, and money	1.80	1.06	.49-6.52
Helping out at front desk and phones	1.21	.67	.34-2.65
Human resource functions including hiring	1.05	.62	0-2.36
Dealing with salespeople and promoters	.68	.40	0-1.34
Other	.18	.50	0-2.03

Time spent with parents. Principals spent an average of 5.58 hours or 10.92% of their time on parent issues. Time spent on writing calendars, newsletters, attending PTA and Community Councils is about the same for all types of schools, just over an hour per week for each task. Principals spent the most amount of time in this category doing problem-solving and listening to complaints of parents (1.65 hours). The solving of these problems of parents was listed as a distraction from instructional leadership by the principals. Solving problems and complaints of parents might include negotiating between parents and teachers. Counseling parents might include listening to employment issues, providing parenting classes, and listening about home issues. Together, these two categories take up more time than student discipline. The data shows that the principal's job includes a lot of time keeping parents connected to the school process and working on home problems that come to school.

Table 20

Perceived Principal Time Spent on Parents

Activity	Hours reported worked in a typical week		
	Mean	s.d.	Range
Solving problems and complaints of parents	1.65	.79	.31-3.04
Counseling parents with issues	1.39	.72	.31-3.04
Writing calendars, notices, or newsletters	1.15	.76	0-3.04
PTA and Community Council	1.15	.47	.41-1.97
Other	.24	.57	0-2.17

Table 20 shows the average amount of time that principals spent on parents during a typical week. It represents a disaggregation of the parent row on Table 15. Activities included in the "Other" category were talking with parents who just want to talk, contacting parents about their students on various issues, holding parent nights, and trying to solve community problems that migrated to the school. The time spent on parents is interesting because many principals listed their work with parents as a distraction to instructional leadership.

Time spent on district tasks. The principal reported spending 5.13 hours or 9.91% on average of his or her time during a typical week doing district work. Table 21 shows the average time spent on district tasks for a principal during a typical week. Attending district meetings took the most time (2.17 hours). Writing district reports also took up the principal's time (1.82 hours). Those two activities took over half of the principal's time spent in this category. The data for Table 21 represents a disaggregation of the district row on Table 15 breaking down the district tasks further.

Table 21

Perceived Principal Time Spent on District Work

	Hours reported worked in a typical week		
Activity	Mean	s.d.	Range
Attending district meetings or professional development	2.17	.79	.93-3.62
Writing district reports and providing information	1.82	.75	.43-3.04
Carrying out assigned tasks such as fire drills and inspections	.91	.48	.32-2.24
Other	.24	.56	0-2.4

Principals suggested that district work distracted them from instructional leadership by taking up their time. However, some principals suggested that keeping current on research was important to their conceptualization of instructional leadership. Professional learning for principals was provided in the district meetings. One way to interpret this district work is looking at the percentage of principal time spent in this category. Almost 10% of the principal's time is spent on district work compared to 3.6% spent in classrooms. This discrepancy may suggest the necessity for some rebalancing.

Time spent on personal issues. Most of the principals laughed when asked about how much time they spent on personal issues at work. Most of the principals marked between 0-1 hours and commented on the principal's lack of time to accomplish all the tasks for the school that were required of them. This amount was less than 1% of their time. The researcher concluded that few principals take more than one hour in a typical week on personal business, if that much. There were no "Other" issues mentioned in this section.

In summary, principals spent their time fulfilling the needs of their different constituents. They spend nearly half their time on teachers (26%) and students (22%), and the other half on school (17%), office (14%), parents (11%), and district needs (10%). The principals in the sample spent very little personal time at work (less than 1%).

Perceived principal time spent on distractions. The participants listed six activities that they considered as distractions from instructional leadership. Table 22 shows the average time commitment to these interruptions during a typical week. About 70% of participants mentioned student discipline as distracting and 50% of principals said that managing the office and solving parent issues was distracting. Together, these activities add up to about 34% of the participant's time when aggregated. Of course, not all the principals felt that these were distracting from instructional leadership. Some participating principals included student discipline as part of their conceptualization of instructional leadership. Some principals felt that keeping the school safe was an important part of instructional leadership and as well as student discipline. Others felt that keeping current with research was important. Those principals felt that going to district meetings to get principal professional development was important, not distractive. For this reason, the total amount of time each principal spent on their individual distractions was calculated, and then an average was taken of the principals' time. This average was slightly higher at 39.9% of the principals' time.

Table 22

Perceived Principal Time Spent on Distractions

Activity	Mean Time in Hours/wk	% of Total Time
Doing student discipline	2.27	4.3%
Managing the office	7.20	13.7%
Solving parent issues	3.27	6.2%
Doing district paperwork	1.82	3.5%
Going to district meetings	2.17	4.1%
Other district expectations	1.15	2.2%
Average Total	17.88	33.9%

Findings Relating Perceptions of Leadership to Time Use

The third research question of this study asked if there was a relationship between the principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership and the way that principals perceived they used their time. Using the map of the individual principals' complete conceptualizations shown on Table 11 and the time tasks data, the researcher eliminated all the time tasks data except those associated with each principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership. Comparisons could be made on the conceptualizations of instructional leadership with time usage for each principal.

The time data from the survey tells us how principals perceive they spent their time but not how principals spent their time practicing instructional leadership. Because each principal conceptualized instructional leadership a little differently, the time spent doing that instructional leadership must be figured separately. For instance, Principal 1A5 did not include being in classrooms or evaluating teachers as part of his or her conceptualization of instructional leadership, so the time spent doing those activities were not included as part of instructional

leadership for that principal. Principal 1A5 did include talking to teachers and knowing the

community as part of instructional leadership, so those activities could be counted as time spent

on instructional leadership.

The time responses for these questions (Section D) remained and all others were erased.

Thus the time associated with questions numbered 41, 45, 56, 71, and 83 were considered.

Notice that 71 was used as a time usage question for two of the sub-concepts, but the time

expression could only be added in once. This method was applied individually to each principal.

A chart was constructed for each principal showing the time spent on instructional leadership

according to each principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership. (For a full disclosure

of the time usage questions assigned to each concept, see Appendix B).

Table 23

Correspondence between Concepts of Leadership and Content from the Survey

Concept	Survey Number	Question from survey
Providing professional development	#71	Planning and attending professional development for teachers
Providing resources	#71	Planning and attending professional development for teachers
	#56	Working on budgets, ordering supplies, and depositing money
Being visible	#41	Greeting and talking to students and parents
Establishing culture of school	#83	Establishing the culture of the school

The researcher discovered five findings about the relationship between the participating

principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and their use of time. First, the average

principal committed to instructional leadership about 20% of their total time (about half the amount of time that principals spent dealing with distractions). The amount of time that a principal spent varied widely between principals, but was not tightly related to the "most important" group that the principal indicated, except Group 4 (the combination group) spent significantly less than the others.

Second, the thematic group that the principal belonged to did influence how the principal aligned his or her practice to what he or she thought was most important. The group that named coaching, mentoring, and collaborating as the "most important" activities of instructional leadership conformed their practice at a higher rate than the other groups.

Third, the more developed the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership in ways that produced entries on the time tasks in the narrow definition of instructional leadership, the more total time the principal spent on instructional leadership in this study. Fourth, no significant difference in the percentage of time that the principals spent on the narrow time tasks was found in Groups 1-3 (the narrow conceptualizations). In terms of hours spent in support of the narrow tasks associated with principal's conceptualization, Group 4 (the combination groups of broad conceptualizations) spent less time on the time tasks associated with the narrow definition.

Fifth, principals spent twice as much time being in classrooms and giving feedback as any other activity of instructional leadership as the principals defined it. This finding aligns with other findings that indicate that the most identified sub-concept of instructional leadership is observing in classes and evaluating teachers. This finding also supports the idea that principals use the largest proportion of their instructional leadership time in support of their most included sub-concept. The following discussion elaborates on these findings.

Time committed to instructional leadership activities. The researcher wanted to see if the amount of time that the principal spent on instructional leadership was connected to the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership.   For the purpose of this study, the researcher called the time that the principal spent on what they considered instructional leadership the *commitment* of the principal to instructional leadership. Commitment would be the amount of time spent on instructional leadership as the principal constructed it, out of the total of all of the principal's time. Insofar as time allocation reflects importance, commitment could be seen as the importance a principal put on instructional leadership as that principal defines it, out of all the tasks that make up the total principal job description.

An analysis of the time in instructional leadership as the principals conceived it showed that principals spent between 7% and 38% of their time doing instructional leadership or between 3.7 hours and 19.9 hours per week for an average of 19.9 % and a standard deviation of 8.43. The average percentage of time that principals spent on instructional leadership was about 20% of their total time, or 10.5 hours per week with a stand deviation of 4.42. The reader must remember that this is not 20% of time in classrooms. A few principals did not even include being in classrooms as part of their conceptualization. This 20% figure represents all the activities that the principal considered part of their conceptualization, somewhere between three and ten sub-concepts.

Next, the researcher wanted to see if the commitment (total time spent on instructional leadership) of principals was related to the "most important" thematic group that the principals earlier indicated when they self-constructed their conceptualizations of instructional leadership. (Commitment was tested with one-way ANOVA in both percentage and hours. When tested as a percentage, then p=.059. When tested in hours, then p=.052.both giving the same result. Groups

1, 2, and 3 were not significantly different in commitment, but Group 4 spent less doing instructional leadership as the principal's conceptualized it.) Table 23 shows the average principal perceived they committed to instructional leadership about 20% of their total time, about half the amount of time that principals spent dealing with distractions. The amount of time that a principal perceived he or she spent varied widely between principals, but was not tightly related to the thematic "most important" group that the principal indicated, except Group 4 (the combination group) spent significantly less than the others.

