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Instructional Leadership in Guam's Public Elementary Schools

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INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

IN GUAM'S PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the current instructional leadership behaviors of elementary principals in Guam as perceived by the principals and teachers, and examined their perceptions on which instructional leadership functions should be shared or delegated in schools. The Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale, developed by Dr. Phillip Hallinger and modified by the researcher, was used to gather data for this study. Four hundred eighty teachers (53%) and eighteen principals (81%) in Guam's public elementary schools participated, and there was no evidence of non-response bias.

From this study, findings revealed that both principals and teachers shared the same perceptions regarding their principals' current instructional leadership performance. Both agreed that the three job functions principals performed most frequently were: supervising and evaluating instruction, protecting instructional time, and promoting professional development. Teachers and principals also agreed that the three job functions principals performed least often were: providing incentives for teachers, monitoring student progress, and maintaining high visibility. Furthermore, two variables -- principals' years of experience, and teachers' participation in Effective School programs-- affected principals' and teachers' perceptions on all ten job functions measured. Finally, the researcher found that although principals and teachers agreed on which of the ten instructional leadership functions should be "shared" or "assumed" by the school principal, they need to collaborate on how the "shared" job functions should be performed effectively.

DEDICATION

To my husband, Mike,

and 3 children, Michael, Ricky and Faith---

I love you!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When I was twelve years old, my father uprooted his family of seven to pursue his Ph.D at the University of Oregon. Dad was a full-time student, and mom stayed home to raise us-- five energetic children, who were between the ages of nine to fifteen years old. Dad's goal was to complete his Ph.D program within a two-year period, (which he amazingly did!)

During our stay in Oregon, I recall how Dad devoted all his waking hours working on his dissertation. I didn't fully understand what a dissertation was back then, except that it was "a very important book" and it would determine his failure or success in the program. So all of us knew the rule: "Don't bother Dad once he went into his room to work on his dissertation!"

In our first winter in Oregon, it snowed. Yes! Snow! Being an island girl from Guam, my first experience with snow was quite amazing. Thus, that Christmas, my gift to Dad was a homemade book with snapshots of our entire family enjoying the snow in our front yard. It was entitled, " My First Book on Snow." I told my dad that I beat him at writing an important book. Since then, year after year, Dad always teased me about when my second book on snow was going to be completed. Of course, I couldn't disappoint him.

As an adult, one of my main goals in life was to be a good mom. This involved instilling in my children the value of a good education--- the same value my parents instilled in me. Thus, when the opportunity to pursue a doctoral degree from the University of San Diego came up, I jumped at the chance. Little did I know, -- this would be a life changing experience!

The completion of this degree from the University of San Diego not only tested my mental stamina--this experience tested my whole being! I underwent a complete transformation that improved my understanding of self, improved my family relationships, and most importantly, it improved my relationship with God. I am humbled by this experience.

This five-year "educational journey" with the University of San Diego also benefited my entire family. My children were exposed to many new opportunities during our summer stays in San Diego; opportunities they would not have experienced otherwise.

I would like to thank the University of San Diego, College of Education, for allowing the International Leadership Studies program to expand to the Pacific Islands. As a global community, this opportunity not only allowed students from the Pacific Island Cohort to improve their academic abilities, but equipped us with the "tools" needed to improve the quality of life for others living on the islands. In essence, by allowing this program to extend to the Pacific Islands, USD was helping to "make the world a better place." Thank you USD!

I am also very grateful to my committee members. They are among the "Top Ten Smartest People" I have known in my lifetime. Dr. Fred Galloway, my Committee Chairperson, had such high standards and expectations. His expertise in statistics and his ability to describe "mind boggling" concepts in simple terms were qualities that I respected most. His skill in guiding me through this dissertation, using the inductive process, challenged me immensely. I am forever grateful that he was my dissertation chairperson.

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Dr. Ron Girvin was the third member of my committee. With his experience as a school principal, Dr. Girvin knew my topic well and was quick to raise questions that were not originally addressed in this study. By having Dr. Galloway, Dr. Donmoyer, and Dr. Girvin in my committee, I knew I had the best team to guide me through this endeavor.

I'd like to thank the Guam Department of Education, and all elementary school principals and teachers who participated in this study. The high response rate and personal encouragement from many friends allowed me to "finally" complete this study.

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Most of all, I want to thank my husband Mike, who deserves the credit for my completing this degree. He was there to assist with the kids, there to provide financial

and emotional support, there to pray with me when the going got tough, and there to drive me around San Diego to complete all my doctoral course requirements. Words cannot describe my love and gratitude for this wonderful man. My children, Michael, Ricky, and Faith were patient and supportive! I knew they believed in my abilities to complete this dissertation since they began to address me as "Dr. Eve" at home, even when I was at the proposal stage of this study. My mom, Julia Quitugua and mother-in-law, Francesca San Nicolas were always there, lending an ear and cheering me along the way as well. My dad, Dr. Franklin Quitugua, thank you for being my role model, and for your moral support. Although this is not my "Second Book on Snow," I know you will enjoy reading this book as well!

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CHAPTER I: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Introduction

In the early 1970's, studies of schools painted a pessimistic picture of our nation's schools. The 1976 Coleman Report on "Equality of Educational Opportunity" found that the strongest variable accounting for a student's level of achievement was the socioeconomic status of the student's parents. In other words, the higher the socioeconomic status of the parents, the higher the educational achievement of the offspring. In effect, this study concluded, "schools didn't make a difference" in student achievement (Rossow, 1990, p.2). No matter what the school does, the Coleman Report seemed to suggest, family backgrounds would determine student success.

This report prompted many researchers to identify schools that did make a difference in student achievement, thus laying the base for the Effective School Movement during the mid 1970's and 80's. The Nation at Risk Report in 1983 also set the stage for Effective Schools principles to be placed on the national agenda: All children can learn; all schools must achieve high academic standards; texts, tests and curriculum must be tightly coupled; and test scores will prove to a skeptical public that schools are accountable (Cuban, 1984).

Thirty years later, the public is still demanding better schools, better curriculum and better instruction. U.S. schools today are still struggling to meet high academic standards, align curriculum, and raise test scores. Instructional leadership remains as one of the more controversial variables identified by Effective Schools research. According to researcher Larry Lezotte (1992), "Some hypotheses on this are grounded in honest disagreement about 'how things should be,' others in misunderstanding of what leadership is and how it works" (p.2).

In their research on Effective Schools, Doss and MacDonald (1983) emphasized that certain characteristics must exist in a school in order for it to be successful. These characteristics include: the principal being a strong instructional leader, an emphasis being placed on basic skills instruction, pupil progress being monitored frequently, school personnel having positive expectations for all students, and the school's climate being safe, orderly, and business-like. However, Doss and MacDonald (1983) noted that, although these characteristics are found in effective schools, more research is needed to determine if these characteristics cause schools to be effective. Thus, the need to examine the principal's role as an instructional leader in schools still exists.

In the last decade there have been many studies done on the principals' role as instructional leaders. However, in this study the researcher not only examined teachers' perceptions of existing instructional leadership behaviors of principals, but examined perceptions on which instructional leadership behaviors should be shared or delegated. The findings of this study may be helpful to teachers and principals as they re-examine their roles as instructional leaders in Guam's "struggling" public elementary schools.

Background of the Problem

Educators throughout Guam's Department of Education (GDoE) also disagree on "how things should be," what leadership is, and how things should work. The Guam Department of Education has taken a beating about consistently low standardized test scores and the lack of accountability in the island's schools. Below is a snapshot of some of the criticism that has plagued the GDoE in recent years.

In the past decade, leadership at the highest level within the Guam Department of Education has changed hands six times. In 1997, the United States Department of Defense (DoD) removed more than 2,800 students from the island's public schools and established it's own DoD schools. The DoD claimed that "the tug-of-war between the military and the Guam Department of Education was not the reason for the military's decision. Instead, the declining quality of education in Guam's public schools was the reason students were moved" (Bush, Jan.1, 1998, p.4).

In early 1998, the Guam Department of Education was midstream in implementing its own internal reorganization plan to downsize personnel and improve the quality of services being provided to students, teachers, and the community. Later the same year, the Guam Legislature passed a new law requiring the GDoE to implement yet another reorganization plan. This new law also attempted to restructure the education system, but in a different manner from the departments' plan (Malay, Feb.27, 1998). These conflicting reform efforts were the result of a continuing political power struggle between the local Department of Education and the Guam Legislature. "This affects us in a very big way---it affects the leadership of the Department of Education," education

spokesman Tony Diaz said after the law was passed. "We have taken two steps forward and five steps backward" (Babauta, Feb. 28, 1998, p.5).

In 1999, the governing Board of Education changed from being an elected school board to having the Governor of Guam assume the role of a one-person Board of Education. In an effort to respond to public criticism on the state of Guam's Department of Education, the Governor of Guam appointed a Community Task Force on Education to examine the problems within the public school system and propose recommendations to improve it. The task force was comprised of business representatives, parents, educators, and other community leaders.

In their final report to the Governor, the Task Force speculated that "fundamental to educational reform is that student results be connected to the incentives that motivate the individuals responsible for the students' performance. There must be tangible consequences for student success and tangible consequences for student failure. Until there are consequences, there will be no necessity or incentive for an institution to change" (LaCroix, 1999, p.8). The Task Force emphasized that instructional leadership at the school site needed improvement.[1]

Although Guam's Department of Education's mission is to "prepare our students for life, to provide support, and to promote excellence," the past five years have shown our islandwide standardized test scores for the elementary school children falling

[1] For this study, instructional leadership is defined as "the ability of the school principal to coordinate and improve the quality of the instructional program in the school" (Hallinger, 1987).

between the 20th and 30th percentile (Tatko, 1998, p. 1). Falling below the national norm is unsatisfactory and a clear testament that the schools are not delivering the desired results. Guam educators must take a closer look at what is happening with instructional leadership in the island's schools. Lezotte (1992) concurs with the general idea about the importance of instructional leadership. He states that, "Just as a world-class orchestra of virtuoso musicians require world-class conductors, schools with fine teachers require the principals' instructional leadership. Schools need individual leaders and a process for the leader's vision to become quickly shared" (Lezotte, 1992, p.3).

Statement of the Problem

Researchers have found that many variables cause schools to be effective. One of these variables is the leadership in schools. Early studies did emphasize that principal leadership can make a difference in school effectiveness.

In this study, the researcher examined the instructional leadership role of principals since they influence the learning processes and their actions set the tone on the standards and attitudes others exhibit in the workplace.

In Guam's Department of Education (GDoE), the principals' role as instructional leader is critical since they must respond to the public's outcry to improve the quality of education. As Guam strives to improve its public schools, the existing instructional leadership practices of principals need to be examined; including the instructional leadership tasks that should be shared or delegated in schools. Although instructional leadership needs to be examined at all levels within the GDoE, this study focused on the public elementary schools in Guam.

Purpose of This Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the current instructional leadership behaviors of elementary school principals in Guam as perceived by the principals themselves, as well as the teachers in their schools. The researcher then examined the extent to which these perceptions are congruent. The researcher also used multiple regression analysis to explain differences in teacher perceptions. Finally, the researcher examined teachers' and principals' perceptions on which instructional leadership functions should be shared or delegated in schools.

Research Questions

1) How do teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differ from what the principals think of themselves?
2) To what extent do the teachers' years of experience, teachers' level of education, school population, principals' years of experience and teachers' participation in school level improvement programs influence their perceptions of the principal as instructional leaders?
3) What are teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions and how do these perceptions differ?
4) What factors contribute to the teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions?

Instrumentation and Treatment of Data

The survey instrument used in this study has two parts. Part I was developed by the researcher to collect demographic information (Appendix A). The data from this section was used to address the second research question which examined the effects of

the following variables--- teachers' years of experience, teachers' highest level of education, teachers' participation in school level improvement programs, school population, and principals' years of experience--- on their perceptions of their principal's instructional leadership.

The second part of the survey instrument was divided into two columns (Appendix B). The questions in Column I are from the Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale, developed by Dr. Philip Hallinger (1987). This 50-item survey was designed to assess the degree to which a principal is engaged in specific instructional leadership behaviors in the school, thereby providing a profile of that principal's instructional leadership. Column II in this survey instrument was designed by the researcher to assess perceptions on which instructional leadership behaviors should be shared, delegated, or assumed by the school principal. Both columns I and II examined ten instructional leadership functions found in effective schools. These functions were: (a) framing the school goals; (b) communicating the school goals; (c) supervising and evaluating instruction; (d) coordinating the curriculum; (e) monitoring student progress; (f) protecting instructional time; (g) maintaining high visibility; (h) providing incentives for teachers; (i) promoting professional development; and (j) providing incentives for learners. Each stage of data collection and analysis is explained further in Chapter III.

Significance of the Study

Nationwide, principals still experience role confusion at the worksite. They oftentimes are unsure when it is appropriate to exhibit top-down management behaviors and when they should work collaboratively with teachers. In order to become effective instructional leaders, principals must have a clear understanding of what their job

functions are so they can prioritize how they use their time. They must implement the most effective instructional leadership strategies in order to improve student outcomes in their school environment.

There have been no prior studies on Guam that examine the role of principals as instructional leaders. This study examined how teachers perceive their principals as instructional leaders, how principals perceive themselves as instructional leaders, and whether teachers' perceptions on this issue differ from principals' perceptions.

Current research supports collaboration between teachers and school principals. However, thus far, no studies have been prepared on Guam that examines the roles of teachers as instructional leaders. This study does examine which instructional leadership functions should be delegated, or shared, and whether teachers' perceptions on this issue differ from principals' perceptions. The findings of this study may be useful to teachers as they re-examine what their roles are as instructional leaders in the school in addition to their roles as instructional leaders in the classrooms. Principals may also use these findings to reflect on their roles as instructional leaders and gain a better understanding of what teachers expect of them.

As the researcher examines the responses made by teachers, she can identify the instructional leadership behaviors of principals that teachers perceive as occurring less/most frequently. She can also identify which tasks should be delegated or shared. With this information, both principals and teachers can begin to strategize on how to promote and support improved teacher performance which impact on student outcomes.

The findings of this study may also provide useful information on the type of in-service training that is needed for school principals and teachers. In addition, the

Education Administration graduate program at the University of Guam and teacher undergraduate programs may use the findings of this study as they work towards aligning instructional leadership theory with practice. Finally, this study enables the researcher to gain insight into the effects that certain variables have on teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders.

As Malone & Caddell (2000) stated, "The principal of a school has the opportunity to affect the lives of thousands of students through the teachers he or she leads. The person who leads in these challenging contexts must have a compelling passion for education and the school-- to effect change where change is needed" (Malone & Caddell, 2000, p.163).

Summary

This chapter gave an overview of the study. The introduction presented a brief history of the state of public education in the nation and on Guam. Reform efforts were also discussed, followed by a statement of the problem and a discussion of the purpose of this study. This study employs a quantitative methodology designed to measure perceptions of principals and teachers in all public elementary schools. A discussion of research questions, instrumentation/treatment of data, and significance of the study concluded this chapter.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Instructional leadership in Guam's Public Elementary Schools was the focus of this study. This chapter first examined what the Effective Schools movement said about the principals' role in school effectiveness. This chapter then reviewed the complex roles of a school principal in a changing school culture. The researcher also examined a leadership framework that described the job functions principals perform as instructional leaders. Education reform efforts that pertain to instructional leadership in the nation and Guam were discussed to gain a clear understanding of the efforts made to improve schools. Finally, the findings of previous studies that used the PIMRS instructional leadership framework were examined to gain insight on perceptions of the principals' role as instructional leaders.

The Principals' Role in Effective Schools

A number of research studies suggest that principals in early effective schools behave differently from principals who preside over schools in which student achievement, as measured by standardized test scores, are low. There are dissenting views on this point, however. To frame this debate, this section first reviewed the literature that suggests that differences exist in principal behaviors in " high achieving" versus " low achieving" schools, and then reviewed the literature that challenges this assumption.

In the early 1970's, the Coleman Report revealed a pessimistic picture of our nation's schools. The report concluded that the strongest variable accounting for student achievement was the socioeconomic background of the students' parents. This report was interpreted by many to mean that "schools did not make a difference" (Rossow, 1990, Solorzano, 1995, Jansen, 1995). It prompted the Effective Schools movement in the mid 70's and early 80's.

In 1979, J. Edmonds conducted a study entitled "Search for Effective Schools". He identified urban schools that were instructionally effective as measured by achievement test data. His study involved 20 elementary schools in Detroit's Model Cities Neighborhood. In his findings, Edmonds concluded "schools and school leadership do make a difference---there are tangible and indispensable characteristics of effective schools attributable to leadership" (Sweeney, 1982, p.121, Goddard, 2000). Edmonds' findings thus contradicted the earlier conclusions drawn in the Coleman Report released in the early 1970's.

Furthermore, Edmonds' findings concurred with Woods (1994), Rossow (1990), Keller (1998), Malone & Caddell (2000), and Cunningham & Cordeiro (2000). Their work collectively suggests that leaders who exhibit the following behaviors mark effective schools:

1. The leader has a clear understanding of the school's mission and is able to state it in direct, concrete terms. Instructional focus is established that unifies staff.
2. The leader seeks out innovative curricular programs, observes these, acquaints staff with them, and participates with staff in discussions about adopting or adapting them.
3. Leaders set expectations for curriculum quality through the use of standards and guidelines. Alignment is checked and improved; priorities are established within the curriculum; curriculum implementation is monitored.
4. A safe, orderly school environment is established and maintained.

5. Instructional leaders check student progress frequently, relying on explicit performance data. Results are made visible; progress standards are set and used as points of comparison; discrepancies are used to stimulate action.
6. Leaders set up systems of incentives and rewards to encourage excellence in student and teacher performance; they act as figureheads in delivering awards and highlighting the importance of excellence.
7. Leaders involve staff and others in planning implementation strategies. They set and enforce expectations for participation; commitments are made and followed through with determination and consistency; leaders rally support from the different constituencies in the school community.
8. The principal and staff hold high expectations of themselves. Assuming responsibility for student outcomes and being visible and accessible to staff, students, parents, and community members.
9. Administrators provide ongoing support to parent involvement efforts.
10. Leaders participate in ongoing programs of staff development focused on strengthening instructional leadership skills (p.2-3).

These effective school leadership characteristics are also found within the six standards formulated by the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Council of Chief State School Officers in 1996. An additional characteristic that the ISLLC added was that effective principals should understand, respond to, and influence the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context (Malone & Caddell, 2000, Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2000).

Blasé (1987) and Keller (1998) both examined behaviors of ineffective principals and effective principals. They found that effective principals were instructional leaders. They demanded high quality teaching, they tracked student achievement and they recruited good teachers. The principals' leadership affected teacher motivation, involvement, morale, and, in general, enhanced the possibility of productive interactions between teachers and others. Effective leadership was linked to the development of productive social and cultural structures in schools.

In contrast, ineffective school principals tended to create cultures viewed as fragmented. Interactions between principals and teachers and others were described as

distant, uncaring, non-supportive, conflictive, inequitable, and, in many ways, nonproductive (Blasé, 1987). Principals from less successful schools had low instructional expectations for teachers (Keller, 1998).

Heck & Marcoulides (1993) as well as Heck, Larsen & Marcoulides (1990) found that the principals' role in establishing a strong school climate and instructional organization was precisely the area that strongly predicted student achievement; "Principals can directly influence their school's student achievement through their leadership practices" (p.121). Policymakers can therefore decide what are the training needs for principals to be effective instructional leaders. Additionally, models to evaluate the effectiveness of principals should now be developed after recognizing that, as instructional leaders, principals can directly improve the school's student outcomes.

Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991) and Sweeney (1982) advised educators to consider the positive achievement gains reported from studies on effective principals. The authors argue that administrators must move beyond the simplified notion of supervision as the formal pre-conference, observation, and post-conference process. Instead, educators must think of the act of supervision as the sum of the personal interactions between and among teachers and the principal that lead to the improvement of instruction (Andrews, et. al., 1991).

Contrary to the findings above, Hunter (1995) questioned whether principals and teachers believe that principals at high-achieving schools demonstrate instructional leadership to a greater extent than do principals at low-achieving schools. She found that there were no significant differences between self-perceived scores of principals at high- and low-achieving middle schools. When teachers' perceptions of principals were

measured, she found differences in only two categories; communicating school goals and providing incentives for teachers. There were no differences in teachers' perceptions of their principals at high- and low-achieving schools in framing the school goals; supervising and evaluating instruction; coordinating the curriculum; monitoring student progress; protecting instructional time; maintaining high visibility; and promoting professional development. Hunter (1995) concluded that there are many other variables that may have a direct impact on student academic achievement.

Rossow (1990) cautioned that effective schools' factors have been found to be "associated" with successful schools. This is not the same as causation. It cannot be assumed that an attempt to duplicate the characteristics of successful schools will guarantee the same results. It can only be said that improvements will likely result. While it does not provide a guaranteed recipe, effective schools research can successfully be used as a broad framework for school improvement planning.

In his study, Zigarelli (1996) used the 1988 National Educational Longitudinal database to assess the effects of six effective school variables on student achievement. He found that there was no evidence that principal involvement in school policy or the improvement of teaching contributed to student achievement. In other words, active principals did not necessarily lead to better schools.

Zigarelli (1996) also found that teachers' educational level did not improve student achievement. Specifically, he found that the percentage of teachers with an advanced degree had no impact on student test scores. In his final analysis, Zigarelli (1996) concluded that few effective schools' variables appeared to significantly influence student achievement. Instead he found that achievement was more a function of student

and family variables than of schooling variables---just as Coleman had found in the early '70's. Both Zigarelli (1996) and Hunter (1995) caution that as the effective schools debate continues and as educators and policy makers struggle to identify what works in educating children, we should remain cognizant that the greatest influences on student achievement levels are often beyond the control of the teacher or school.

Contrary to Zigarelli's (1996) findings, Hallinger and Heck (1996) reviewed the empirical research on the principals' role in school effectiveness from 1980 to 1995. They examined 40 studies to address the question; "Do principals make a difference?" In reviewing the methodologies used in these studies, the authors were concerned with the tendency of many researchers to avoid assessing the validity of their data gathering instruments. Overall, however, they did discover positive findings concerning the role of principals in school effectiveness. Hallinger & Heck (1996) found that principals' leadership could make a difference in student learning. Principals' leadership that made a difference was aimed at influencing internal school processes that were directly linked to learning; developing school policies; school missions; instructional organization; academic learning time; and teaching practices. Similar to Zigarelli's (1996) findings, Hallinger and Heck (1996) found that environmental variables do influence leadership. Yet they claimed that although the principals' influence is mitigated by other in-school variables, it does nothing whatsoever to diminish the principals' importance. The authors concluded that in future educational studies, researchers should assess the validity of their data gathering instruments as they address important problems of interest.

In sum, there is no shortage of strategies that principals can use to influence the thinking of teachers, and the meaning they give their work. In order for principals to use

these mechanisms effectively however, they must be conscious of what their actions convey, whether directly or indirectly. In the school setting, the principals' actions set the tone on the standards and attitudes others exhibit at the workplace.

Instructional Leadership in a Changing School Culture

In the last ten years, restructuring efforts in schools have prompted many changes. The traditional roles of principals are changing and will continue to be reshaped, redefined, and renegotiated as restructuring occurs. For example, research suggests that principals who exhibit transformational leadership behaviors promote an empowered school climate that is able to cope with changes occurring in education. There are cautions raised on this issue, however. To address these issues, this section first reviews the literature on the principals as transformational leaders, and then examines the effectiveness of transformational leadership in various school settings.

The concept "transformational leadership" was first developed by James McGregor Burns, in 1978. He described transformational leadership as "a moral exercise that serves to raise the standard of human conduct" (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996, p. 280). Burns further contends that transformational leaders are not only good at appealing to followers' values, but they teach followers how to become leaders in their own right and incite them to play active roles in the change movement. According to Burns (1978), "only leaders who manifest modal values and advance the standards for humankind, work to achieve end values, and have a positive impact on the people whose lives they touch should be judged as transformational leaders" (p.281).

Cunningham & Cordeiro's (2000) description of transformational leadership is not as global as Burns' definition. They describe transformational leaders as those who

ensure the existence of collaborative goal setting, share power and responsibility, continue professional growth, resolve discrepancies, encourage teamwork, engage in new activities, have a broad range of perspectives, validate assumptions engage in periodic reflection, monitor progress, and intervene when process stalls (p.186).

Lashway (1995, 1996) and Leithwood (1992) used the terms "facilitative leadership" and "participative decision-making" synonymously to transformational leadership. Although the researcher acknowledges these terms are "components" to Burns' Transformational Leadership Theory, they are used interchangeably in this section.

According to Leithwood (1992), recent restructuring initiatives have called for the traditional power relationships of principals to be re-examined. In his study involving 47 schools, Leithwood (1992) found that most restructuring initiatives involved movement from a centralized, top-down decision making process to a participative decision making process. Transformational leadership empowers those who participate in it. This new movement helps teachers to find greater meaning to their work and develops enhanced instructional capacities.

The Wagnor study (1999) examined instructional leadership behaviors of six principals in high poverty schools. Wagnor (1999) concluded that principals who have improved instruction at their schools possessed the following transformational qualities:

> a) they worked collaboratively with others to construct a shared vision; (b) they were willing to share leadership; (c) they helped others grow and learn; (d) they encouraged others and celebrated often; (e) they inspired hope for the future of the children and the families they served; and (f) they believed that everyone was a part of the solution. Furthermore, the principals held high expectations for improvement in themselves and others; they were living examples of change, and they were continuous learners--applying their learning to their work (p. 73).