Table 24

Commitment of Time to Instructional Leadership by "Most Important" Groups

	COMMITMENT % of total time spent on Instructional leadership	RANGE
Group 1: Being in classes	20.6%	7.0-37.7
Group 2: Developing a vision	23.2%	12.4-35.8
Group 3: Coaching, mentoring	20.9%	14.8-30.0
Group 4: Other models	10.9%	8.4-13.9

Conformity to most important thematic activity. The researcher wanted to see if the group that the principal chose was related to the amount of time the principal spent on what they identified as "most important." This question measured how faithfully the principal executed instructional leadership according to what they thought was most important. How much instructional leadership time did the principals spend doing what was most important to them?

For this study, *conformity* means the alignment between the principal's total instructional leadership time and the amount of time the principal spent on what the principal believed was

most important. In this study, conformity is not given a negative or positive connotation but is a way of examining what the principal does for instructional leadership. Conformity can be seen more as the fidelity with which a principal controlled and carried out the practice of instructional leadership according to what that principal felt was most important. The scores for the conformity of the principals ranged between 10.7% and 100% of each principal's instructional leadership time. For instance, if a principal (such as principal 3A1) fell into "most important" Group 1 (being in classes and evaluating instruction), and that principal had a conformity score of 31.3%, then that would mean that the principal spent 31.3% of their instructional leadership time (as that principal defined instructional leadership) in classes and giving feedback to teachers.

Table 24 shows how the principals in the different thematic groups aligned their practice to their own idea of what was most important about instructional leadership. On this table we see that the group that said coaching, mentoring and collaborating was most important had a significantly higher conformity score than the other groups (p=.002). Similar results were obtained in terms of both percentage of time spent on what was most important, and number of hours spent. No set standard for conformity is recommended by this study. Conformity in this study is only used to illustrate the differences in time usages for the principals who hold different conceptualizations if instructional leadership.

Table 25

Comparison of How "Most Important" Thematic Groups Spent Time

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	CONFORMITY % of instruction leadership time spent on "most important"	Range
Group 1: Being in classes	25.73%	10.7-63.6
Group 2: Developing a vision	35.29%	26.8-45.5
Group 3: Coaching, mentoring	69.26%	26.8-100.0
Group 4: Other models	35.9%	11.2-67.34

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ANOVA was performed to compare the means of these groups in order to see if having particular focus made a significant difference to the amount of time a principal perceived they spent on their focus. After f-tests were performed, Group 3 (coaching, mentoring, and collaborating) had significantly higher conformity than all the other groups when tested in terms of percentages of time on the "most important" tasks. The statistics showed that the principals who adopted coaching, mentoring, and collaborating as their "most important" thematic focus conformed their instructional leadership to what they thought was most important with more consistency than the other groups. When tested in terms of hours spent on the "most important" focus, Groups 2 and 3 did not show this significant difference in conformity, probably because of the presence of one outlier principal in Group 3 who aligned their practice at a low rate.

Association of time use with narrow conceptualization of instructional leadership.
No principals exclusively viewed instructional leadership in a narrow way, but all the principals included some narrow activities in their total conceptualization. How a principal combined these sub-concepts determined how many narrow time tasks were filled. Sixty percent of all principals' instructional leadership time was represented within the time tasks in the narrow

definition of instructional leadership. (As previously mentioned, the conceptualizations that filled the narrow time task questions were combinations of having a vision, being in classes, evaluating teachers, collaborating, building teams, improving instruction, developing teacher leaders, mentoring, using data, providing professional development, and working with teachers on interventions for struggling students.)

All principals had at least one response on these seven questions, but four principals responded in all seven questions. Some principals identified time tasks in the narrow definition of instructional leadership with more frequency than other principals. The time principals spent per week on work associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership ranged between 14% and 94% of their instructional leadership time, or between 1 hour per week and 12.5 hours per week.

The principals were divided into two groups for comparison, those with four or more time tasks left (a more robust development of the narrow sub-concepts) and those with less than four (less robust). If a principal had four or more time tasks left on the chart, the average total time that the principal spent on all instructional leadership tasks was 23.7 hours per week. If the principal had three or less, the average total time spent on instructional leadership was 11.7 hours per week. This data were analyzed using an independent two-sample T test. The level of a Type I error was less than 1% (Student's t-test = 0.000). The two groups probably did not spend the same amount of time on instructional leadership.

Granted, these differences were not necessarily produced by the same set of conceptualizations, but the differences in the seven narrow questions were driven by the conceptualizations of the principals. This result gives credence to the supposition that there is a relationship between the way a principal conceptualizes instructional leadership and the amount

of time that the principal perceived he or she spent on instructional leadership in their total practice.

The robustness of the data entries in the narrow time tasks seemed related to the total amount of time the principal put into instructional leadership. This finding might not be significant if the total amount of instructional leadership time that the principal spent was also influenced by the total number of sub-concepts (regardless of where they appeared on the chart, whether narrow or broad) that the principal included in his or her self-constructed sub-concepts. However, a correlation test between the total number of self-constructed conceptualizations and the total instructional leadership time showed no relationship. This test showed that the robustness of the entries on the seven narrow time tasks was not just a manifestation of the principal's total number of sub-concepts.

Next, the researcher tested if there might be a linear relationship between the number of time tasks (out of the seven narrow tasks) and the total amount of time the principal put into instructional leadership. The resulting scatter plot suggested that there might be a linear relationship between the principals' sub-concepts that yielded entries in the narrow time tasks and the total amount of time spent on instructional leadership. With all the data in the calculation, r=.6559 and R^2=.4302. Without that data point, r=.74 and R^2=.55 which in a qualitative survey-type study probably indicated a relationship. Figure 1 showed the number of time tasks associated with the narrow conceptualization along the x-axis. The y-axis showed the number of hours per week in total that the principals spent on instructional leadership as they conceptualize instructional leadership.

Figure 1 shows as the number of narrow time tasks that the principal's conceptualization elicits from the data goes up, the number of total hours of instructional leadership the principal

spent weekly on the job increases. This linear relationship was not true for the all the sub-concepts included in the principals' total conceptualizations, only for the portion as it related to the time tasks that were associated with the narrow conceptualization of instructional leadership.

Most important thematic activities and narrow definition tasks. The "most important" thematic activities showed a relationship to the total time spent in the narrow definition of instructional leadership. Group 4 spent less time than the other three groups (p=.018). Table 26 shows that Groups 1, 2, and 3 had similar percentages of instructional leadership time spent in the narrow time tasks.   However, when the percentages were tested with ANOVA Group 1, 2 and 3 were not significantly different (p=.137). When tested in hours, principals in Group 4 spent significantly less time working on narrow tasks that were associated with their conceptualizations (p=.018).

Table 26

"Most Important" Thematic Groups and the Narrow Definition Time Tasks

	Narrow Time % of Total Instructional Leadership Time on Narrow Time Tasks	Range
Group 1: Being in classes	58.4%	29.3-87.5
Group 2: Developing a vision	56.0%	28.5-72.5
Group 3: Coaching, Mentoring	75.2%	56.0-99.8
Group 4: Other	46.5%	14.4-77.7
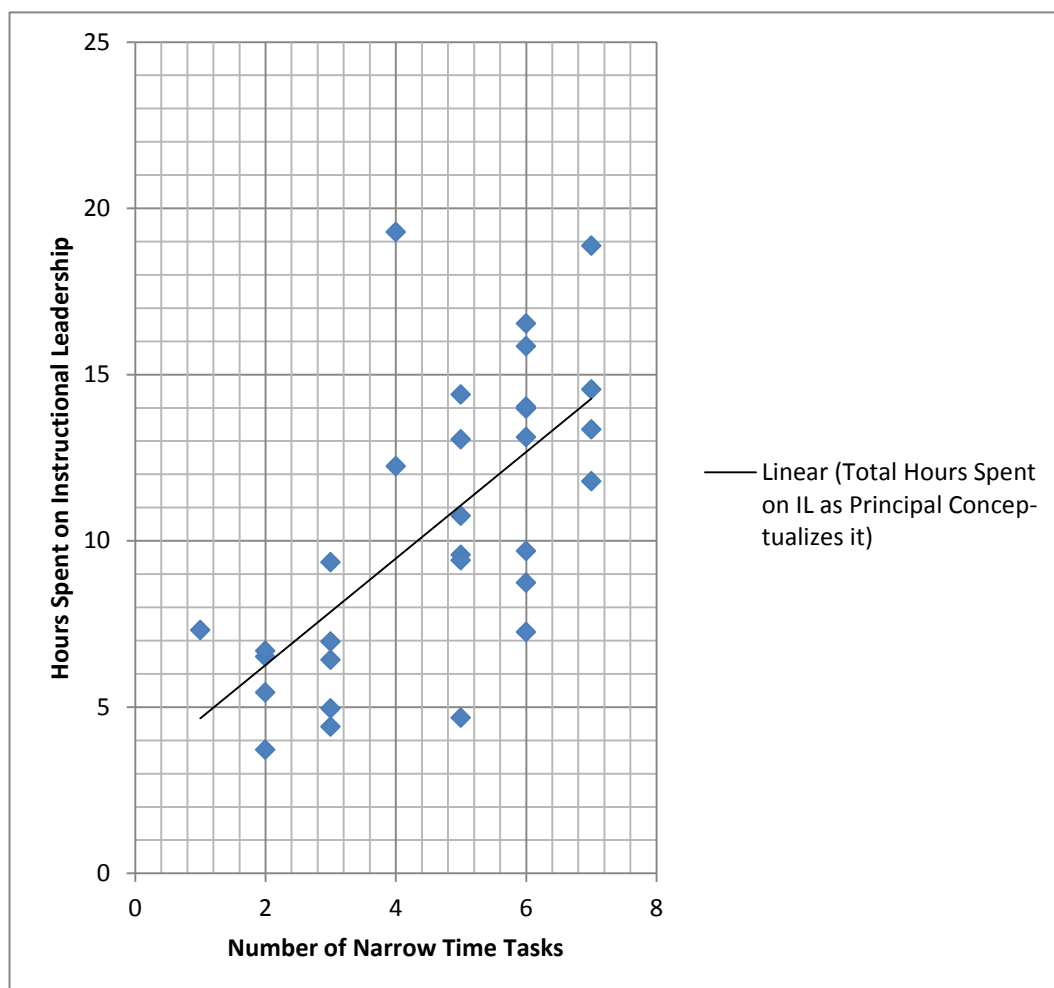
Figure 1. The Linear Relationship between the Number of Narrow Time Tasks and the Total

Amount of Perceived Principal Time Spent On Instructional Leadership

The reader might think from Table 26 that Group 3 (coaching, mentoring, and collaboration) produced more entries in the narrow time tasks, but this was not true. Of the twelve principals who responded six or seven out of the seven time tasks in the narrow definition, four principals described that evaluating the school and developing a vision for improvement of the school as their most important activity of instructional leadership, four described coaching, mentoring, and collaborating, three described being in classes, and one described hiring for excellence. Principals who had many entries in the time tasks associated with the narrow conceptualization of instructional leadership came from all the groups.