Lashway (1995) cautiously supports the transformational, facilitative leadership concept. He agrees that the principals' role should not be to direct others, but to create a school culture in which decisions are made collaboratively. He warns, however, that these empowering behaviors should focus on meeting specific instructional goals. He noted that while instructional leadership excellence is most likely to be achieved through faculty ownership, collegiality does not automatically lead to improved student learning. "School leaders must be able to translate the ambiguities of collaboration into the clarity of tangible goals"(p.2).

In his article, The Limits of Shared Decision Making, Lashway (1996) further contends that there is little empirical evidence that shared decision making increases student achievement. Schools involved in shared-decision making are often bogged down with issues not involved with teaching and learning. He discussed how the principal's leadership was needed to push for innovation against the opposition of many teachers who "acted as a brake on the pace of school reform"(p.2). Today's principals are being challenged to carry out their job functions in ways that are less direct and more collaborative. Principals committed to this shared-decision-making process still have to be accountable, which makes it difficult to be consistently facilitative. "The goal is not to do it, but to see that it happens" (Lashway, 1995, p.7). Simply stated, shared decision making is a complex process that does not lead to simple leadership strategies.

Murphy's (1994) findings on transformational leadership are similar to Lashway's (1995) study in that he raised concern on the principals' role in schools. Murphy contends that while school reform has increased the principals' workload as well as expanded the repertoire of skills needed to function effectively, little has been deleted

from the principal's role. The principals' work overload has caused role ambiguity, which exists when principals are faced with a never-ending array of reform initiatives and they must contend with conflicting expectations from the community. Principals are expected to cope, perform and lead their schools without a clear understanding of their changing role. As a result, principals are often times unsure whether to implement a top-down management style or shared decision-making style of leadership.

As principals' experiences change in their school culture and as schools undergo many restructuring and reform efforts, the changing role of principals, as instructional leaders, needs to be re-examined and redefined. In this study, the researcher clarifies which instructional leadership functions the principals are currently performing and which functions should be shared or delegated. This may help to eliminate some of the role ambiguity that the principals are currently experiencing as leaders in the Guam Department of Education.

Instructional Leadership Framework

Although the literature review discussed earlier reveals that the principals' roles are changing and that many non-school related variables have an impact on student achievement, there still is overwhelming evidence that principals do make a difference in influencing the learning process of students. This section examines an instructional leadership framework conceptualized by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) that describe ten job functions of an instructional leader. The researcher used this framework to conduct this study.

In 1985, P. Hallinger and Murphy designed an instructional leadership survey instrument consisting of three dimensions: (a) defining the school's mission, (b)

managing instructional programs, and (c) promoting the school climate. Within these three dimensions, the following ten functions of an instructional leader were defined:

1) FRAMING THE SCHOOL GOALS: This refers to the principals' roles in determining the areas in which school staff will focus their attention and resources during the school year. Instructionally effective schools generally have a clearly defined mission or set of goals that focus on student achievement.
2) COMMUNICATING THE SCHOOL GOALS: This function is concerned with the ways in which the principal communicates the school's goals to teachers, parents, students, and other stakeholders, etc. The importance of these school goals are understood by all, since they are reviewed/discussed on a regular basis during the school year.
3) SUPERVISING AND EVALUATING INSTRUCTION: This will ensure that the goals of the school are being translated into practice at the classroom level. This involves coordinating the classroom objectives of teachers with those of the school and evaluating classroom instruction. In addition, it includes providing instructional support to teachers and monitoring classroom instruction through numerous informal classroom visits.
4) COORDINATING CURRICULUM: School curricular objectives are closely aligned with the content taught in classes and the achievement tests used by the school. In addition, there appears to be a fairly high degree of continuity in the curricular series used across grade levels.

5) MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS: Tests are used to diagnose programmatic and student weaknesses, to evaluate the results of changes in the schools instructional program, and to help in making classroom assignments.

6) PROTECTING INSTRUCTIONAL TIME: Teachers are provided with blocks of uninterrupted work time. Classroom management and instructional skills are not effective when announcements, tardy students, etc. frequently interrupt teachers. Development and enforcement of school-wide policies related to protecting instructional time are practiced daily.

7) MAINTAINING HIGH VISIBILITY: The contexts in which the principal is seen provide one indicator to teachers and students of his/her priorities. Visibility on the campus and in classrooms increases the interaction between the principal and students as well as with teachers and staff. This can have positive effects on student behavior and classroom instruction.

8) PROVIDING INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS: Principals should make the best use of both formal and informal ways of providing teachers with praise or rewards when it is deserved.

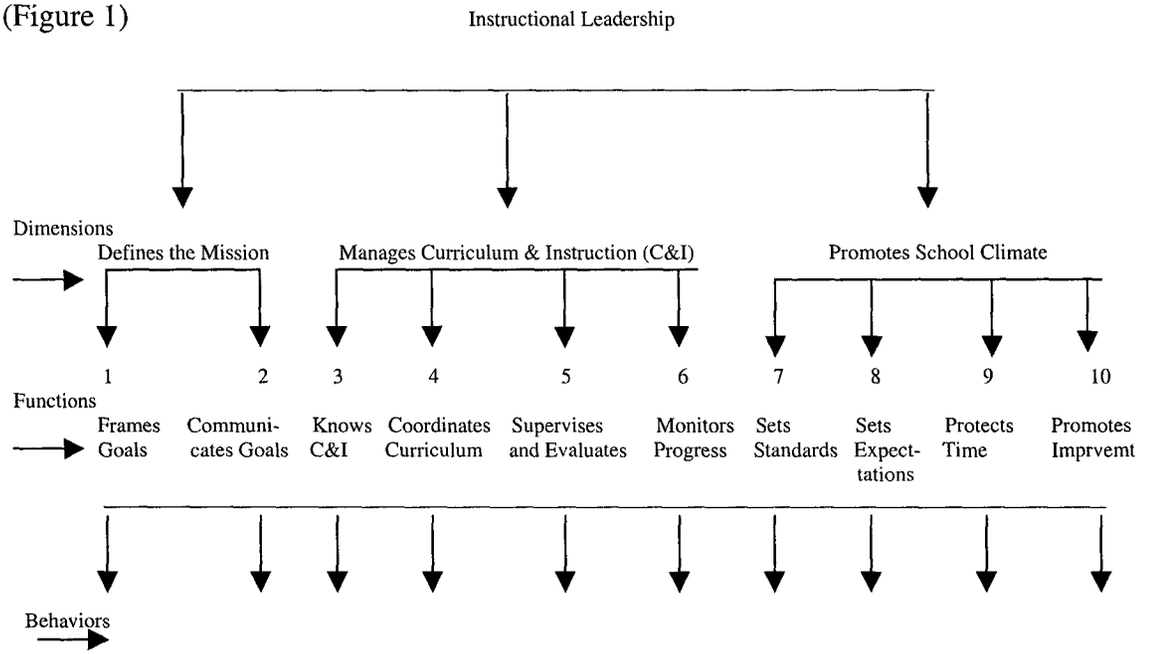
9) PROMOTING INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: Teachers need to be supported in order for them to improve their instruction. They should be provided with relevant staff development opportunities, especially those related to the school's goals.

10) PROVIDING INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING: Creating a school learning climate in which academic achievement is highly valued by students, can be

accomplished by providing frequent opportunities for students to be rewarded and recognized for their academic achievement and improvement (p.11-13).

Taken together, these ten important functions make up the Instructional Leadership Framework. The relationship between these ten functions and the three dimensions discussed earlier are shown in Figure 1.

(Figure 1)



Note: From Resource Manual: The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. (p.49). Version 1.3. by Dr. Philip Hallinger, 1987, Vanderbilt University. Reprinted with permission.

To empirically measure these ten instructional leadership functions, Hallinger (1987) developed a survey instrument entitled, "The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale" (PIMRS). Although the PIMRS focuses on a top-down leadership approach, it is an effective tool to use in gathering information on job functions performed by principals.

Education Reform Efforts in the Nation and Guam

This section took a close look at education reform efforts that pertain to instructional leadership in both the nation and Guam, and was followed by current research on school effectiveness programs. This information enabled the researcher to better understand past and current efforts taken to improve schools.

As discussed in chapter one, in 1983 the National Commission on Excellence in Education released A Nation At Risk Report which described how our nation's public education system was failing. As a result of intense criticisms raised from this report, many initiatives to improve curriculum, instruction and assessment standards in all academic areas were created.

In 1994, the Goals 2000, Educate America Act was enacted to improve the quality of our public education system. This act provided resources to states to ensure that all students met their full potential. The act was based on the premise that students would reach higher levels of achievement when more is expected of them. Congress appropriated $105 million dollars for Goals 2000 for fiscal year 1994 to be spent on developing school improvement plans, providing pre-service and professional development for teachers, identifying world class academic standards, measuring student progress, and providing support that students may need to meet the standards. As instructional leaders, school principals were tasked with overseeing the implementation of these activities in order to meet the eight National Educational Goals by the year 2000. These include:

1. All children in America will start school ready to learn.
2. The high school graduation will increase to at least 90 percent.

3. All students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter... and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our nation's modern economy.
4. United States' students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement.
5. Every adult American will be literate and will possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6. Every school in the United States will be free of drugs, violence, and unauthorized presence of firearms and alcohol and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.
7. The nation's teaching force will have access to programs for the continued improvement of their professional skills and the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to instruct and prepare all American students for the next century.
8. Every school will promote partnerships that will increase parental involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional, and academic growth of children (North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, January 21, 2002).

In January 2001, President Bush presented the "No Child Left Behind" Education Proposal to Congress. In his speech, President Bush stressed:

> "We must confront the scandal of illiteracy in America, seen most clearly in high poverty schools, where nearly 70 percent of fourth graders are unable to read at a basic level. We must address the low standing of Americas' test scores amongst industrialized nations in math and science, the very subjects most likely to affect our future competitiveness. We must put our dollars on things that work. Too often we have spent without regard for results, without judging success or failure from year to year" (Babington, 1/2001).

President Bush's No Child Left Behind Education Plan was signed into law in January 2002 and focused on these four areas of education reform:

> (a) It called for higher standards for America's schools and teachers by imposing a yearly testing requirement on states; (b) it helped to ensure that poor children will have access to a better education and the ability to exercise choice when they are stuck in persistently failing schools; (c) it gave flexibility in hiring, training and compensating teachers; and (d) it maintained the viability and continued

> expansion of the charter school movement. (Center for Education Reform, January 16, 2002)

In Guam's Department of Education, the principals were called upon to carry out these reform plans. The local Federal Programs office and Curriculum and Instruction Offices within the Department of Education were also charged with supporting these initiatives by providing federal funds to schools committed to these education reforms.

During school year 2000-2001, over one million dollars in federal grant money was distributed throughout the Guam public school system for school improvement efforts. Unfortunately, not all schools received these federal funds; only those schools whose principals initiated and oversaw the school improvement process were recipients of grant monies. Thus, if leadership was not taken by the principal to obtain these federal funds for school improvement, then the school did not participate in qualifying for funds. The Federal Programs office expected commitment and collaboration from the building principal when working with teachers towards school improvement. (E. Cruz, personal communication, November 2001). With this criteria, Guam's public elementary school system currently had five elementary schools implementing approved school level improvement plans (SLIP), and eight other elementary schools had SLIP plans (that have recently expired and are now undergoing revisions). Together, these 13 elementary schools (out of 27 on the island) have received training and funding from the Federal Programs office to implement their school level improvement plan (SLIP). As principals led their school in the process of formulating their SLIP plans, the teachers in these 13 participating schools filled out a survey instrument to rate the presence of effective school characteristics at their sites. The characteristics they examined were: (a) positive

school climate, (b) planning process, (c) goals/high expectations, (d) clearly defined curricula, (e) monitoring student progress, (f) teacher/staff effectiveness, (g) administrative leadership, (h) parent and community involvement, (i) opportunities for student responsibility and participation, (j) rewards and incentives, and (k) order and discipline. The results of these surveys guided teachers as they identified which characteristics they should focus on when they drafted and implemented their SLIP plans at the school sites.

For this study, the researcher questioned whether teachers in schools with Effective School programs (SLIP) have different perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders then schools without Effective School programs (SLIP).[2] The researcher examined whether teachers in the 13 elementary schools with SLIP plans had different perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders, than teachers in the 14 remaining schools without SLIP plans.

In 2000, Goddard, Roger, Sweetland, and Hoy researched school improvement programs that emphasized high academic achievement. They questioned whether school effectiveness could be enhanced by a climate characterized by high levels of academic emphasis. They believed that although teachers are directly responsible for teaching and learning in the classroom, school principals are charged with the development of the organizations that facilitate teaching and learning. In their study, the researchers

[2] Although Effective School programs nationwide differ in their organizational structure, for this study the researcher defines Effective School programs as those receiving federal funds to implement their Effective School (SLIP) plans.

examined the organizational emphasis placed on students' academic success in the 45 schools. They hypothesized that if academic emphasis enhanced organizational performance, then the resulting performance improvements may in turn strengthen academic emphasis. In other words, the greater the academic emphasis in a school, the more capable is the school of facilitating student learning. The researchers concluded that school climate with a strong academic emphasis influenced not only individual teacher and student behaviors, but also reinforced a pattern of collective beliefs that are good for the schools. School members are more likely to act purposefully to enhance student learning, and schools intentionally pursue their goals. (Goddard, et al, 2000).