Group 1, 2 and 3 most important thematic groups *can* produce high levels of time entries in the narrow definition of instructional leadership if they are combined with other sub-concepts that were not "most important." However, Group 4 spent significantly less time in the tasks associated with the narrow definition. One possible explanation of this result might be that the principals in Groups 1, 2, and 3 all had a narrow focus, while Group 4's focus was not.

Another way of looking at the time spent on the tasks in the narrow definition of instructional leadership would be to examine the total percentage of instructional leadership time spent in the narrow definition whether or not the principal mentioned these tasks. The results showed that the principals in all four groups spent about the same amount of time in the narrow time tasks. This equality of time showed that even when principals did not conceptualize instructional leadership as narrow, they spent time doing these activities.

Aggregated time on the narrow definition of instructional leadership. As mentioned earlier, seven time task questions were identified as the time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership. By aggregating all the time spent in the time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership, we find that 188.52 hours out of

313.51 hours of total principal time or 60.1% of the principals' instructional leadership time was spent in the narrow definition. Table 27 disaggregates that time by the seven time task questions associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership.

In the findings about the principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership, "being in classrooms" was the most included sub-concept on instructional leadership. Seventy-three percent of the principals in the study accepted this sub-concept into their total conceptualization. The research indicated that 40% of principals listed "being in classrooms and evaluating teachers" as the most important task of instructional leadership. Within the narrow time tasks of instructional leadership, principals spent nearly twice as much time at the task of being in classrooms and giving feedback as at *any* other task of instructional leadership. The highest of the broad time tasks accounted for an average of only 8.1% of the time spent on instructional leadership, so the broad tasks were also well below being in classrooms. From Table 27, the fact that principals spent double the amount of time in classrooms and providing feedback than any other instructional leadership activity is further evidence that principals' conceptualizations influence their use of time. Table 27 shows that the average amount of time that the principals spent working on issues in the narrow definition of instructional leadership was 6 1/3 hours per week, 60.1% of their average instructional leadership time and 12% of their total time. Principals believed they spent twice as much time being in classrooms and giving feedback as any other activity of instructional leadership. This finding aligns with other results that indicate that the most accepted sub-concept of instructional leadership is observing in classes and evaluating teachers.

Summary of instructional leadership and the principals' use of time. The main question of this study asked if there was a relationship between the way the principal

conceptualized instructional leadership and the way the principal chose to use time on the tasks of instructional leadership. The results of this study suggested that they were related in several ways when the results were studied at the individual level. The data suggested that when the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership included more of the narrow time tasks, then the principal spent more time overall on instructional leadership. Additionally, the data suggested that having certain conceptualizations may have a relationship to the conformity of the principals to their "most important" focus, but not their commitment of time to instructional leadership.

Belonging to one of the three main thematic "most important" groups did not relate to the total amount of time that the principal commits to instructional leadership. Group 4 spent significantly less time on instructional leadership as they defined it. Principals in Groups 3 (coaching, mentoring, and collaboration) spent more of their instructional leadership time doing what they thought was most important. Principals spent the most amount of instructional leadership time on the sub-concept that they named most consistently as part of their conceptualization, being in classrooms and giving feedback. Principals spent twice as much time at this task than at any other instructional leadership task, an indication that their conceptualization may influence their use of time.

The answer to the main research question could be found in three main points. First, principals who adopted the "most important" thematic focus of coaching, mentoring and collaboration had a higher conformity than other principals. These principals also spent more time on time tasks they thought were most important. Secondly, principals who included more sub-concepts in their total conceptualization that produced time tasks associated with the narrow

Table 27

Total Perceived Time Spent by Principals on Tasks Associated With the Narrow Definition of

Instructional Leadership

Time Task	Total Ave. Hours Spent By Each Principal/wk	Ave. % of Instructional Leadership Time	Ave. % of All Time
Being in classroom and giving feedback to teachers	1.93hrs.	18.5%	3.6%
Helping teachers with data	.96 hrs.	9.2%	1.8%
Providing professional development for teachers .	.87 hrs.	8.3%	1.7%
Collaborating with teachers	.84 hrs.	8.0%	1.6%
Planning interventions for struggling students	.82 hrs.	7.8%	1.5%
Developing teacher leaders	.51 hrs.	4.9%	.97%
Talking to teachers about the goals of the school	.44 hrs.	4.2%	.85%
Totals	6.37 hrs.	60.1%	12.02%

definitions of instructional leadership totaled a greater amount of instructional leadership time. Third, principals thought they spent the most amount of time on being in classrooms and giving feedback. In this way, they consistently spent the most time on the sub-concept they included most often in their conceptualization. Combined, these three findings give fairly strong evidence that the conceptualizations that principals adopt are associated with their time usage.

Chapter Five

Discussion

This chapter relates the findings of the study to the literature review and envisions what the findings might mean in the field of education. It reflects on information obtained to address the three research questions, identifies areas of future research, and relates the findings to principals' practices.

Reflections on Results Pertaining to the Research Questions

This study addressed how principals conceptualized instructional leadership and perceived their use of time in a typical week. It also helped address the association between the elementary principal's conceptualization of leadership and their time use. The research questions are:

1. How do principals conceptualize instructional leadership?

2. How did elementary principals perceive they used their time in a typical week?

3. Was there an association between the elementary principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and the principal's allocation of time to the tasks of instructional leadership?

Conceptualizations of instructional leadership. The findings indicate that although principals recognized a broad academic conceptualization of instructional leadership as demonstrated by their agreement with almost the entire Likert-scale section in the survey, they articulated a more limited knowledge of how they defined and worked as an instructional leader. Most of the principals had taken classes and attended professional training on the meaning of instructional leadership. The results of the prompted, Likert-style section of the survey showed that principals were familiar with the widely varying definitions of instructional leadership. However, their active knowledge of the way they could work as instructional leaders was much

less developed compared to their recognition when prompted of the components of instructional leadership. This observable gap between what principals knew about and what they expressed from memory was important because, on a day-to-day basis at school, principals probably operated from the knowledge they recalled from memory.

Reality of implementation. Principals have limited time to implement instructional leadership. Findings revealed that principals reported spending an average of about 20% of their total time on the activities and behaviors of instructional leadership. When the time for instructional leadership occurs, principals recalled from memory the behaviors and activities that they needed to perform as they moved from task to task. The time for instructional leadership occurs in interrupted time blocks of one to four minutes as Martin and Willower (1981) discovered. In the over 200 interactions per day (Blendinger & Snipe, 1996) that the principal has, they probably interwove instructional leadership in and out of these conversations and interactions. The principal would not have time to consult notes to remind himself or herself of all the known activities of instructional leadership as he or she moves through these tasks. The principal would have to have activities, behaviors, and attitudes firmly at the forefront of their minds to stay on message as Tichy recommended (Sparks, 2005).

Different conceptualizations. The findings suggested that principals conceptualize instructional leadership in unique and different ways. This finding validated the Mitchell and Castle (2005) study, which suggested that principals may have different assumptions behind their conceptualizations of instructional leadership. The principals in this study had varied meanings in the conceptualizations of instructional leadership. In fact, the principals' conceptualizations were as varied as the research definitions. Not only did principals have limited conceptualizations, these limited conceptualizations were different for each principal. When

principals were drawing from their self-constructed knowledge, they might not make the same decisions about instructional leadership because they were operating from different conceptualizations (Table 12).

In the literature review, the definitions that researchers used for instructional leadership differed, and this lack of agreement confused the research (Sheppard, 1996). Similar to the research literature, principals' perceptions of instructional leadership differed. No two principals among the thirty interviewed delineated the exact same conceptualization of instructional leadership (Table 11). Thus, when the term instructional leadership was used in professional development, each principal was likely thinking about a different form of leadership. This research also showed that the principals in this study had self-constructed conceptualizations that included many of the same phrases or sub-concepts, but the combinations of these sub-concepts were unique to each principal.

Limited conceptualizations. From their working memory, each principal combined between three and ten sub-concepts to self-construct a readily accessible base of instructional leadership. Although the principal may have tacit knowledge to meet specific demands on the job, these three to ten sub-concepts are what the principal works from as they wove instructional leadership through the short interactions and tasks that comprise their job.

Being prompted to recognize something is not the same as self-constructing that conceptualization for oneself. A gap between the principal's prompted or academic conceptualization and the principal's self-constructed or working conceptualization was demonstrated in the data. This gap might mean the difference between knowing and doing. The principals knew most of the aspects of instructional leadership. However, perhaps the learning was not deep or thorough enough to cause the principals to include those aspects when they

needed to self-construct a conceptualization as they would have to on the job. They would have

to dig deeper in their memory to recall these other ideas.