Research Studies Using the PIMRS

The PIMRS survey instrument has been used in studies examining perceptions of the principals' role as instructional leader both in the United States and other countries. (Hallinger, 1987). In this section, some important findings based on the PIMRS regarding principals' instructional leadership are discussed.

As noted earlier, Hunter (1995) sought to determine whether principals and teachers believe that principals at high-achieving schools demonstrated instructional leadership to a greater extent than do principals at low-achieving schools. Using the PIMRS survey when teacher's perceptions of principals were measured, she found differences in two categories: communicating school goals and providing incentives for teachers. Hunter (1995) concluded that there are many other variables that might have a direct impact on student academic achievement.

Brown's (1991) study was similar to Hunters (1995) in that he compared the perceptions of principals in nationally recognized Blue Ribbon Schools to the perceptions

of principals in non-recognized schools in Texas. In analyzing the PIMRS survey results, Brown found there was only one difference in the perceptions of principals in these two groups of schools. Specifically, he found that the importance of "Framing School Goals" ranked higher in Blue Ribbon Schools than in non-recognized schools. There were no other differences in perceptions on instructional leadership between the two groups.

In Stevens' (1996) study, the researcher found that many principals felt frustrated and were judged unfairly based upon others' perceptions of their role as an instructional leader. To address this issue, Stevens investigated whether different perceptions of instructional leadership existed and if they did, to what extent these differing perceptions were related systematically to an educator's role. Stevens (1996) found that the perceptions of principals' instructional leadership varied among supervisors, teachers and principals. His finding supported earlier research that principals tended to rate themselves highly, while teachers recorded the next highest mean ratings and supervisors ratings tended to be lowest.

Ratchaneeladdajit (1997) compared and contrasted the principals' role as the instructional leader in public and private schools in Bangkok, Thailand. The independent variables she examined were teachers' teaching experience, teachers' gender, principals' teaching experience, principal's gender, school population, and teacher population. The dependent variable was teachers' perceptions on their principals' instructional leadership behaviors. Ratchaneeladdajit (1997) found differences in perceptions between public and private school principals with regards to instructional leadership. In private schools, the job function rated highest by Thai principals was "promoting professional development" of their teachers. In the public schools, "providing incentives for learning" was the job

function ranked highest by principals. Both public and private school principals agreed that their most frequently performed function was " supervising instruction". In addition, she used multiple regression techniques to determine if there was a relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principals and the demographic profiles provided by principals and teachers. She found that there was a statistically significant relationship between the following demographic variables and the teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership: the principals' total administrative years of experience, the principals' number of years in the school, the school population, and the principals' years of teaching experience, while there was no relationship found for the following variables: school level, grade that the principal taught and gender of the principal.

In Ryan's (1989) study, the researcher examined whether the perceptions of teachers differed if they had knowledge that their principal participated in instructional leadership coursework. Three hundred eleven elementary school teachers in Alaska's public school system participated in this study. Ryan (1989) found that instructional leadership coursework taken by principals does makes a positive difference in how teachers perceive their principals.

In his doctoral dissertation, Taff (1997) studied whether there was a relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders and their perceptions on whether they considered their schools to be effective. He found that teachers who perceived their schools as effective also perceived their principals as good instructional leaders. Similarly, if teachers felt negatively about their principals, they had a similar perception about the effectiveness of their schools.

Finally, Yang (1996) explored the instructional leadership behaviors of elementary principals in Taiwan as perceived by teachers and principals. She conducted a quantitative analysis of the effects of demographic variables on teachers' and principals' perceptions. The following categories emerged from the principals' and teachers' responses regarding obstacles hindering principals' instructional leadership behaviors: (a) principals' lack of time, (b) teachers' lack of knowledge in instruction, (c) inadequate staff, (d) insufficient budgets, (e) curriculum problems, (f) parents' interference, (g) imperfect evaluation of teachers, (h) principals' lack of knowledge in curriculum and instruction, and (i) imperfect evaluation of principals (Yang, 1996).

Summary

This chapter examined literature related to early Effective Schools research that compared characteristics of "high achieving" schools to characteristics of "low achieving" schools. Although there were cautions raised as to what variables caused schools to be effective, most of these early research studies emphasized that the qualities of effective schools were attributed to leadership, -- primarily, the instructional leadership of the school principal.

The complex role of principals in a changing school culture was also examined. The researcher concluded that some principals experience role confusion when many different expectations are placed upon them. We, therefore, must clearly identify which instructional leadership functions the principals should perform and which functions should be shared or delegated.

This chapter then examined reform efforts in the nation and Guam that emphasized student academic success. The 1983 Nation at Risk Report, the 1994 Goals

2000: Educate America Act, and the 2002 No Child Left Behind Education Plan, all influenced the progress of education reform in our local Department of Education, including the instructional leadership demands placed on school principals.

Finally, prior studies using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) were examined and the researcher concluded that high achieving schools do have principals who are strong instructional leaders. Two important instructional leadership functions that emerged from this literature review were: 1) the principal's ability to communicate school goals, and 2) providing incentives for learning. Overall, when teachers perceive their principals to be effective, they also perceive their schools to be effective.

CHAPTER III: RESEARCH MEHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore instructional leadership behaviors of elementary school principals in Guam as perceived by elementary school principals and teachers. The researcher examined to what extent their perceptions were congruent. The researcher also used multiple regression analyses to help explain differences in teachers' perceptions. Finally, the researcher examined teachers' and principals' perceptions on which instructional leadership functions should be shared or delegated in the schools.

Research Questions

1) How do teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differ from what the principals think of themselves?
2) To what extent do the teachers' years of experience, teachers' level of education, school population, principals' years of experience, and teachers' participation in school level improvement programs influence their perceptions of the principal as instructional leaders?
3) What are teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions and how do these perceptions differ?
4) What factors contribute to the teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions?

Instrumentation

The survey instrument selected for this study had two parts. The first part was developed by the researcher to collect demographic information that was used to address the second research question (Appendix A). Specifically, information collected described: teachers' credentials, teachers' participation in Effective School programs (SLIP), school population, and principals' years of experience.

The second part of the survey instrument was divided into two columns (Appendix B). The questions in Column I were from the Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale, developed by Dr. Philip Hallinger in 1987. This 50-item survey was designed to assess the degree to which a principal was engaged in specific instructional leadership behaviors in the school, thereby providing a profile of that principal's instructional leadership. Principals and teachers were questioned with respect to the principals' behaviors during school year 2001-2002. The respondents read the questions and scored each on a one (1) to five (5) scale. One (1) represented "almost never", two (2) represented "seldom", three (3) represented "sometimes", four (4) represented "frequently", and five (5) represented " almost always". Although these scores described the frequency with which the principals' leadership behavior occurs, the score did not measure the quality of instructional leadership. It only identified the teachers' and principals' perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership behaviors that occured in their school.

The researcher designed the questions in Column II of the survey instrument to provide a profile, which identified the extent to which the principal should be involved in the execution of each instructional leadership function. Principals and teachers were

asked to consider each question in terms of the extent to which the principal should perform each function. The respondents read the questions and scored each on a one (1) to five (5) scale. One (1) represented "the principal should not perform this task", two (2) represented "the principal should perform this task to a minor extent, but others bear the major responsibility for performing it", three (3) represented "the principal should perform this task equally with others", four (4) represented "the principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it", and five (5) represented "the principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it". A high number in Column II indicated that the principal should bear more responsibility for the task, while a score that is closer to one (1) indicated that the principal should assume less responsibility for the task.

Questions in both Columns I and II were used to examine behaviors on ten instructional leadership subscales associated with leadership in effective schools. These subscales are: (a) framing the school goals, (b) communicating the school goals, (c) supervising and evaluating instruction, (d) coordinating the curriculum, (e) monitoring student progress, (f) protecting instructional time, (g) maintaining high visibility, (h) providing incentives for teachers, (i) promoting professional development, and (j) providing incentives for learners.

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale was tested for reliability and content validity. In testing for validity, all survey items achieved the minimum average agreement of .80 among a group of raters (Hallinger, 1987, p.15). Of the ten PIMRS subscales, nine of the ten achieved the minimally acceptable standard of .80 reliability. The results of the various tests used to access the characteristics of the

instrument are summarized in Appendix C, which show that the subscales met the standard set for most of the assessment criterion (Hallinger, 1987). The information summarized in Appendix C also suggests that, despite some variability, the attempt to construct reliable valid scales for measuring principal instructional management behavior was successful. As a result of its reliability and validity, researchers have been using these scales to meet the recognized need for efficient, reliable, and valid means of collecting data on principal instructional management behavior.

The survey instrument included two forms, one for principals and one for teachers. In the principals' form, the principals were asked to indicate the degree to which they performed a particular leadership behavior (Column I). Principals were also asked to what extent these leadership behaviors should be shared (Column II). In the teachers' form, teachers were asked to indicate the degree to which their principal performed a particular leadership behavior (Column I). Teachers were also asked to what extent these leadership behaviors should be shared (Column II).

Access and Confidentiality

Once the Dissertation Committee granted permission to proceed with this study, the researcher obtained approval from the Human Subjects Committee at the University of San Diego as well. Next, the researcher met with Guam's Associate Superintendent of Elementary Schools and the administrator for DOE's Research, Planning and Evaluation Office, to gain a written endorsement to conduct this study at all public elementary school sites (Appendix D). Permission was also granted by Dr. Hallinger to use his PIMRS survey instrument for the purpose of gathering data for this study. Anonymity and confidentiality of the teachers' and principals' who participated in this study were

maintained, since the participants were not required to identify themselves in the survey instruments

Population Sample

The participants in this study consisted of two groups: elementary school principals and teachers in the 27 public elementary schools on Guam. After adjusting for principals and teachers who retired, transferred, or were recently hired, the population for this study consisted of all 908 teachers and 22 principals. The response rate was 480 (53%) teachers and 18 (81%) principals.

Data Collection

Prior to disseminating survey instruments to the schools, the researcher sent out letters to all the elementary school principals notifying them of the study being conducted. Appointments were made with each school principal at his/her school site. In these meetings with the principal and designated teacher, the researcher discussed the purpose of this study, the procedures to be used to gather data, and the importance of maintaining confidentiality and anonymity.

Survey packets for teachers were prepared in advance, coded by school, and disseminated at this meeting. Teacher designees were tasked with distributing the survey forms and securing the drop boxes (that was provided) for teachers to turn in completed surveys. Teacher designees were advised to place all drop boxes in areas that were not visible to principals at any of the schools. The teacher designees were also informed on the dates when the drop boxes would be picked up.

As stated previously, all elementary principals and all elementary school teachers were asked to participate in this study. The principals rated their own instructional

leadership behaviors in Column I of the survey instrument. The teachers rated their principals' behaviors in Column I as well (Appendix B). In Column II of the survey instrument, the principals and teachers rated the extent to which these job functions should be shared or delegated.

The researcher accepted surveys that are 100% complete. Respondents who did not submit a completed survey instrument were asked a second time to complete the instrument. Respondents who failed to submit a completed survey within a two-week period did not participate in this study.

Data Analysis Procedures

Upon receipt of the completed PIMRS questionnaires the data were sorted and coded for computer analyses. The data from the teachers' surveys were processed separately from the principals'. To address the first research question, responses from Column I were scored calculating the mean for each question and then these responses were aggregated to produce an overall score for each of the ten categories. A t-test was used to compare the differences between the total mean scores of the teachers and principals in each of the ten categories.

To address the second research question, multiple regression analysis was utilized to identify which of the following factors helped explain differences in teachers' perceptions of the principals as instructional leaders: (a) teachers' credentials, (c) teachers' participation in Effective School programs, (d) school population, and (e) principals' years of experience.

The researcher used the following evaluation criteria to determine to what extent certain factors influenced teacher's perceptions: (1) goodness of fit statistics such as R^2

and the adjusted R^2 was used to investigate the overall fit of the factors, and (2) the relevance of each factor to the model was investigated by the significance of their "t" statistics.

To address the third research question, responses from Column II were scored calculating the mean for each question and then these responses were aggregated to produce an overall score for each of the ten categories. A t-test was used to compare the differences between the total mean scores of the teachers and principals in each of the ten categories.

To address the fourth research question, multiple regression analysis was again used to identify which of the following factors influenced the teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating functions: (a) teachers' years of experience, (b) teachers' highest level of education, (c) teachers' participation in school level improvement programs, (d) school population, and (e) principals' years of experience. As with the second research question, goodness of fit statistics and tests of significance were used to evaluate the regression models.