A principal would need to self-construct a conceptualization of instructional leadership in

order to practice instructional leadership.   On the job, no prompts are available for the

principals, so the principals are working from the sub-concepts they know. An analogy of this

might be a person who could recognize a piece of music that is heard without being able to play

it. In the same way, the principals could recognize parts of instructional leadership when

prompted, while not including these same concepts in a working conceptualization. If a principal

was not able to quickly self-construct the ideas of a conceptualization, the principal would need

to spend more time recalling these ideas to use them.

This is similar to Argyris and Schon's (1974, p. 93) discussion of "espoused theories"

and "theories-in-use." The espoused theory is one that a person idealizes and will tell you about,

while the theory-in-use is the theory that the person actually uses in daily practice, a more

practical version of the espoused theory. Argygis (1987) suggested that what people do is more

closely aligned to their true theory than what people espouse, although many people do not

realize that a difference exists between the two theories. For the purposes of this research,

although principals could put together quite a large conceptualization when they were prompted

by the ideas of the research (an academic conceptualization), they had a more limited self-

constructed conceptualization (a knowledge of the way they worked). The researcher came to

believe that the self-constructed conceptualization was more representative of the true

conceptualization of the principals. Whether the principals were aware of the difference between

the two was unclear from the data.

In this study, the principals retained an average of six or seven sub-concepts, and this limitation might imply that researchers and trainers of principals might want to limit the definition of instructional leadership by coming to a consensus on which six or seven roles are most important to instructional leadership. Because we are currently working in the age of educational accountability, trainers could consider selecting the six or seven sub-concepts that could be used by principals to leverage their time toward improving student test scores such as the skill of building teams or how to use and discuss data and assessment to improve the effectiveness of instruction.

"Being in classrooms" mentioned most. Although principals combined many sub-concepts to make their total conceptualization, principals consistently identified "being in classrooms" as the sub-concept they recognize most as an instructional leadership behavior. According to the findings, principals included "being in classrooms" most frequently as part of their total conceptualization (73% of principals), and 40% of the principals said that this task was the "most important" activity of instructional leadership. Fifty-three percent of the principals visualized a principal observing in the classroom as part of instructional leadership. This was the activity they visualized the most. Principals also spent twice the amount of time (17.4%) at the task of being in classrooms and evaluating teachers than with any other instructional leadership task. The principals also consistently agreed that being in classrooms and evaluating teachers was essential to their conceptualization of instructional leadership.

While clear about the necessity to be in classrooms, the principals were less clear about what they should do in the classrooms. In some of the principal interviews, the researcher received the impression that principals felt they should just be present in classrooms—not really working on improving instruction and learning. In fact, when asked about whether principals

impacted student learning, five principals answered that they did not think the principal had an impact on student learning, and only six principals included improving instruction in their total self-constructed conceptualization of instructional leadership. Trainers and developers of new and existing principals could help principals see more purpose in "being in classrooms." The recent development of observation checklists was a good start, but perhaps even the checklists are given too much attention to visible artifacts over lesson design, lesson delivery, and student reception. Principals could be taking data on student engagement and looking for adequate objectives for the lesson instead of checking off the number of strategic artifacts in the room. Since "being in classrooms" was most likely to be chosen by the principal to do as part of instructional leadership, the performance of this task needs to be practiced and perfected in a way to enhanced instruction and improved student test scores.

   Three "most important" thematic groups. When asked to identify the "most important" activity that a principal does when acting as an instructional leader, three main conceptualization groups emerged: being in classrooms and evaluating teachers (40% of principals), evaluating the needs of the school and developing a vision for school improvement (27% of principals), and coaching, mentoring and collaborating with teachers (16% of principals). These conceptualizations were responses from 83% of the principals. These three thematic groups follow the definition of the narrow focus on instructional leadership. The narrow focus concentrates on activities of instruction and student learning. The three themes did not come from the same time periods of educational reform. Being in classrooms was stressed during the effective schools movement. Having a vision came from the restructuring reform era when the principal concentrated on motivating teachers to form and work on goals. Mentoring and

coaching began during restructuring and continued with more importance into accountability when improving test scores became the focus of instructional leadership.

The last 17% of the principals, chose providing resources, hiring for excellence, and establishing a culture as the most important activities of instructional leadership. These themes emphasized a broad conceptualization of instructional leadership, but far fewer principals accepted these broad conceptualizations as "most important." Trainers of principals and researchers may be able to limit the sub-concepts of instructional leadership by only allowing the narrow conceptualizations into the definition of instructional leadership without too much disruption to the conceptualizations of principals. Principals may adjust to this change without much disruption because 60% of their instructional leadership time in this study was already spent in the narrow time tasks. Perhaps they could label the broad sub-concepts another name such as "maintaining the flow of the school" or "running the school." If the definition was limited to the narrow definition, the principals might perfect the skills necessary to enact these fewer sub-concepts of instructional leadership in their day-to-day practice more frequently.

The Duffy (2003) study predicted that the mental model that principals carried influenced principals' choices of how they spent their time. The Ruff and Shoho (2005) study also asserted that the conceptualizations of instructional leadership that principals held would guide their activities and behaviors, and determine how they spent their time. If the Duffy and the Ruff and Shoho studies were correct, then the principal's idea of what was "most important" should increase the amount of time spent on these activities. When the principals indicated what was "most important" about instructional leadership in this study, they put a value on that task. This value should have increased the amount of time that those principals spent on the activities associated with what the principals labeled as "most important." Findings suggested that only

one group (the group that said coaching, mentoring, and collaboration were "most important")
spent more time on what they thought was most important (see Table 24). This study concluded
that the conformity of the principals was only related to what they chose as "most important" if
that focus was coaching, mentoring, and collaborating.

If a principal chose "coaching, mentoring, and collaborating" as the "most important"
focus of instructional leadership, that choice activated six of the seven narrow definition time
tasks. Findings showed that the principals in this third group spent the highest percentage of
time and the highest number of hours on what they thought was "most important." A possible
explanation may be that the word "coaching" implied a principal who was more involved with
instruction than "being in classrooms" and the word "mentoring" implied a principal who was
more involved in the change process than a principal who was "evaluating." The word
"collaborating" implied teachers who are more involved in working on instructional
improvement than having a strategic written plan. This involvement would take more of the
principal's instructional leadership time to implement. Besides activating more narrow time
tasks, the principal may have spent more time at the tasks associated with what they felt was
"most important."

Acceptance of sub-concepts from different reform movements. Each of the three recent
school reform movements anticipated different behaviors by the principals. The intent of the
effective school reform was to find better management practices that would result in more
efficient and effective schools. During the effective schools movement, researchers such as
Edmonds (1982) and Barth (1990) asked what management qualities the instructional leader in
an effective school had that might be emulated by other principals to produce equally effective
schools. Although studies about effective schools did not agree on what "effective" meant

(Gentilucci & Muto, 2007), the studies did agree principals should have strong managerial skills (Edmonds, 1982). The principal was to be the boss, the evaluator, the observer in classes, the provider of professional development, and the authority around the school with high visibility. The hierarchal style of instructional leadership mirrored the desired management style in business at the time. The results of this study suggest that the roles of the principal from the effective school movement were also the roles most recognized by the practicing elementary principals in this study. Of the 25 possible sub-concepts in this study, the three with the highest acceptance in the conceptualizations of principals in their self-constructed responses were all roles from the effective school reform.

During the restructuring period, instructional leaders were to be facilitators of school-constructed goals. The intent of restructuring was to bring the decision-making powers closer to the teachers through site-based decision-making thus lessening the number of hierarchal levels in the school system organization. The principal was to guide those goals by providing a vision for the school and culture of learning at the school (Austin & Reynolds, 1990). The principal's role in the restructuring period was to build relationships of trust with teachers so they would participate and cooperate in the process of achieving the goals of the school. In the list of the 25 sub-concepts of instructional leadership from the principals' self-constructed conceptualizations, seven principals said that having a vision was part of their conceptualization, ten principals said providing resources, two principals said establishing a culture, five said helping teachers, and eight said building relationships with teachers. However, fewer principals mentioned the aspects of facilitative instructional leadership of the restructuring reform period as part of their conceptualization (average of 7.4 principals for each sub-concept) than the activities associated with the effective schools reform movement (average 19.3 principals for each sub-concept).

In the accountability movement, the role of the principal included increasing student learning as evidenced by the end-of-year test scores. The goals of the schools were expressed in terms of student test scores. The principals did not do the actual teaching in the classroom, therefore they worked with teachers to accomplish this goal. However, principals were held accountable for the scores (Stiggins & Chappuis, 2005). Instructional leadership in the accountability movement was concerned with improving the results of instruction. Therefore, it was concerned with the quality of instruction as it led to mastery of learning for end-of-year tests. The formation of professional learning communities (PLCs) is one leading and researched way to work to improve teachers' instructional strategies and the method proposed by the school district from which the sample principals came.

The principals in this district received professional development once a month for the two years before this survey was taken based on the DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2006) book, *Learning By Doing, A Handbook for Professional Learning Communities at Work*. The training emphasized forming teams of teachers who could work together to articulate the exact knowledge outcomes, developing common assessments, using data to inform the results of instruction, and using interventions for students who were not achieving. A few of the activities associated with PLCs as proposed by this training did appear in the principals' conceptualizations of instructional leadership such as a focus on student learning, teaming, data-driven instruction, and use of assessment. However, the responses of the principals indicated that this training was not enough to bring the ideas of PLCs to the forefront in this survey.