Limitations

This study was limited to the perceptions of principals and teachers in Guam's public elementary schools and may not reflect actual behaviors. Many variables outside the control of this study may affect individual perceptions that could influence the teachers' and principals' responses to the questionnaire items. Furthermore, this study's findings were restricted to the information gathered from the PIMRS questionnaire. Finally, the parameters of this study only apply to Guam's public elementary schools and generalizations to any other population are not appropriate.

Summary

This chapter examined the methodology and procedures used to conduct this research. The introduction outlined the purpose of this study, research questions, instrumentation, access and confidentiality, and population sample. Data collection, data analysis procedures, and limitations were discussed in the methodology section of this chapter.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine Guam's public elementary school principals' and teachers' perceptions on instructional leadership. In this chapter, the demographic data obtained from principals and teachers are described and analyzed. Next, the similarities and differences between the perceptions of principals and teachers on current instructional leadership functions are examined. Finally, the researcher compares the principals' and teachers' perceptions on which job functions should be shared or delegated.

Sampling Participants and Survey Timetable

The participants for the study consisted of elementary teachers and principals in the Guam Department of Education. Originally, 1024 survey instruments were prepared for 978 teachers and 26 principals, but after adjusting for teachers and principals who retired, transferred or were recently hired, the population for this study was reduced to 908 teachers and 22 principals.

The data for this investigation were gathered using a modified version of the Principals Instructional Management Rating Scale developed by Dr. Phillip Hallinger (1987). Each set of questionnaires included a cover page, which explained the purpose for this study and survey procedures. The researcher only accepted surveys that were 100% complete. Surveys with missing responses were not used in the analysis.

Survey instruments were first delivered to schools on August 9, 2002, with follow-up calls made during the week of August 19-23. As of August 26, a total of 203 teachers (22%) and 4 principals (18%) had responded. A second attempt to collect completed survey instruments was made between September 2 and September 13. At this time the researcher attended faculty meetings at some school sites to explain her study and appealed for a greater teacher response rate. The researcher also provided a raffle incentive to each school to encourage teacher participation. As shown in Table 1, the final response rate was 53 percent for the teachers (480/908), and 81 percent for the principals (18/22). Twenty-two additional surveys that were returned incomplete were not used in this study.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution of the Population

Population	Number Sent	Return Rate Male	Female	Total Number Returned	Percentage of Return
Principals	22	3	15	18	81%
Teachers	908	47	433	480	53%

Demographic Distribution of Principals and Teachers

A demographic profile of the 18 principals and 480 teachers is displayed in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 reveals that most elementary principals had six to ten years of administrative experience, worked in schools with enrollments of 401-700 students, and participated in Effective School programs at their school sites.

Table 2

Demographic Profile of Responding Principals (N= 18)

School Demographics		
Years of Experience as Principal		
One to Five Years	6	33%
Six to Ten Years	9	50%
Eleven or More Years	3	17%
School Size		
100-400 Students	4	22%
401-700 Students	10	56%
701 or more Students	4	22%
Participation in Effective Schools Programs		
Yes	10	56%
No	8	44%

As shown in Table 3, most teachers had over ten years of teaching experience, possessed a Masters Degree in Education, worked in schools with Effective School programs and enrollments of 401-700 students.

Non-Response Bias

Since the researcher had information on the gender composition of the population, a test for non-response bias was conducted to determine if the sample population was similar to the general population. As shown in Table 4, there were no significant differences in gender between the sample population and general population of teachers, allowing inferences made from the sample to be applied to the general population.

Table 3

Demographic Profile of Responding Teachers (N= 480)

School Demographics	Number of Teachers	Percent
Years of Teaching Experience		
One to Five Years	141	29%
Six to Ten Years	133	28%
Eleven or More Years	206	43%
Teaching Credentials		
Teacher 1 (Provisional)	27	6%
Teacher II (BA Degree in Ed.)	156	32%
Teacher III (Credits beyond BA)	113	24%
Teacher IV (MA Degree in Ed.)	171	36%
Teacher V (Credits beyond MA)	13	2%
School Size		
100-400 Students	91	19%
401-700 Students	201	44%
701-more Students	180	37%
Participation in Effective Schools Programs		
Yes	262	55%
No	218	45%

Research Questions & Instrumentation

In this study there were four research questions that explored the perceptions of principals and teachers on instructional leadership in the Guam's Public Elementary Schools. They are: 1) How do teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differ from what the principals think of themselves? 2) To what extent do the

Table 4

Results of Gender to Determine Non-Response Bias

TEACHERS				
	Population (N=908)		Sample (N=480)	
Gender	N	%	N	%
Male	91/908	10%	47/480	10%
Female	817/908	90%	433/480	90%
PRINCIPALS				
	Population (N=22)		Sample (N=18)	
Gender	N	%	N	%
Male	4/22	18%	3/18	17%
Female	18/22	82%	15/18	83%

teachers' year of experience, teachers' credentials, school population, principals' years of experience and teachers' participation in Effective School (school level improvement) programs influence their perceptions of the principals as instructional leaders? 3) What are teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions and how do these perceptions differ? 4) What factors contribute to the teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions?

In order to determine teachers' and principals' perceptions, the respondents were asked to complete the Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), developed by Dr. Phillip Hallinger (1987) and modified by the researcher. This 100-item survey was divided into two columns. The first 50 questions in column one assessed

the degree to which a principal engaged in specific instructional leadership behaviors in the school, thereby providing a profile of that principal's instructional leadership performance. Respondents were asked to answer these 50 items in column one using a five point Likert Scale: 1= almost never; 2= seldom; 3 = sometimes; 4= frequently; and 5= almost always. The mean score for each of the 10 job functions in column one were computed and analyzed. The higher the mean scores in column one indicated job functions principals performed more frequently. Lower mean scores indicated the job functions principals performed less frequently. Data gathered from column one were used to address research questions one and two.

Column two of the survey instrument was designed to assess perceptions on which instructional leadership functions should be shared, delegated, or assumed by the school principal. Respondents were asked to respond to these 50 remaining items using this Likert scale: 1= The principal should not perform this task at all; 2= The principal should perform this task to a minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it; 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others; 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it; and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it. The mean score for each of the ten job functions were computed and analyzed. The higher mean scores in column two indicated the job functions that were "solely" the principals' responsibility. Lower mean scores indicated the job function where others could bear responsibility. Data gathered in column two were used to address research questions three and four.

Data Analysis Procedures

Upon receipt of the completed PIMRS questionnaires the data were sorted and coded for computer analyses. The data from the teachers' surveys were processed separately from the principals' data. To address the first and third research question, mean scores for each of the ten job functions were computed and analyzed. Independent sample t-tests were used to determine whether the findings were significant. For the second and fourth research question, separate multiple regression analyses were undertaken to determine whether these four variables affected principals' and teachers' perceptions: teachers' credentials, teachers' participation in Effective School programs, principals' years of experience, and school population. Table 5 displays the codes assigned to the four demographic variables.

Discussion of Findings

Perceptions of Instructional Leadership: Research Question 1

How do teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differ from what principals think of themselves?

Table 6 displays the principals' perceptions on their instructional leadership performance. The school principals ranked "Protecting Instructional Time" as the most frequent job function they performed. The least frequent job function performed by principals was "Monitoring Student Progress. Their mean score for the ten job functions was 4.23. Principals claimed they performed all job functions "frequently."

Table 5

Coding of Demographic Variables for Data Analysis

Variables	Categories	Codes Assigned
Teachers' Credentials	Teacher I	1
	Teacher II	2
	Teacher III	3
	Teacher IV	4
	Teacher V	5
Teachers' participation in Effective School programs	Yes	1
	No	2
Principals' Years of Experience	1-5 years	1
	6-10 years	2
	11-more years	3
School Population	100-400 Students	1
	401-700 Students	2
	701- more Students	3

Table 6

Principals' Ratings of their Current Instructional Leadership Performance (N= 18)

Job Functions	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations	Rank
Protecting Instructional Time	4.40	0.57	1
Promoting Professional Development	4.38	0.64	2
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.32	0.62	3
Providing Incentives for Learning*	4.28	0.76	4
Coordinating the Curriculum*	4.28	0.60	5
Communicating the School Goals	4.27	0.68	6
Framing the Schools Goals	4.26	0 .54	7
Providing Incentives for Teachers	4.16	0 .85	8
Maintaining High Visibility	4.02	0 .89	9
Monitoring Student Progress	3.97	0 .85	10

Scale: range 1-5 (1=Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4=Frequently, and 5=Almost Always.
* = equal mean scores

In Table 7, the teachers' perceptions of their principals' performance on instructional leadership functions are presented in rank order. Elementary school teachers ranked "Promoting Professional Development" as the job function principals

performed most frequently. They rated "Maintaining High Visibility" as the job function least performed by principals.

Table 7

Teachers' Ratings of their Principals Instructional Leadership Performance (N= 480)

Job Functions	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations	Rank
Promoting Professional Development	3.95	0.95	1
Protecting Instructional Time	3.87	0.90	2
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	3.86	0.95	3
Framing the Schools Goals	3.85	0.98	4
Communicating the School Goals	3.84	0.97	5
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.76	0.99	6
Providing Incentives for Learning	3.59	1.05	7
Monitoring Student Progress	3.53	1.07	8
Providing Incentives for Teachers	3.49	1.18	9
Maintaining High Visibility	3.30	1.10	10

Scale: range 1-5 (1= Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4= Frequently, and 5=Almost Always).

Table 8 compares the mean scores of principals and teachers on their perceptions on instructional leadership functions. In all ten job functions, the principals rated themselves consistently higher than teachers in their instructional leadership

performance. They rated the frequency of their instructional leadership performance as occurring "frequently," whereas teachers rated their principals' performance as occurring "sometimes." The mean score of principals in all ten job functions was 4.23, while the mean score of teachers was 3.70.

Also in Table 8, it can be seen that principals and teachers agree on the top 3 job functions performed most frequently by principals: "Protecting Instructional Time,"

Table 8

Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions on the Principals Instructional Leadership Performance

Job Function	Principals		Teachers	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Protecting Instructional Time	4.40	1	3.87	2
Promoting Professional Development	4.38	2	3.95	1
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.32	3	3.86	3
Providing Incentives for Learning	4.28	4	3.59	7
Coordinating the Curriculum	4.28	5	3.76	6
Communicating the School Goals	4.27	6	3.83	5
Framing the School Goals	4.26	7	3.85	4
Providing Incentives for Teachers	4.16	8	3.49	9
Maintaining High Visibility	4.02	9	3.30	10
Monitoring Student Progress	3.97	10	3.53	8

Scale: range 1-5 (1= Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4= Frequently, and 5=Almost Always.

"Promoting Professional Development," and "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction." Principals and teachers also agreed on these three job functions being performed less frequently: Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Monitoring Student Progress.

An Independent Sample T-test was used to determine if there were significant differences between the principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership behaviors.[1] As shown in Table 9, the t-value on all ten job functions was less then .05,[2] indicating that with 95 percent certainty there were statistically significant differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions towards their principals' instructional leadership behaviors in all ten job functions.

From the above analysis, answers to research question one may now be summarized: Teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differed from principals' perceptions in that teachers tended to rate their principals lower then how principals rated themselves. Teachers claimed their principals performed instructional leadership functions "sometimes," while principals claimed they performed these functions "frequently."

Although the researcher found differences in perceptions on how often each instructional leadership function was performed, both teachers and principals did agree on the three job functions principals performed most and least frequently. Both agreed that the three job functions principals performed most frequently were: Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, and Supervising and

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[1] Independent Sample t-test can be used to test for differences in mean scores between two groups. Since this study examines perceptions, the researcher selected the .05 alpha level to test for significance.
[2] Range of scores were between .001 and .042.

Evaluating Instruction. The three job functions principals performed least frequently were: Providing Incentives for Learning, Maintaining High Visibility, and Monitoring Student Progress.

Table 9

Comparison of Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions on their Principals' Instructional Leadership Performance

Job Function	Principals' Mean Score	Teachers' Mean Score	Sig. (2-tailed) Score
Framing the School Goals	4.26	3.85	.008
Communicating the School Goals	4.27	3.83	.019
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.32	3.86	.007
Coordinating the Curriculum	4.28	3.76	.003
Monitoring Student Progress	3.97	3.53	.042
Protecting Instructional Time	4.40	3.87	.001
Maintaining High Visibility	4.02	3.30	.003
Providing Incentives to Teachers	4.16	3.49	.004
Promoting Professional Development	4.38	3.95	.012
Providing Incentives for Learning	4.28	3.59	.002

Sig. 2-tailed $p<.05$

Effects of Demographic Variables: Research Question 2

To what extent do teachers' years of experience, teachers' credentials, school population, principals' years of experience, and teachers' level of participation in

Effective School programs influence their perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders?

The SPSS Multiple Regression Statistical Procedure was used to determine if the demographic information collected -- teachers' years of experience, teachers' level of education, school population, principals' years of experience, and teachers' participation in Effective Schools programs,-- explained variation in scores on each of the ten instructional leadership functions. In the preliminary analysis, the researcher found teachers' years of experience had no effect on teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders and thus eliminated this independent variable from the subsequent analyses. Table 10 reveals the results of the multiple regression analysis on the remaining four independent variables. These four demographic variables explained between .03 and .09 percent of the variability in each of the ten job functions.