Fewer principals mentioned the activities associated with accountability reform (average of 6 principals for each sub-concept) than the activities associated with the restructuring or the effective school reform periods. Only about 20% of the principals in this study included these

roles in their conceptualizations. The principals in this study knew of the recent roles of instructional leadership because they agreed that these activities were a part of instructional leadership in the Likert-style questions in Section C. However, when they self-constructed their responses in Section B, their ideas did not represent these newer roles such as being a change leader or developing an organization that learns and improves.

Placing these roles in different reform periods was not an attempt to say that one role replaced another, especially since the Witziers, Rosker, and Kruger (2003) study indicated that the roles of each period added to the roles of the last period instead of replacing them. The purpose of placing the roles of the principals in the reform movements was to show the acceptance among principals of a developing role as an instructional leader. According to this research, the instructional leadership role that principals accepted into their self-constructed responses did not appear to be current in all cases. Despite being able to identify the newer roles, many principals did not have these newer sub-concepts in their active knowledge of how they performed instructional leadership. Trainers of existing principals may need to re-teach, model, explain, advocate for these newer roles over a longer period of time if they want their training to have its intended impact.

Responding to professional development. From the literature review, the researcher fit the research about instructional leadership into six groups that represented the broad definition of instructional leadership (Table 2). These groups were (a) the ability to combine many leadership personal skills, (b) the ability to manage basic operations, (c) the ability to develop social trust, (d) the ability to develop a compelling vision, (e) the ability to understand the change process, and (f) the ability to create an organization that learns and improves. Under each group were several sub-categories. The results of this study found the principals included many personal

leadership skills in their self-constructed conceptualizations and believed that managing basic operations was important to their instructional leadership. Many principals included developing social trust as part of their self-constructed conceptualization of instructional leadership, but with fewer acceptances. This study indicated that principals struggled with including the recent roles of developing and communicating a compelling vision, understanding and promoting the change process, and creating an organization that learns and improves in their self-constructed conceptualizations of instructional leadership.

Despite two years of monthly professional development in the sample district for accountability, little mention of the ideas presented in these professional development sessions appeared in the discussion of instructional leadership by the principals in their self-constructed responses. For instance, only six principals mentioned collaborating or building PLCs, and only three principals mentioned building teams in their responses. Only two principals mentioned developing teacher leadership. Although the principals indicated when prompted that they knew about the sub-concepts associated with PLCs, the principals did not include them at a high rate when they self-constructed their answers. The self-constructed responses probably represented the ideas that the principals had in their memories as they functioned around the school. Despite two years of training about developing collaborative cultures to improve student test scores, many of the principals still felt that the most important thing that principals did as instructional leaders was to be in classrooms and to evaluate teachers, the emphasis of the effective schools movement.

Many of the principals' responses suggested that they had not moved to a facilitative style of servant leadership favored in restructuring reform movement either. For instance, only two principals mentioned establishing a culture and only four principals mentioned helping

teachers. Yet when prompted most of the principals agreed that establishing a culture was part of instructional leadership. When prompted, principals agreed fairly strongly that principals needed to help teachers provide for the needs of different types of students, but no mention of differentiating instruction appeared in the self-constructed responses or any mention of providing interventions for struggling students. If the principal did not include an activity in his or her conceptualization, it did not necessarily mean that the principal did not do this activity. However, those activities were not speedily connected to the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and thus, in the opinion of this researcher, would not be the first methods the principal would try in the practice of instructional leadership.

New methods of training principals may be needed to help principals practice a more complete conceptualization of instructional leadership. The difference between the principal's prompted conceptualization and the principal's instantly articulated conceptualization paralleled the gap in teachers' learning and doing from professional development detailed in the Black and Wiliams (1998) study. More training about instructional leadership was probably needed to help principals move from "knowing about when prompted" to "readily recallable knowing."

Principals are nearly ten years into the No Child Left Behind legislation, yet the principals in this study did not indicate in their self-constructed responses or the way they used their time that they were working collaboratively with teachers to make meaningful changes in instructional patterns that might improve student learning outcomes. Activities that demonstrated working with teachers and influencing them to change their practices were lacking in the self-constructed responses for many principals. Dennis Sparks (2005b) referred to the final effort needed to turn teacher knowledge into action as *The Final 2%.* Sparks claimed that the final 2% was the worthwhile effort it took to move teachers toward improvement as a result

of professional development. Perhaps the final 2% is needed with principals also, where principals have perfected the skills of instructional leadership to point where they can instantly express what instructional leadership looks like in the 21st century age of accountability.

Principal as a change agent. Marzano, Waters, and NcNulty (2005) stated that currently it is the instructional leader's responsibility to improve test scores. Yet only one-fifth of the principals mentioned improving test scores as part of their conceptualization of instructional leadership. This lack of completeness in their self-constructed conceptualization showed up in other ways too. Only four principals mentioned modeling, only three mentioned building teams, two mentioned building teacher leadership, and only two mentioned using assessment as a way to improve instructional patterns. Fullan (2002) stated that the principal's role in the standards and accountability movement should be the role of change agent. Yet the self-constructed responses of most principals in this study were deficient in newer ideas about the instructional leader's role as a change agent in the instructional practices of teachers.

The research of Fullan (2002), Sebring & Bryk (2006), Peterson & Cosner (2005), and Tooms (2003) made a clear case that principals should understand the change process in order to change ineffective instructional habits. The principals never mentioned Fullan's "implementation dip," Sebring and Bryk's suggestion to begin with small successes, Oliver's (2006) idea of evaluating what will be left in the wake of change, Evan's (2001) idea of alleviating the anxiety of change, Kotter and Schlesinger's (1979) idea of managing the pace of change, or Marzano's (2003) idea of situational leadership in dealing with aspects of change that were proceeding at an uneven pace. The principals did not express knowledge about the change process. A deficit in knowledge about change would probably impact their ability to bring about change. From the self-constructed responses of the principals, this study suggested that most of

the principals in this study, who must make change in achievement at their schools to meet the demands of accountability, expressed few ideas about how changes happen. The principals revealed very little evidence that they were thinking of the change process, the pace of change, or articulating the vision for that change. Barth (1990) wrote that, "The principal is the key to a good school" (p. 64), but how the principals were to be that "key" that Barth referred to has changed in the different reform movements. Likewise, definitions of instructional leadership have changed as will be discussed in the next section.

Responses about the definitions of instructional leadership. In the literature review, the narrow and broad definitions of instructional leadership were discussed (Sheppard, 1996). In this study, no principals were found to adhere strictly to a narrow or strictly to a broad definition of instructional leadership. This study did find, however, that those principals whose conceptualizations of instructional leadership produced more time entries in the tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership spent more total time on instructional leadership. However, the principals who identified the largest number of time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership were not exclusively from any particular "most important" group. Principals from many groups combined sub-concepts in their conceptualizations to address six or seven out of the seven time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership. This finding needs to have follow-up studies done to test the results for principals outside this one district because other districts may train principals in different ways.

Principals in this study did not seem familiar with the Marzano et al. (2005) study that identified *situational awareness* as the characteristic with the highest correlation to increased student test scores. Remembering that situational awareness in the Marzano study meant to be

"aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and to use this information to address current and potential problems" (p. 42), the study uncovered no evidence that principals were aware of this aspect of instructional leadership. Nor did the principals reveal any knowledge of adapting their leadership style to the needs of the current situation, which Marzano called *flexibility*, and was the characteristic with the second highest relationship to increasing student test scores in the Marzano study. The Marzano study has distinctive wording that is easily recognizable. No principals mentioned situational awareness or flexibility or similar ideas that are in the Marzano study. Principals spent their time according to other directives and guidelines and not according to some of the newer teachings.

Principals' perception of how they use time. The study asked for the participating principals' perception of how they spent their time. The time spent on each task of instructional leadership was estimated by the principals from their memory and perception. The results of this survey showed that practicing elementary principals in this district spent their time in the following ways: 22% on students, 11% on parent issues, 14% on office tasks, 10% on district tasks, 26% on teacher related tasks, and 17% on other school tasks. From these percentages, the study concluded that about half of these principals' time was spent on students and teachers.

Comparison of study to other research. The study found that elementary principals in this district self-reported working an average of 53.7 hours per week. This weekly hourly work week agreed with the Taylor (2007) study which found that secondary principals worked between 50-60 hours per week, meaning that elementary principals work similar hours as secondary principals. Elementary principals are working very full days and districts probably cannot increase their workload without also increasing stress on the principals.

The review of literature revealed little research into how elementary principals spent their time. The time use in this study showed that the participants spent time in similar ways to the high school principals in other states as reported in the Martin and Willower (1981) study. By going back to that survey's questions and fitting the questions into the categories established in the Martin and Willower (1981) study, the comparisons in Table 28 can be made. Although the Martin and Willower study was of secondary principals and was done 30 years ago, the results were quite comparable. Because scheduled meetings, unscheduled meetings, and conversations were interchangeable forms of oral conversations, the results seemed much the same. If the first four categories of time were added for the Martin and Willower study, principals spent 70% of their time on solving school problems through conversations and paperwork. In the present study, the first four categories added up to 66% of the principal's time. This research did not explore if the subject matter of these conversations was the same or not, or if the content of the paperwork was the same. Further study about the content of these communications could be the subject of another study. Table 28 shows that personal time decreased 4% and strategic planning increased 5%. Five percent more desk work had been added. The Martin and Willower (1981) study showed only about 2% of the principal's time was spent in classrooms. Because of the demands of accountability and the need to increase student test scores, the principals spent more time in the classroom (3.6%, rather than 2%), but not at all close to the 14% of the outstanding principals in the Gaziel (1995) study. Although principals claimed that "being in the classrooms" was very important to their conceptualization of instructional leadership (22 out of 30 principals mentioned this as part of their conceptualization), they still relegated a small portion of their total time to spend in classrooms. Some small differences in the use of time were revealed in Table 28. Even though principals spent more time at "being in classrooms and giving

feedback" than any other activity of instructional leadership, a gap exists between the importance

principals put on "being in classrooms" and the total time they actually spent in classrooms.

Table 28

Comparison of Findings on Principal Time Usage

Category of Activity	Martin & Willower (1981)	This Study
Desk work	16%	21%
Scheduled Meetings	17%	19%
Unscheduled Meetings	28%	10%
Conversations	9%	16%
Phone (and e-mail)	6%	6%
Personal	5%	1%
Monitoring Building	13%	15%
Outside Trips	2%	3%
In Classrooms	2%	3.6%
Strategic Planning	0.1%	5%

Kellogg (2005) referred to a gap between how principals would like to spend time and

how they did spend time. Also, the Whitaker and Turner (2000) study concluded that principals

would like to spend more time on instructional leadership but could not find enough time with

the other tasks assigned to them. This study indicated that this gap may still exist because many

principals mentioned their lack of time to do all the tasks in their job description even though this

was not asked as a question in the survey.

Application of the time results to school districts. The Gaziel (1995) and Wallace

Foundation (2005) studies suggest schools that achieved student test scores above the expected

range of test scores for their socio-economic status were led by principals who spent more time

in the classroom. The Gaziel study in Israel reported that principals spent six hours of

documented in-class teaching each week. Unclear in the Gaziel study was whether this in-class teaching was modeling for the teacher or relieving the teacher. Using their idea as a model, however, perhaps some requirement for documented principal attention to instructional leadership might increase the principal's commitment to instructional leadership, especially if a district could identify six or seven activities of instructional leadership that the principal could track such as time spent discussing data with teachers, time spent observing teachers, or time spent working on interventions for struggling students.

If principals recognized that being in classrooms was important and research supported the theory, then the question is why principals are not spending more time in classrooms. Most principals would be unlikely to increase the total amount of time per week in classrooms without prioritizing their other activities and leaving out the less important activities. A priority in districts that want principals to commit more time to instructional leadership might be to reduce other principal responsibilities such as spending more and more time doing reports in the office.

The results of this study indicate an increase of 5% in the amount of desk time for the principals over the last 30 years (Martin & Willower, 1981). If these results were generally true, then districts that want principals to focus more on the newer instructional leadership practices need to make a commitment to reducing other responsibilities of the principal. Principals listed activities that deal with student discipline, parents, and district commitments as distractions to instructional leadership. The distractions would be a good place to look for ways to reduce the principal's work load. A commitment to decreasing the principal's workload outside of classrooms would also be a commitment of resources. If the same or more paperwork must get done, a commitment to instructional leadership might necessitate hiring and training other people to do the reports and paperwork as suggested in the Wallace Foundation (2005) study. Principals

could also look for ways to reduce these distractions whether from solving instructional problems that result in parent complaints, putting interventions in place that reduce discipline problems, or finding ways to prepare necessary paperwork quickly.

Principal time is limited as stated above, but the responses of the principals indicated that time might not be the only factor that limits the principal's performance of instructional leadership. The articulated responses of the principals on the self-constructed questions showed that principals had trouble expressing the newer ideas of instructional leadership, especially the ideas associated with the accountability time period, yet they are asked to perform in the current environment. The principal needs to spend more time focusing on instructional practices suggested by DuFour et al. (2006) such as creating a clear and compelling purpose, focusing on learning, responding to students who are not learning, building a collaborative culture, and focusing on results. Lack of integrated knowledge might be another factor that holds principals back from successfully raising student scores.

The failure of principals to conceptualize and act on their knowledge of PLCs suggests that improved methods of providing professional development might be necessary. Just as teachers attend professional training and only bring back those ideas that fit comfortably into their existing practices, the self-constructed responses indicate that principals may also bring back only those parts of PLCs with which they felt comfortable. Developing a PLC is hard and complicated work. Maybe this is one reason many principals did not include it in their self-constructed conceptualization of what should be done for instructional leadership. Perhaps when PLC training is provided, accountability could also require some sort of follow-up or on-site demonstration of this new knowledge. Although the training for PLCs was given to principals in the sample throughout the district, it seems the principals did not capture the vision.

Association between instructional leadership and use of time. The conclusions of several studies seem contradictory about the association between a principal's instructional leadership and use of time. Ruff (2002) and Mitchell and Castle (2005) studies suggested that the way principals conceptualize instructional leadership influenced the way they spent their time for instructional leadership. These two studies had limited samples and did not specify the amounts of time the principals spent on instructional leadership or what activities were included in instructional leadership. The Gaziel (1995) and the Wallace Foundation (2005) studies suggested that the amount of time the principal spent on instructional leadership had an influence on the success of the school in terms of school test scores. However, if the principal's conceptualization determined the amount and the type of activities the principal spent on instructional leadership, then principal time on instructional leadership could not be the sole determining factor on school test scores success. The conceptualization that led the principal to act on his or her conceptualization would have to be considered. The principal's time could be a reflection of the principal's conceptualization, both in how much time is spent and in which activities the principal chose to spend time. These other factors would need to be considered in addition to time. The principals could be deliberately doing different things with their time.

In this study, the researcher chose not to examine school test success, but only look at a small part of the principal's role which explores the relationship between the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership and the principal's use of time for instructional leadership. In short, very little knowledge was known about how principals conceptualized instructional leadership due to the confusing definitions represented in the research. Also, the research revealed very little about how elementary school principals spent their time, especially on what they considered to be instructional leadership. This study explored the association

between the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership, and how that principal used time to reflect that conceptualization and found that these factors did influence the principals' use of time. Time alone could not be considered the only factor influencing principal success, as the Gaziel (1995) and the Wallace Foundation (2005) studies imply.

The way that principals spent instructional leadership time was related to the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership in several ways.   Findings indicated that principals who identified more of the time tasks associated with the narrow definition of instructional leadership spent more time on their total instructional leadership tasks (commitment).   Findings also indicated that principals spent double the time "being in classrooms and providing feedback" than any other instructional leadership activity. Findings found that the group that identified "coaching, modeling, and collaborating" as the most important task of instructional leadership focused their instructional leadership practice more consistently to reflect their idea of what was most important (conformity). These are ways that the principal's conceptualization of instructional leadership including conformity, commitment and focus related to the principal's use of time.

Conformity, commitment, and focus of instructional leadership. The Gaziel (1995) study suggested that principals who were able to reduce all other activities to spend more time on activities they thought were "most important" led schools that were more successful. The Gaziel study suggested that those principals who had higher conformity to their own self-conceptualization of instructional leadership would be better principals. However, this research indicated that some principals with high conformity had a lower time commitment to instructional leadership. A lot of variability exists within each "most important" thematic group. (The "most important" thematic groups were reported as being in classrooms and evaluating

teachers, evaluating the needs of the school and developing a vision for school improvement, coaching, mentoring and collaborating, providing resources and professional development for teachers, hiring for excellence, and establishing a culture.) Conformity could not be the only measure of principal effectiveness in accountability reform. Neither could commitment. Some principals had high time commitment to instructional leadership as they defined it, but were not focusing their practice to reflect the activities that they thought were most important. Some principals had a high conformity to what they thought was most important, but actually spent very little time on instructional leadership.

Conformity and commitment were both important ways to describe a principal's instructional leadership. If a principal (such as 1B4) had a commitment score of 7%, then only 7% of that principal's total time was spent on instructional leadership as that principal described instructional leadership. If that same principal had a conformity score of 63.6% but a commitment score of 7%, then although that principal had a high conformity score (that principal was doing what he or she thought was important when doing instructional leadership), but it represented very little total instructional leadership time. If a principal (such as 1A2) had a high commitment score, 37.7% of their total time spent on instructional leadership, but a low conformity score (only 12.2% of that instructional leadership time spent on what they thought was most important), then the principal was doing tasks of instructional leadership, but not what that principal felt was most important.

This study suggests that both conformity and commitment were important. However, one other factor also might need to be examined when considering the principal's instructional leadership practices. Two principals had higher conformity of their "most important" thematic focus of providing resources, a conceptualization that was not focused on instruction in the

classroom. Because improving test scores is the measure by which we now identify performing principals (Sebring et al., 2006), the researcher thinks that conformity to a conceptualization would be most helpful when it is also a conformity that will produce results in the test score outcomes. A combination of commitment to instructional leadership, conformity to what was most important about instructional leadership, and a focus on student results might be a way to indicate a principal who is acting as an effective instructional leader. Although this study did not focus on which conceptualizations influenced test scores, further study might address this question.

   Conceptualizations expressed in simplistic phrases. No two principals seemed to use the same self-constructed conceptualization of instructional leadership. Findings seemed to be a reflection of the differing research literature on instructional leadership in general as the studies had overlapping or different definitions for instructional leadership. Some principals held just a few sub-concepts (as few as three) as part of their self-constructed conceptualization and others held as many as ten sub-concepts. Still, ten is a small number compared to the twenty-six sub-concepts that the principals agreed with in the prompted response section (Section C) of the survey.

   Although the principals had different self-constructed conceptualizations, they mentioned the same phrases time and again without much expansion or elaboration of the ideas. The principals rarely explained the purpose of these ideas. For instance, twelve principals said that evaluating data was in their conceptualization, but only two of those twelve principals mentioned that assessment was in their conceptualization. Yet evaluating data and assessment are connected in the most elemental way. Analyzing data requires first giving an assessment. Another example is that twelve principals said that keeping current on practice was in their

conceptualization, but only one of those twelve principals mentioned PLCs, which is a current idea suggested by this district. The lack of robust expansion of the ideas associated with their self-constructed conceptualizations might merit the exploration of each of these phrases (such as establishing a culture or building teacher leaders) to find out exactly what the principals meant by these phrases. An investigation into what each of these phrases really meant to principals could be the subject of a future study.