Effects of Teachers' Participation in Effective Schools Programs

As shown in Table 10, the regression indicated there was a statistically significant and negative relationship between teachers' participation in Effective School programs, and all ten job functions.[3] In other words, participating in Effective Schools made a difference in teachers' perceptions of how their principals performed as instructional leaders. Teachers from schools with Effective School programs claimed that their principals performed all instructional leadership functions more frequently than teachers who did not participate in Effective School programs. Specifically, teachers that had participated in Effective School programs rated their principals almost a half point higher (.4) than teachers that had not participated in Effective School programs.

[3] $P<.01$

Table 10

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AS DESCRIBED BY DEMOGRAPHIC RESPONSES

Job Function	Teachers' Credentials	School Pop.	Principals' years of experience	Teachers' participation in Effective Schools	R2
Framing the School Goals	-----	-----	.32***	-.50***	.08
Communicating the School Goals	-.07*	-----	.28***	-.41***	.06
Supervising/ Evaluating Instruction	-.09**	-----	.30***	-.36***	.06
Coordinating the Curriculum	-----	-----	.32***	-.32***	.05
Monitoring Student Progress	-.08*	-----	.44***	-.45***	.09
Protecting Instructional Time	-.07*	-----	.33***	-.40***	.08
Maintaining High Visibility	-----	-----	.19**	-.50***	.05
Providing Incentives for Teachers	-----	.14*	.20**	-.32***	.03
Promoting Professional Dev.	-----	-----	.22***	-.53***	.08
Providing Incentives for Learning	-----	.12*	.33***	-.33***	.05

* p<.10 ** p<.05 *** p<.01

The Effects of Principals Years of Experience

Principals' years of experience was statistically significant and had a positive effect on teachers' perceptions of their principals in all ten instructional leadership job functions.[4] Teachers tended to rate experienced principals higher than less experienced principals. Specifically, for each additional year of experience that the principal had, teachers' ratings on their performance in all the ten instructional leadership job functions increased by between .19 and .44 points.

The Effects of Teaching Credentials

As displayed in Table 10, there was a statistically significant and negative relationship between teaching credentials and these four job functions: Communicating the School Goals, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress and Protecting Instructional Time.[5] In other words, teachers with higher teaching credentials rated their principals lower in these four job functions, suggesting that teachers with higher teaching credentials may have higher expectations of their principals, or they may have been empowered to perform these four job functions themselves. For each step that teachers increased their teaching credentials, their ratings of their principals would drop slightly less than a tenth of a point (.08).

Teaching credentials did not significantly affect these six remaining job functions: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the Curriculum, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives to Teachers, Promoting Professional Development and Providing Incentives to Teachers.

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[4] $p<.05$
[5] $p<.10$

The Effects of School Population

School population had a significant and positive effect on teachers' perceptions in these two job functions: Providing Incentives to Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning.[6] Teachers from schools with larger enrollments tended to rate their principals higher in these two areas then schools with smaller student populations.[7] Specifically, as a school's population changed from small (100-400) to medium (401-700), or from medium to large (701+), teachers' ratings of their principals in these 2 areas would rise by between .12 to .14 points.

School population had no effect on these 8 remaining job functions: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, and Promoting Professional Development.

From these analyses, answers to research question two may now be summarized: In all ten job functions, teachers' participation in Effective School programs and principals' years of experience had significant effects on teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders.[8] Teachers' credentials and school population had some influence on teachers' perceptions,[9] while teachers' years of experience had no influence on their perceptions. [10]

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[6] $p<.10$

[7] The researcher assumes that teacher and student incentives may have a greater impact in schools that are heavily populated since there were more peers to witness and applaud the incentives given.

[8] $p<.05$ in all 10 job functions

[9] $p<.10$

[10] $p>.10$

Perceptions on Sharing and Delegating Functions: Research Question 3

What are teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions, and how do these perceptions differ?

In this section, the researcher first reviews the principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions and then examined teachers' perceptions on the same issue. The researcher then compares their responses to determine if differences in their perceptions were significant.

Table 11 summarizes the principals' self-reported perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions in rank order.[11] Elementary school principals claimed that "Providing Incentives for Teachers" and "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" are the two job functions they should "perform alone to a major extent". With the remaining eight job functions, the principals felt they could be "performed equally with others."

In Table 12, teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions are listed in rank order. Elementary school teachers also rated "Providing Incentives for Teachers" and "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" as the two job functions their principals should "perform alone to a major extent." The teachers claimed that the eight remaining job functions should be "performed equally with others."

[11] Mean scores on sharing and delegating each of the 10 Instructional Leadership job functions were computed to determine which functions principals perceived they should assume, share, or delegate.

Table 11

Principals' Perceptions on Sharing and Delegating Instructional Leadership Job Functions (N= 18)

Job Functions	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations	Rank
Providing Incentives for Teachers	4.24	.721	1
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.21	.520	2
Maintaining High Visibility	3.82	.703	3
Promoting Professional Development	3.70	.603	4
Protecting Instructional Time	3.69	.770	5
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.63	.528	6
Monitoring Student Progress*	3.60	.536	7
Providing Incentives for Learning*	3.60	.706	8
Communicating the School Goals	3.44	.529	9
Framing the School Goals	3.36	.507	10

Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it.)
* = equal mean score

Table 12

Teachers' Perception on Sharing and Delegating Instructional Leadership Job Functions (N= 480)

Job Functions	Mean Scores	Standard Deviations	Rank
Providing Incentives for Teachers	4.31	.768	1
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.19	.660	2
Promoting Professional Development	3.93	.733	3
Protecting Instructional Time	3.86	.762	4
Monitoring Student Progress	3.77	.702	5
Maintaining High Visibility	3.76	.819	6
Providing Incentives for Learning	3.75	.781	7
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.72	.628	8
Communicating the School Goals	3.66	.594	9
Framing the School Goals	3.55	.575	10

Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it).

Table 13 displays the mean scores of principals and teachers on their perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions. Although teachers

tended to rate their principals higher [12] then what principals rated themselves, they are in agreement that these eight job functions "should be performed equally with others:"

Table 13

Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions on Sharing and Delegating Instructional Leadership Job Functions

Job Function	Principal (N=18)		Teacher (N=480)	
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank
Providing Incentives for Teacher	4.24	1	4.31	1
Supervising and Evaluating	4.21	2	4.19	2
Maintaining High Visibility	3.82	3	3.76	6
Promoting Professional Development	3.70	4	3.93	3
Protecting Instructional Time	3.69	5	3.86	4
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.63	6	3.72	8
Monitoring Student Progress	3.60	7	3.77	5
Providing Incentives to Learners	3.60	8	3.75	7
Communicating the School Goals	3.44	9	3.66	9
Framing the School Goals	3.36	10	3.55	10

Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it).

Maintaining High Visibility, Promoting Professional Development, Protecting Instructional Time, Coordinating the Curriculum, Monitoring Student Progress,

[12] Higher mean scores indicate the job function was "solely" the principals' responsibility.

Providing Incentives to Learners, Communicating the School Goals, and Framing the School Goals. Teachers and principals also agree that these two remaining job functions -- Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, -- should be performed to a major extent by the principal, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it.

For Table 14, the researcher used an Independent Sample T-test to determine if there were differences between the principals' and teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions.[13] The t-value on nine out of ten job functions were greater than .05 indicating that there are no significant differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions.[14]

A Closer Look at Principals' Perceptions

In this section, the researcher compares principals' perceptions of their current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. Findings reported earlier in this chapter (Table 6) revealed that principals claimed they performed all ten job functions "frequently," thus giving themselves a high rating for their instructional leadership performance. As noted in Table 11, principals also claimed

[13] Independent Samples t-test was used to test for differences in mean scores between groups.
[14] $p>.05$

Table 14

Comparison of Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions on Sharing and Delegating Instructional Leadership Job Functions

Job Function	Principals' Mean Score	Teachers' Mean Score	Sig. (2-tailed) Score
Providing Incentives for Teacher	4.24	4.31	.705
Supervising and Evaluating	4.21	4.19	.851
Maintaining High Visibility	3.82	3.76	.729
Promoting Professional Development	3.70	3.93	.140
Protecting Instructional Time	3.69	3.86	.374
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.63	3.72	.490
Monitoring Student Progress	3.60	3.77	.208
Providing Incentives to Learners	3.60	3.75	.405
Communicating the School Goals	3.44	3.66	.101
Framing the School Goals	3.36	3.55	.129

Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it).

that eight out of the ten job functions " should be performed equally with others. In Table 15, the researcher combines the results of Tables 6 and 11 to further analyze how principals' perceived instructional leadership could be improved at their schools.

The researcher used an Independent Sample T-test to determine if there are significant differences in principals' perceptions on performing each job function and on

Table 15

Principals' Ratings of their Current Instructional Leadership Performance and on Sharing/Delegating Them.

Job Function	Principals' Mean Score (N=18) * of their current IL performance	Principals' Mean Score (N=18)** on sharing/delegating. IL job functions	Sig. (2-tailed) Score
Framing the School Goals	4.26	3.36	.000
Communicating the School Goals	4.27	3.44	.000
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	4.32	4.21	-----
Coordinating the Curriculum	4.28	3.63	.002
Monitoring Student Progress	3.97	3.60	-----
Protecting Instructional Time	4.40	3.68	.003
Maintaining High Visibility	4.02	3.82	-----
Providing Incentives for Teachers	4.16	4.24	-----
Promoting Professional Development	4.38	3.70	.002
Providing Incentives for Learning	4.28	3.60	.009

Sig. 2-tailed $p<.01$

*Scale: range 1-5 (1= Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4= Frequently, and 5=Almost Always).

**Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it).

sharing and delegating them.[15] As shown in Table 15 the t-value on 6 of the ten job functions is less then .05, indicating that there are significant distinctions in the principals' perceptions in these six areas: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learning.[16] Principals claimed they performed these six job functions "frequently," and they also claimed that the responsibility for performing them should be performed "equally with others." These findings suggest that principals want teachers to assume a more active role in performing these six job functions.

The Independent Samples t-test further reveals that there is no significant differences in principals' perceptions in these two functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction and Providing Incentives for Teachers. Principals claimed they currently are performing these functions "frequently," and that they should continue to " perform these functions "to major extent."

A Closer Look at Teachers' Perceptions

In this section, the researcher compares teachers' perceptions of their principals' current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. Earlier in this chapter, Tables 7 and 12 revealed that teachers' perceived their principals performed all ten job functions "sometimes," and that eight out of the ten job functions should be "performed equally with others." In Table 16 the

[15] Independent Samples T-test compares the means of groups to determine significant differences.
[16] Range of t-scores were between .000 and .009. $p<.01$

researcher combines the findings of Tables 6 and 11 to take a closer look at teachers' perceptions of how instructional leadership could be improved at their schools.

Table 16

Teachers' Ratings of their Principals' Current Instructional Leadership Performance and on Sharing and Delegating these Functions(N=480)

Job Function (Column 1)	Teachers' Mean scores of Principals' performance on each job function (Column 2)	Teachers' Mean score on sharing/ delegating each job function (Column 3)	Sig. (2-tailed) test (Column 4)
Framing the School Goals	3.85	3.55	.000
Communicating the School Goals	3.84	3.66	.001
Supervising and Evaluating Instruction	3.87	4.18	.000
Coordinating the Curriculum	3.76	3.72	-----
Monitoring Student Progress	3.53	3.76	.000
Protecting Instructional Time	3.87	3.85	-----
Maintaining High Visibility	3.30	3.76	.000
Providing Incentives for Teachers	3.49	4.31	.000
Promoting Professional Development	3.95	3.92	-----
Providing Incentives for Learning	3.59	3.74	.012

*Scale: range 1-5 (1= Never, 2=Seldom, 3=Sometimes, 4= Frequently, and 5=Almost Always).

**Scale: range 1-5 (1= The principal should not perform this task, 2=The principal should perform this task to minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it, 3= The principal should perform this task equally with others, 4= The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it, and 5= The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it).

The Independent Sample t-test revealed that the t-values on seven of the ten job functions is less then .05, indicating that there are significant distinctions in the teachers' perceptions in these seven job functions: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives to Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning.[17]

Specifically, Table 16 demonstrates that teachers' rated "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" and "Providing Incentives for Teachers," as functions performed "sometimes," and that they "should be performed by their principal to a major extent." These findings suggest that teachers want their principals to perform these two job functions more frequently.

Furthermore, Table 16 indicates that teachers claimed these five job functions -- Framing School Goals, Communicating School Goals, Monitoring Student Progress, Maintaining High Visibility, and Providing Incentives for Learning, --are currently performed "sometimes," by the principal and that they should be "performed equally with others." Since the Independent Samples t-test reveals significant differences in these five job functions, teachers must clarify with their principals whether these five job functions should be performed more frequently by all of them.