Styles of time management. The research pointed out some inconsistencies between the principal's ideas of what was "most important" and what the principals spent time on in their job. The average amount of time that principals spent on instructional leadership (20%) was much less than the amount of time that the principal spent on the things they noted as distractions (39.9%). The inconsistency between the principals' use of time and their intended use of time supports Robinson's (2006) theory that many principals may operate in the *hopper style*.

According to Robinson, the hopper style principal uses time to address the most pressing crisis of the moment. The fact that principals spent twice as much time on distractions as on instructional leadership suggested that perhaps principals saw instructional leadership as something to do after everything else was done. Instructional practices were seldom a crisis until low test scores at the end of the year appeared on the AYP report. Even then, over the summer, the crisis fades as the school begins a new year.

Recommendations for Future Practice

This study suggested that the conceptualizations of instructional leadership articulated by practicing principals as they self-constructed their responses might not be the same as the researched definitions of instructional leadership. Even when a principal recognized and agreed with sub-concepts when prompted as these principals did, they did not include these sub-

concepts when they were asked to self-construct their responses without prompting. The following suggestions for educators might be considered as a result of this study in the opinion of this researcher.

First, experts on instructional leadership could try to come to a common conceptualization of instructional leadership by limiting the number of sub-concepts included to six or seven principal activities that promote growth in student test score achievement. One way to achieve this consensus would be to limit instructional leadership to the narrow definition. Second, trainers of existing and aspiring principals should consider explicitly stating the activities and behaviors of instructional leadership they are talking about when giving training about instructional leadership. Third, principals might need to be trained to perform more purposeful observations of teachers that focus on the delivery and results of instruction. Being in classrooms is the instructional leadership activity that principals perform the most, therefore, they need to do this well. Fourth, researchers who publish about instructional leadership should consider explicitly stating their direct-indirect and broad-narrow assumptions. Readers can then differentiate the results of research. Fifth, reflective principals could examine their own conceptualization of instructional leadership and learn to articulate it more clearly. Principals could also work on aligning their practice with their conceptualization. Sixth, inservice training for principals could include not only off-site, large-group training, but also on-site coaching to help bridge any gaps between what principals know in theory and what they practice.

The results of this study could be useful to people who have an interest in instructional leadership including trainers of prospective, new, and existing principals. Also evaluators of principals might be interested to find that these principals articulated various conceptualizations of instructional leadership and might be intentionally practicing instructional leadership in

different ways because of the way they constructed the concept. Principals who are willing to examine their own practice might find value in comparing their conceptualization of instructional leadership with other principals. This study answered many questions about how principals actually practice instructional leadership, and opened opportunities for further research.

Recommendations for Future Study

This study answered some questions, but also brought to the surface questions about instructional leadership that might be studied in the future. This study only addressed the effect of the principals' conceptualizations on their use of time; it did not address the effect of time spent on instructional leadership on student test scores as Gaziel's (1995) Israeli study began to address. A study done in the United States would be needed to validate the Gaziel finding. The requirement in Israel for principals to spend the extra six hours in classrooms would influence the study results.

This study began to examine the instructional leadership practices of U.S. elementary principals and is the only study of elementary principals of its kind. More research is needed to expand our knowledge of how U.S elementary principals conceptualize instructional leadership and use their time to support that conceptualization. This study was limited to one district and one geographic location. Future studies might be done like this one, but in another geographic location.

Further studies that explore what principals meant by each sub-concept that they self-constructed in the open-ended questions could be conducted. The principal articulated many of the same phrases as sub-concepts in what they thought instructional leadership meant. They did not elaborate about how those sub-concepts entered into their practice. A future study might take

each of those common sub-concepts and ask principals to elaborate what the principals meant, how they practiced it, and why they included that sub-concept.

This study looked at the elementary principal's time from the principal's own perception. In other words, the principal remembered a typical week and constructed how he or she thought time was spent. More accurate data could be obtained from an observational study of this type, especially because most of the other observational studies were very limited and of high school principals.

Other ideas could be explored through further research. For example, experimentation could be done on limiting the definition of instructional leadership to the narrow definition to see if that would help principals practice a more consistent form of instructional leadership. Another study might endeavor to discover other factors about the principal's instructional leadership practices in addition to time that might influence achievement levels in schools. An additional study might use these data and examine the relationship between male and female conceptualizations of instructional leadership. The lag time for the implementation of the newer sub-concepts of instructional leadership brings to mind the Hall and Hord (1987) research on "levels of use". Hall and Hord delineated eight levels of use from nonuse to intregration and renewal. Perhaps some of this lag time could be explained by a study of knowledge transfer.

Conclusion of the Study

This study proposed to find out how principals conceptualized instructional leadership and determine if those conceptualizations were related to how the principals spent their time. The Gaziel (1995) and the Wallace Foundation (2005) studies suggested that school performance was related to the amount of time the principal spent on instructional leadership. However, the Sheppard (1996) study suggested that the principals' conceptualizations of instructional

leadership might not be the same and the Ruff & Shoho (2005) study suggested that the values of the principal affected the way they spent their time.   This study looked carefully at what principals believed was the meaning of instructional leadership and if they were carrying out that meaning by the use of their time. This study came to the conclusion that principals did not conceptualize instructional leadership in the same way and that they valued different things about instructional leadership.

This study suggested that principals articulated different conceptualizations of instructional leadership mirroring the confusion in the literature about instructional leadership. The study showed that principals committed a wide range of their total time to instructional leadership, but the time commitment of principals was not connected with the "most important" thematic groups, except that Group 4 spent less time. Although all principals knew instructional leadership was part of their job, they did not agree on the amount of time to commit to the activities that make up instructional leadership.   The group that identified coaching, mentoring, and collaborating as the most important activity of instructional leadership had the highest conformity to what they thought was "most important." Most of the principals were in agreement that being in classrooms was an important part of instructional leadership.   They also spent double the amount of time on being in classrooms and evaluating teachers than on any other instructional leadership task, narrow or broad.

This study suggested that principals in this district were having trouble incorporating the newer aspects of instructional leadership into their practice and may need a different kind of professional development to master those skills. The study also proposed a new way of evaluating the instructional leaders by looking at commitment, conformity, and focus of the principal's practice.

The amount of time spent on instructional leadership could not be the defining measurement of instructional leadership that might affect test scores, as the Gaziel (1996) and Wallace Foundation (2005) studies suggested, if the principals were not doing the same things. This study found that principals who chose more time activities in the narrow definition spent more time at instructional leadership. Therefore, it would make sense to limit the definition of instructional leadership to the narrow time tasks. Even if principals were spending the same amount of time at instructional leadership, they were valuing and doing different things in the name of instructional leadership. The time they spent on what they thought was most important about instructional leadership turned out to be only important among the principals who chose mentoring, coaching, and collaborating as their most important thematic focus.

The newer roles and activities of instructional leadership that a principal could incorporate into his or her conceptualization of instructional leadership were limited or missing in many principals' self-constructed conceptualizations of instructional leadership, such as the ability to build and communicate a compelling vision, the ability to be the change leader in an organization, and the ability to build an organization that learns and grows. The findings of this study also suggest that principals need further professional development on instructional leadership that might include the newer activities and roles that have become part of the instructional leader's job in the accountability reform. Also, some tightening in the articulated definition of instructional leadership to link to the activities associated with the narrow definition might help principals practice instructional leadership more consistently.

At the beginning of this study, it was suggested that if principals operated on the same conceptualization of instructional leadership but used their time differently, then training on time management would be appropriate. However, if the principals operated on different

conceptualizations of instructional leadership, then perhaps training on the meaning of instructional leadership would improve instructional leadership practices. The results of this study pointed towards the conclusion that principals in this study needed both types of training. The principals were not operating on the same conceptualization of instructional leadership and needed explicit professional development on the current meanings of instructional leadership. However, because many principals had trouble increasing the time they spent performing the instructional leadership tasks that they thought were "most important," the study showed that time management might be problematic for principals also. This study found principals who said they valued being in classrooms who were not in classrooms. The study found principals who said they valued being current on research but were not spending time on collaboration and PLCs, the current idea of this district. Principals also said they valued collaboration but did not spend time on building relationships of trust with teachers. The principals must find ways to make their practice more deliberate and match their intentions and reflect their values. Only a few of the principals had both high commitment to instructional leadership and high conformity to the activities they thought were most important.

This research did not find robust conceptualizations of instructional leadership in the self-constructed conceptual models of principals. Instead, there were very limited and dated conceptualizations of instructional leadership when principals self-constructed their responses, which fell mostly in the effective school reform ideas. This suggested that principals might need a different kind of training or ongoing coaching about the meaning of instructional leadership, particularly as it relates to the leadership practices associated with the current school reform movement. After participating in group learning, principals may need coaching support through the integration period to assure accountability. The newer (and more complicated) sub-concepts,

such as developing and selling a vision, understanding the change process, and creating an

organization that learns and improves, seemed particularly unclear to principals. Professional

development for both new and practicing principals needs to address both areas: time

management and the meaning of instructional leadership.

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Appendix A

Survey Instrument

Section A:

(1) How many years were you a teacher before becoming an administrator? _____

(2) At what level did you teach?

    a.   Elementary only _____

    b.   Secondary only _____

    c.   Mixture of elementary and secondary _____

    d.   Other _____

(3) How many years have you been a principal? _____

(4) Have you been at a school that failed AYP in the last three years?

Section B:

(5) How would you define the term *instructional leadership*?

(6) When you visualize a principal acting as an instructional leader, what do you see that principal doing?

(7) When a principal is providing instructional leadership, what is the most important thing a principal should spend time on or do?

(8) What are three other things the principal should spend time on or do to be an instructional leader?

(9) What traits and qualities do you think an effective instructional leader should have?

(10) What expectations and roles prevent a principal from acting as an instructional leader?

(11) In what ways do you think instructional leadership influences student test scores?

(12) How many hours do your work in a typical week? _____

Section C: Directions: On the following questions #12-38, mark an X on the circle that tells

how much you agree with each statement about instructional leadership.

Your conceptualization of an instructional

leader includes . . .	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
13. Building relationships with teachers	O	O	O	O	O
14. Minimizing interruptions in the classrooms.	O	O	O	O	O
15. Interacting with the community.	O	O	O	O	O
16. Respecting others.	O	O	O	O	O
17. Sharing with teachers knowledge about teaching and learning.	O	O	O	O	O
18. Helping teachers plan specific improvements for teaching.	O	O	O	O	O
19. Accepting that change doesn't happen at an even pace.	O	O	O	O	O
20. Managing and directing the pace of change.	O	O	O	O	O
21. Being visible in the school.	O	O	O	O	O
22. Being decisive.	O	O	O	O	O
23. Engaging teachers in establishing goals for the school.	O	O	O	O	O

Your conceptualization of an instructional

leader includes . . .	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
24. Anticipating problems that might occur in the school and seeking to solve them.	O	O	O	O	O
26. Collaborating with teachers about teaching and learning.	O	O	O	O	O
27. Being emotionally stable.	O	O	O	O	O
28. Being able to communicate.	O	O	O	O	O
29. Helping teachers examine and interpret assessment data.	O	O	O	O	O
30. Promoting order and discipline.	O	O	O	O	O
31. Encouraging teachers to learn new practices.	O	O	O	O	O
32. Having a vision for the future of the school.	O	O	O	O	O
33. Managing budgets and supplies.	O	O	O	O	O
34. Keeping current on educational research.	O	O	O	O	O
35. Being committed to the best education for children.	O	O	O	O	O

Your conceptualization of an instructional leader includes . . .	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
36. Being the head of the school.	O	O	O	O	O
37. Helping teachers provide for the needs of different types of students.	O	O	O	O	O
38. Having energy and enthusiasm.	O	O	O	O	O
39. Turning conflict about change into cooperation.	O	O	O	O	O
40. Helping teachers plan interventions for struggling students.	O	O	O	O	O

Section D   Time Usage

Directions: For each question under each category of time usage, choose the response that fits your practice during a **typical** week. You may use your day planner for the last few weeks if that helps you determine what a typical week looks like.

STUDENTS:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
41. Greeting and talking to students and parents.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
42. Talking to students about learning and recognizing students for their learning.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
43. Taking care of student discipline and counseling students about personal issues.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
44. Working on issues about ELL students, special education students including IEP's.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
45. Supervising students in building and outside.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours
46. Home visits.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
47. Illnesses and health/Medical issues and being a first responder.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
48. After school activities.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
49. Other student activities, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours

PARENTS:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
50. Solving problems and complaints of parents.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
51. Writing calendars, notices, or newsletters.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
52. Attending and planning for PTA and Community Council.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
53. Counseling parents and discussing parenting issues.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
54. Other parent time, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours

OFFICE:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
55. Working on E-mail, district, and regular mail.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
56. Working on budget, ordering supplies, and depositing money at the bank.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
57. Dealing with salespeople, promoters, and keeping interruptions from classroom.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
58. Helping out at the front desk, on check-outs, on the phone, attendance, on computers, and on registrations.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
59. Doing payroll, hiring, providing substitutes, discussing benefits, and other human resource activities.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
60. Other office issues, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours

DISTRICT:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
61. Writing district reports and providing information at district requests.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
62. Attending district meetings, committees, and professional development for principals.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
63.Carrying out assigned tasks, such as fire drills, inspections, etc.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours
64. Other district issues, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours

TEACHERS:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
65. Talking to teachers about personal and school issues.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
66. Talking to teachers about the goals of the school.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
67. Observing in classrooms and giving feedback.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
68. Collaborating with teachers about instructional strategies, learning, and curriculum.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
69. Helping teachers become leaders.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
70. Helping teachers examine, understand, and use data.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
71. Planning and attending professional development for teachers.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours
72. Helping teachers design specific interventions for struggling students.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
73. Expressing gratitude for efforts and recognizing achievements of teachers.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
74. Negotiating differences with teachers and making sure all teachers are treated fairly.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
75. Covering classrooms and other positions when needed.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours
76. Other teacher issues, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 Hours

SCHOOL:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
77. Thinking about and making decisions for the school where no clear right answer is evident.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
78. Communicating with teachers procedures, rules, and calendars.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
79. Working on the QTSA and Trustlands report.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
80. Working with business partnerships and representing school in community.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
81. Putting on assemblies.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
82. Doing building maintenance.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
83. Establishing a culture at the school.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
84. Other school time, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours

PERSONAL:

Activity	Put an "X" in the box that tells how much time do you typically spend on this activity per week?					
85. Taking care of personal issues.	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours
86. Other personal time, please specify:	No Time	0-1 hours	1-2 hours	2-3 hours	3-4 hours	4-5 hours

Appendix B

Assignment of Time Questions to Concepts of Instructional Leadership

Being in classroom	67	Observing in classrooms and giving feedback
Vision for the school	66	Talking to teachers about goals of school
	79	Working on strategic plans for school
Mentoring/coaching	67	Observing in classrooms and giving feedback
	68	Collaborating with teachers about instruction
	69	Helping teachers become leaders
	70	Helping teachers examine and use data
	71	Planning professional development for teachers
	72	Helping teachers design interventions
Evaluating teachers	67	Observing in classrooms and giving feedback
Providing resources	56	Working on budget and ordering supplies
	71	Planning professional development for teachers
Hiring for excellence	59	Doing human resource activities
Being visible	41	Greeting and talking to students and parents
	45	Supervising students in building and outside
	52	Working with PTA and Community Council
	58	Helping out in office
Establishing culture	83	Establishing a culture at the school
Providing professional development	71	Planning professional development for teachers

Helping teachers	69	Helping teachers become leaders
	72	Helping teachers design interventions
	75	Covering classrooms when needed

Improving instruction	67	Observing in classrooms and giving feedback
	68	Collaborating with teachers about instruction
	70	Helping teachers examine and use data
	71	Planning professional development for teachers
	72	Helping teachers design interventions

| I don't know | NA | |

| Looking at data | 70 | Helping teachers examine and use data |

| Talking to teachers, building relationships | 65 | Talking to teachers about personal issues |
| | 73 | Expressing gratitude for teacher efforts |

| Ensuring curriculum | 67 | Observing in classrooms and giving feedback |
| | 71 | Planning professional development for teachers |

Working on student achievement	42	Talking to students about learning
	44	Working on ELL and Special Ed. Issues
	72	Helping teachers design interventions

| Staying current on research | 62 | Attending district professional development |

| Building teams | 66 | Talking to teachers about goals of school |

| Do what is best for children | NA | |

Collaborate or PLC's	68	Collaborating with teachers about instruction
	70	Helping teachers examine and use data
	72	Helping teachers design interventions
Modeling practice	75	Covering classrooms when needed
Developing teacher leadership	69	Helping teachers become leaders
Safety of school	43	Taking care of student discipline
	63	Carrying out fire drills and inspections

Appendix C

Details on the Sample Selection

The sample was obtained in mid-April, 2010 by dividing the principals into the six stratification groups, writing their names on papers, and randomly picking five principals in each stratification group. The interviews took place between the last week in April, 2010 and the end of May, 2010. All principals in the initial sample participated in the study. Also, all items on the survey had a 100% item response rate because the interviews were done in person and any deficiencies were corrected on site. The principals were all very willing and helpful about completing the interviews. When the 30 participating principals were identified, an individual appointment was scheduled by the researcher.

Each principal was assigned a coded number to keep the data confidential. The principals were given a three symbol code name with the first numeral (1, 2, or 3) representing the economic group of the school (high, medium, or low). The second letter (A or B) represented the achievement level of the school (pass or fail). The third numeral represented the number of the school in that stratification group (1-5). For example, the label 2B4 meant that the principal led a school in the medium socio-economic range, the school did not pass AYP, and it was the fourth school in that group. The statistical work was done with the coded identifier without disclosing the identity of the principal. Also the school was not identified by name, but by a coded number, further protecting the participants. The key and the data from the survey were destroyed after one year. Each principal in the sample signed consent form to participate in the study.

The first two questions of the interview asked about the previous teaching experience of the participants. Among the 30 principals in the sample, all had taught in elementary school at

some point, although seven of the principals had some experience teaching in either preschool or secondary schools. Nine principals taught four to nine years before becoming a principal, 12 principals taught 10 to 14 years, and eight principals taught for more than 14 years. The longest a principal had taught was 36 years and the shortest was four years before becoming a principal. The mean was 12.2 years of teaching experience.

The third question asked about the length of time the participants had been assigned to the job of principal. Fifteen principals in the sample had one to six years of principal experience, six had 10-15 years of experience, and nine principals had 16 or more years of experience. The mean was 10 years of experience. Principals were not placed in higher economic school as they gained tenure, as evidenced by four principals with over 15 years of experience being assigned to high economic schools, three to medium economic schools, and four to lower economic schools. Principals with the most years of experience in administration seemed more likely to lead schools that failed AYP. Eight of 11 principals with over 15 years of experience worked at schools that had previously failed AYP. Only half the schools passed AYP in 2009-10. The gender of the principal was noted in the personal interview. Of the 30 principals in the sample, nine were male and 21 principals were female. This study's proportion of males to females (42%) was higher than the ratio of men to women in the population of elementary principals in the district (22%). No difference was noted between male and female responses.