From these analyses, answers to research question 3 may now be summarized: First, teachers and principals are in agreement on which instructional leadership functions should be shared and delegated. They concurred that "Providing Incentives to Teachers" and "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" are the two job functions that should be

[17] T-scores ranged between .000 and .012. $p<.01$.

performed by the principal "to a major extent." Principals and teachers also agree that the eight remaining job functions "should be performed equally with others."

Second, the researcher compared principals' perceptions on their current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. Findings reveals that principals want teachers to assume a more active role in performing these six job functions: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, and Providing Incentives for Learning. Third, upon comparing teachers' perceptions of their principals' current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them, the researcher found that teachers want their principals to "Supervise and Evaluate Instruction," and "Provide Incentives for Learning," more often, and that teachers need to confer with principals on whether these five job functions should be performed more frequently by all of them: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Monitoring Student Progress, Maintaining High Visibility, and Providing Incentives for Learning.

Effects of Variables on Sharing/Delegating Functions: Research Question 4

What factors contribute to the teachers' perception on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions?

The SPSS Multiple Regression Statistical Procedure was used to determine if the demographic variables explained variations in the scores on each of the ten instructional leadership functions: teachers' credentials, school population, principals' years of experience, and teachers' participation in Effective School programs.

Table 17

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ON SHARING AND DELEGATING NSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP FUNCTIONS AS DESCRIBED BY DEMOGRAPHIC RESPONSES

Job Function	Teachers' Credentials	School Population	Principals' years of experience	Teachers' participation in Effective Schools	R2
Framing the School Goals	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Communicating the School Goals	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Supervising/Evaluating Instruction	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Coordinating the Curriculum	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Monitoring Student Progress	-----	-----	------	-----	-----
Protecting Instructional Time	.10***	-----	------	-----	.02
Maintaining High Visibility	-----	-----	-.12**	-----	.01
Providing Incentives for Teachers	-----	-.13**	-----	-----	.02
Promoting Professional Dev.	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Providing Incentives for Learning	-----	-----	.-.11**	-----	.01

*p<.10 **p<.05 ***p<.01

As shown in Table 17, three of the four demographic variables did little to explain scores on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions. Only four of the ten job functions were significantly affected by these three demographic variables: teachers' credentials, principals' years of experience, and school population. Teachers' participation in Effective School programs had no significant effect on teachers' perceptions in sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions.

Furthermore, these demographic variables only explained between .01 and .02 of the variability in four of the ten job functions, suggesting that the demographic variables used in this analysis contributed little if any, to explaining variations in the ten dependent variables.

Effects of Principals' Years of Experience

In Table 17, the regression indicated that principals' years of experience had a significant and negative effect on teacher perceptions in these two job functions: Maintaining High Visibility and Providing Incentives for Learning. Teachers tended to rate their experienced principals lower then the newly hired principal in these two categories.[18] Specifically, for each additional year of experience that the principal had, teachers' ratings on their performance in these two functions would decrease by about a tenth of a point (.11 and.12.)

Effects of Teaching Credentials

As shown in Table 17, teaching credentials had a significant and positive effect on teachers' perceptions of how their principals "protected instructional time." In other words, teachers with higher teaching credentials rated their principals higher in protecting

[18] Lower mean scores indicate the job function where others could bear the responsibility for performing it.

instructional time.[19] Specifically, for every step that teachers increased their teaching credentials, their ratings of their principals would increase in this function by a tenth of a point (.10.) Teaching credentials had no significant effect on the nine remaining job functions.

Effects of School Population

School population had a significant and negative effect on teachers' perceptions of how their principals "provide incentives to teachers." Teachers from larger schools tended to rate their principals lower in this area than schools with small populations. [20] Specifically, as a school population increased, teachers' ratings of their principals would decrease by slightly more than a tenth of a point (.13). School population had no effect on teachers' perceptions in the nine remaining job functions.

From these analyses, answers to research question four may now be summarized: Teachers' participation in effective school programs did not affect teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions. While principals' years of experience influenced teachers' perceptions in two job functions, teaching credentials and school population only influenced perceptions in one job function. Thus, these four demographic variables had little or no effect on teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions.

Summary

In this chapter the researcher analyzed and presented data collected from teachers and principals on their perceptions of Instructional Leadership. All teachers and

[19] Higher mean scores indicate the job function was "solely" the principals' responsibility.
[20] Lower mean scores indicate the job function where others could bear the responsibility for performing it.

principals from Guam's Department of Education (GDoE) were asked to participate in this study, however, only 480 teachers (53%) and 18 principals (81%) responded to surveys distributed at their respective school sites.

An analysis was conducted to test for non-response bias by comparing gender of the sample population to the general population of teachers. The researcher found no significant differences between the sample and the population and thus concluded that inferences based on the sample of teachers could be applied to the general population.

The demographics revealed that the average teacher had a masters degree in education, taught over 10 years, worked in schools with Effective School programs and enrollments of 401-700 students. The average principal had 6-10 years of administrative experience, worked in schools with Effective School programs, and enrollments of 401-700 students.

Through the data analysis, it was learned that teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differed from principals' perceptions of themselves. Teachers' claimed their principals performed their job functions "sometimes," while principals claimed they performed these same job functions "frequently." Although teachers tended to rate their principals lower then what principals rated themselves, both teachers and principals did agree on the three job functions principals performed most and least often. Both agreed that the three job functions principals performed most frequently were: Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, and Supervising and Evaluating Instruction. The three job functions performed less frequently were: Providing Incentives for teachers, Maintaining High Visibility, and Monitoring_Student Progress.

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if demographic information collected explained variations in scores in each of the ten job functions. The results indicate that "teachers' participation in Effective School programs," and "principals' years of experience," affected teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership performance in all tenjob functions. Teachers from Effective School programs tended to rate their principals higher then teachers from schools without Effective School programs. Teachers also tended to rate their experienced principals higher then their new or less-experienced principals.

Although not as statistically powerful as teachers' "participation in Effective School programs," and "principals' years of experience," the analysis also revealed that "teachers' credentials" and "student population" had some influence in teachers' perceptions, while "teachers' years of experience" had no influence on their perceptions. Specifically as teachers became more credentialed, they tended to rate their principal lower in four areas, while large student populations were associated with high principal ratings in two areas.

An independent samples t-test was used to compare teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions. The results reveal that both teachers and principals agree that "Supervising and Evaluating Instruction" and "Providing Incentives to Teachers," should be performed by the principals "to a major extent." Both teachers and principals also agreed that these eight remaining job functions "should be performed equally with others: Framing School Goals, Communicating School Goals, Providing Incentives to Learners, Monitoring

Student Progress, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, and Maintaining High Visibility.

In addition, the principals' perceptions of their current instructional leadership performance were compared to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. Findings reveal that principals specifically want teachers to assume more active roles in performing these 6 instructional leadership functions: Framing the School Goals, Communicating the School Goals, Coordinating the Curriculum, Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development and Providing Incentives for Learning.

When teachers' perceptions of their principals' current instructional leadership performance was compared to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them, findings reveal that teachers specifically want their principals to "Supervise and Evaluate Instruction," and " Provide Incentives for Teachers," more frequently. Furthermore, teachers need to clarify with their principals on whether these five job functions need to be performed more frequently by all of them: Framing the School Goals, Communicating School Goals, Monitoring Student Progress, Maintaining High Visibility and Providing Incentives for Learning.

Finally, through the Multiple Regression analysis, the results indicated that school population, principals' years of experience, teaching credentials and teachers' participation in Effective School programs did little to influence their perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions.

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In the previous chapters, an overview of this study and a literature review were presented, followed by a discussion of the methodology and description of the findings. In this chapter, conclusions from the findings and implications for further research and practice are presented.

This study explored the current instructional leadership behaviors of elementary principals in Guam as perceived by the principals and teachers, and also examined perceptions on which instructional leadership functions should be shared or delegated in schools. The 4 research questions that guided this study are: 1) How do teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differ from what principals think of themselves? 2) To what extent do teachers' credentials, school population, principals' years of experience and teachers' participation in Effective School (school level improvement) programs influence their perceptions of the principals as instructional leaders? 3) What are teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions and how do these perceptions differ? 4) What factors contribute to the teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions?

The Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), developed by Dr. Phillip Hallinger and modified by the researcher, was used to gather data for this study. For the first and third research questions, mean scores for each of the ten job

functions were computed and analyzed. Independent sample t-tests were used to determine whether the findings were significant. For the second and fourth research question, separate multiple regression analyses were undertaken to determine whether the following variables -- teachers' credentials, school population, principals' administrative years of experience, and teachers' participation in Effective School programs -- affected principals' and teachers' perceptions..

Four hundred eighty teachers and eighteen principals participated in this study, representing respectively, 53 percent and 81 percent of the population. The average teacher had over ten years of teaching experience, possessed a masters degree in education, worked in schools with Effective School programs and an enrollment of 401-700 students. The average principal had six to ten years of administrative experience, participated in Effective School programs at their school sites, and worked in a school with an enrollment of 401-700 students.

To test for non-response bias, the sample population was compared to the general population in terms of gender, and the researcher determined that there was no significant difference between the two groups. For this reason, inferences made about the sample of teachers can most likely be applied to the general population.

Discussion of Findings

Perceptions of the Principals' Current Instructional Leadership Performance

Research question one investigated whether teachers' perceptions of their principals as instructional leaders differed from what principals thought of themselves. The researcher found that although principals tended to rate themselves higher than

teachers rated them in all ten job functions, both teachers and principals agreed on the three job functions performed most and least frequently by principals.

Teachers and principals identified, " Protecting Instructional Time," " Promoting Professional Development," and " Supervising and Evaluating Instruction," as the three job functions principals performed most frequently. Although Hallinger (1987) and Rossow (1990) warn that the frequency of performing these job functions does not guarantee effectiveness, effective schools research has shown that it is likely that engaging in these functions will improve schools. Furthermore, Goddard, Roger, Sweetland, and Hoy's (2000) study of 47 schools concluded that encouraging excellence increases effectiveness, and vice versa. Thus, principals should continue to perform these job functions frequently.

Teachers and principals agreed that "Providing Incentives to Teachers," "Maintaining High Visibility", and "Monitoring Student Progress" were the three job functions performed least frequently by principals. The researcher interprets these low ratings to mean that leadership was lacking in performing these three job functions. As discussed earlier in the literature review, Woods (1994), and Rossow (1990) described these three functions as being among the ten job functions found in leaders of Effective Schools. They are:

1) Instructional leaders who set up incentives and rewards to encourage excellence in student and teacher performance;
2) Instructional leaders who assume responsibility for student outcomes and are visible and accessible to staff, students, and community members, and
3) Instructional leaders who check student progress frequently and use results to monitor progress towards instructional goals.

For this reason, the researcher acknowledges the importance of performing these three job functions and recommends that principals examine how they can improve their

performance in these three areas. Further study might also be required to determine why these job functions do not get more attention. It is not clear whether we have a training problem or a structural problem, such as a lack of time. Each of these reasons would suggest a somewhat different remedy. Other explanations are also possible.

Effects of Demographic Variables on Perceptions

In research question two, the following variables -- teachers' participation in Effective School programs, principals' years of experience, teaching credentials, and school population-- were examined to determine whether they explained variations in scores on each of the 10 job functions. The findings of the multiple regression statistical procedure are discussed below.

Effective Schools

The regression analyses revealed that teachers' from Effective Schools tended to rate their principals higher in all ten job functions than teachers from schools without Effective School programs. These findings are consistent with Goddard, Roger, Sweetland, and Hoy's (2000) study on school improvement programs that found that schools with a strong academic emphasis influenced not only individual teacher and student behaviors, but also reinforced a pattern of collective beliefs that are good for schools. Thus, the researcher concludes that since participating in Effective School programs had a significant and positive effect on teachers' perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership abilities, future studies should examine exactly how participating in Effective School programs influences such perceptions.

Principals Years of Experience

The regression analysis also revealed that teachers tended to rate experienced principals higher in all ten job functions than they rated new or less-experienced principals. These findings are consistent with Ratchaneeladadajit's (1997) study, which found that the same demographic variable significantly affected teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership. Obviously teachers perceived that principals with more years of service are more knowledgeable about their job and are more likely to perform their instructional leadership job functions than new or less experienced principals.

Teaching Credentials and School Population

The regression analysis for research question two also revealed that teachers with higher teaching credentials tended to rate their principals lower in four out of the ten instructional leadership job functions, suggesting that teachers with higher teaching credentials may have higher expectations of their principals, or they may have been empowered to perform these instructional leadership job functions themselves. Finally, the findings revealed that teachers from schools with larger enrollments tended to rate their principals higher in their instructional leadership performance in job functions than principals from schools with smaller enrollments.

An investigation of the t- statistics revealed that the four independent variables were highly significant at the .01 alpha level, and their overall fit explained between three and nine percent of the variability on each of the ten job functions. Thus, although these four variables had a strong influence on teachers and principals' perceptions, there are

other variables not measured in this study that influence teachers' and principals' perceptions.

Perceptions on Sharing & Delegating Instructional Leadership Functions

As discussed in chapter two, Murphy (1994) and Lashway (1995) claimed that principals experienced role ambiguity as a result of the never-ending array of reform initiatives and conflicting expectations from the community. Principals were often times unsure whether to implement a top-down management style or a shared decision-making leadership style. Leithwood's (1992) study further revealed that the traditional power relationships of principals needs to be re-examined. Thus, this study's third research question examined Guam's elementary school principals' and teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions. Findings revealed that teachers' and principals' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership job functions were similar. They agreed on eight instructional leadership functions that should be "performed equally with others," and on the two job functions that should be assumed by the principal " to a major extent."

In an attempt to pinpoint and prioritize exactly which of these ten job functions needed to be addressed first, an independent samples t-test was used to compare principals' perceptions on their current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. Findings revealed that principals identified six job functions as needing greater teacher participation. Another independent samples t-test compared teachers' perceptions of their principals' current instructional leadership performance to their perceptions on sharing and delegating them. These findings revealed that teachers identified seven job functions as needing greater principal participation.

Since principals' and teachers' differed in which of these ten job functions they perceived should be the priority, the researcher concluded there was a definite need for principals and teachers to collaborate on how these 8 "shared" job functions should be performed: 1) Framing the School Goals, 2) Promoting Professional Development, 3) Protecting Instructional Time, 4) Coordinating the Curriculum, 5) Communicating the School Goals, 6) Providing Incentives for Learning, 7) Maintaining High Visibility, and 8) Monitoring Student Progress.

Effects of Variables on Perceptions in Sharing/ Delegating Job Functions

In research question four, the four demographic variables examined in this study had little or no effect on teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating instructional leadership functions. For this reason, the researcher assumes there may be other demographic variables that affect principals' and teachers' perceptions on sharing and delegating job functions, but were not examined in this study.

Conclusions

Based upon the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1) Teachers and principals are in agreement on the three job functions performed most and least frequently by principals. Since research has shown that performing these job functions may improve schools, principals should give greater attention to these three "least performed" job functions: Providing Incentives for Teaching, Maintaining High Visibility, and Monitoring Student Progress.
2) Teachers who participated in Effective School programs and who worked with senior, more experienced principals rated their principals higher in their

instructional leadership performance than teachers who did not participate in Effective School programs and whose principals were new, and less experienced. Thus, the researcher recommends that experienced principals be assigned to the larger elementary schools where their presence would affect more teachers and students, and that future studies be conducted to determine exactly how participating in Effective School programs influences such perceptions.

3) An investigation of the t- statistics revealed that the four independent variables were highly significant at the .01 alpha level and their overall fit explained between three and nine percent of the variability on each of the ten job functions. Thus, although these four variables had a strong influence on teachers and principals' perceptions on their principals' instructional leadership performance, there are clearly other variables that influence teacher' and principals perceptions.

4) Although teachers and principals agreed that these eight job functions--1) Framing the School Goals, 2) Promoting Professional Development, 3) Protecting Instructional Time, 4) Coordinating the Curriculum, 5) Communicating the School Goals, 6) Providing Incentives for Learning, 7) Maintaining High Visibility, and 8) Monitoring Student Progress-- should be " performed equally with others," teachers and principals need to collaborate on how this can effectively be done.

5) Since these four demographic variables--teachers' credentials, teachers' participation in Effective School programs, principals' years of experience and school population--had little to no effect on teachers' perceptions on sharing and

delegating instructional leadership functions, the researcher concludes that other variables may influence perceptions and should be examined in future studies.

Recommendations

Recommendations for the Guam Department of Education

Studies have shown that principals spend most of their time tending to managerial tasks, with less time spent on performing instructional leadership functions. The findings of this study -- most notably, the statistically significant differences between perceptions of what principals in Effective Schools programs and principals not involved in Effectives School programs do -- suggests that principals should be made aware of the importance of their roles as instructional leaders and as role models to teachers.

Even in the designated " effective schools," teachers consistently rated their principals lower in their instructional leadership performance, than what principals rated themselves. It is possible, that teachers may not be fully aware of all the instructional leadership functions their principals are performing, or that they are too preoccupied with their own classroom duties to give an accurate rating of their principals instructional leadership performance. This study after all, was only about perceptions. Still, since their perceptions differ in significant ways, it seems reasonable to recommend that principals and teachers discuss what their roles are as instructional leaders and collaborate on how they can best perform these instructional leadership functions.

Another recommendation that seems appropriate, in light of the discrepancy between how teachers view their principals' instructional leadership behaviors and the principals' own views is this: The Guam Department of Education (GDoE) Curriculum Division should provide updated materials and training that would enhance principals'

and teachers' instructional leadership abilities. The current resources available to teachers and principals are limited, and the topics focus on effective teaching strategies for the classroom, and not on what principals should do.

Finally, as the Guam Department of Education (GDoE) finalizes its formal evaluation system for school principals, it should examine whether the new evaluation model assesses the ten job functions found in the Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). GDoE may want to include the PIMRS as a self-assessment tool for principals.

Recommendations for Training Programs

First and foremost, principals need more incentives and staff development opportunities to enhance their credentials as principals. In GDoE, the principals' salary is not adjusted when principals upgrade their administrative credentials. Therefore, most principals do not take the initiative to pursue additional administrative and leadership training once they have completed the masters degree program in Administration and Supervision. The few principals who do continue with professional development coursework, choose to do so at their own time, and at their own expense. Current staff development opportunities for principals are sporadic and incentives are not provided.

Teachers enrolled in a education administration and supervision internship course at the University of Guam (UoG), should be mentored by senior principals who are identified as effective instructional leaders. Currently, all teachers who are enrolled in the UoG internship course fulfill their practicum requisites at the same school they are employed at-- with little to no regard given to the leadership qualities and effectiveness of

the mentoring principal. This current practice needs to be modified, since the University of Guam is committed to developing quality school administrators.

Finally, since many teachers return to the University of Guam to renew their teaching certificates, they should be required to take a leadership course which would give them the opportunity to re-assess their instructional leadership performance in the classroom and school.

Recommendations for Future Research

A similar study to examine principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership should be conducted in the middle and high schools on Guam to compare with these elementary school findings. This information could provide useful information to GDoE's central office, since they oversee education reform efforts system-wide.

In future studies, additional independent variables should be examined to determine which factors affect teachers' and principals' perceptions on instructional leadership. Some independent variables to examine may include: school budget, maintenance and safety of school facilities, availability of instructional supplies, curriculum alignment with standardized tests, students' socio-economic backgrounds, principals' communication skills, teachers' salaries, ethnicity of students and teachers, and at-risk student populations.

Finally, a comparative study should be conducted between the Department of Defense (DoDea) military schools on Guam and the Guam Department of Education (GDoE). The findings of this study could provide valuable information since many of the DoDEA teachers were former teachers from the GDoE,--yet in the last five years, DoDEA's students' test scores were much higher than GDoE's students' scores.

Concluding Remarks

This study provided new information that may help to improve instructional leadership in Guam's public elementary schools. Findings revealed that principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principals' current instructional leadership behaviors are similar in many ways. Principals and teachers are in agreement on which of the ten instructional leadership functions should be " shared," or "assumed" by the school principal. They also agree on which job functions are currently performed most frequently and which are performed least frequently.

With these commonalities in their perceptions, and clarity on what their instructional leadership roles should be, a "spirit of collaboration" could be developed among these principals and teachers. Collaboration and commitment are needed as these educators strategize on how to effectively perform these instructional leadership functions in their schools. As Vince Lombardi (former NFL coach) once said, " The achievements of an organization are the results of combined efforts of each individual."

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Appendix A

TEACHER QUESTIONAIRE
(Demographic Information)

Part I Directions: Please complete the following questions with respect to yourself and school. Put a ( ) check next to the response that best corresponds to your situation. This questionnaire will take 15-20 minutes to complete.

A. Sex: ____Male ____Female

B. Number of years teaching: _____

C. What are your teaching credentials? (check only one)
_____ Teacher I
_____ Teacher II
_____ Teacher III
_____ Teacher IV
_____ Teacher V

D. Number of students at your school:
____100-400
____401-700
____701- more

D. During school year 2001-2002, did your school participate in the Effective Schools (federally funded) program?

_____Yes _____No

If yes, what year was your school's grant approved? _____

Appendix B

PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE
(For Teachers)

	Column I	Column II
	Circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior your principal did practice during the past school year. For the response to each statement: 5 represents *Almost Always* 4 represents *Frequently* 3 represents *Sometimes* 2 represents *Seldom* 1 represents *Almost Never* Use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to each question. Please circle only one number per question. Please try to answer every question.	Circle the number that best fits the behavior that you feel your principal should practice in your school. For the response to each statement: 5 represents *The principal should perform this task alone, taking sole responsibility for performing it.* 4 represents *The principal should perform this task to a major extent, with some responsibility delegated to others for performing it.* 3 represents *The principal should perform this task equally with others.* 2 represents *The principal should perform this task to a minor extent, but others should bear the responsibility for performing it.* 1 represents *The principal should not perform this task at all.* . Use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to each question. Please circle only one number per question. Please try to answer every question.

I. FRAMING THE SCHOOL GOALS	TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Almost Never				Almost Always	TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Not perform		Perform equally		Perform alone
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATING THE SCHOOL GOALS										
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the schools academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g. posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress).	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g. assemblies or discussions).	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Almost Never				Almost Always	TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Not perform		Perform equally		Perform alone
III. SUPERVISING AND EVALUATING INSTRUCTION										
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis. (These observations are unscheduled, last at least five minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post observation feedback (e.g. in conferences or written evaluations).	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post observation feedback (e.g. in conferences or written evaluations).	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATING THE CURRICULUM										
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

	TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Almost Never				Almost Always	TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD YOUR PRINCIPAL.... Not perform				Perform alone
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participates actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITORING STUDENT PROGRESS										
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g. in a memo or newsletter.)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECTING INSTRUCTIONAL TIME										
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAINING HIGH VISIBILITY	**TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR PRINCIPAL....** **Almost Never**				**Almost Always**	**TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD YOUR PRINCIPAL....** **Not perform**			**Perform equally**	**Perform alone**
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction classes.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDING INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS										
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters and/or memos.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts and performance.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

IX. PROMOTING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT	**TO WHAT EXTENT DOES YOUR PRINCIPAL....** **Almost Never**				**Almost Always**	**TO WHAT EXTENT SHOULD YOUR PRINCIPAL....** **Not perform**		**Perform equally**		**Perform alone**
41. Ensure that in-service activities attended by the staff are consistent with the school's goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use of skills acquired during in-service training in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDING INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING										
46. Recognize students who do superior academic work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing students in the office with their work.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition of student contributions/accomplishments in class.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Summary of Criteria Used to Assess the Adequacy of the Instructional Management Rating Subscales

Subscale	Content Validity	Reliability	Discriminant Validity	Intercor-relations (Construct Validity)	Document Analysis (Construct Validity)
Frames Goals	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Communicates Goals	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Monitors Student Progress	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Supervision/Evaluation of Instruction	Yes	Yes	Mixed	Yes	Mixed
Curricular Coordination	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	------
Protects Instructional Time	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	------
Visibility	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	------
Incentives for Teachers	Yes	Mixed	Yes	Yes	------
Professional Development	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Mixed
Academic Standards	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	------
Incentives for Learning	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

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Rosie R. Tainatongo
Superintendent of Education

Nerissa Bretania-Shafer, Ph.D.
Administrator
Research, Planning & Evaluation

April 25, 2002

Mrs. Evangeline Q. San Nicolas
P. O. Box 2468
Hagatna, Guam 96932

Dear Mrs. San Nicolas:

Thank you for expressing an interest to conduct research within the Guam Department of Education. I am pleased to inform you that you are **granted approval** to conduct the study on "Instructional Leadership in Guam's Public Elementary Schools". Please note that school principals have the final say in participating in any research activity such as this request. However, given that the Panel agrees that this study will provide the Department with valuable information regarding Instructional Leadership in Guam's Public Elementary Schools, we will do our best to encourage the school principals to participate in this study. You are responsible for contacting the school principals to request approval to conduct your survey at their schools.

In writing the final report, please ensure that your completed paper contains the following statement:

"The activity, which is the subject of this report, has been authorized by the Guam Department of Education. However, the opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position of the Department, and no official endorsement by the Guam Department of Education nor the Government of Guam should be inferred. The author accepts full responsibility for the contents of this document."

Please ensure that nowhere in the final report should any specific school or administrator's name be identified. Also, provide the Department one (1) bound copy of the completed report and submit the copies to the Administrator, Research, Planning and Evaluation. The Department of Education looks forward to the successful completion of your research.

Sincerely,

NERISSA BRETANIA-SHAFER, Ph.D.
Administrator, DOE Research Review Panel

I agree to the aforementioned condition
for conducting this study.

EVANGELINE Q. SAN NICOLAS

Date: 4/26/02