

9-10-2015

Assessing instructional leadership in rural New Mexico: An exploration of the reliability and validity of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

Christiana Sisneros

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Assessing instructional leadership in rural New Mexico: An exploration of the reliability and
validity of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

by

Christiana M. Sisneros

B.A., Business Education, College of Santa Fe, 1990
M. Ed., Education Administration, New Mexico State University, 1996

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Educational Leadership

The University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico

Dedication

To my children

David J. and Kristen M. Sisneros,

you have made me stronger,

better and more

fulfilled than I could ever imagine.

I love you to infinity and beyond.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful for many individuals who have assisted me in this five-year journey. I wish to acknowledge and sincerely thank:

- My dissertation chairperson, Dr. Allison Borden – for her faith, kindness, guidance, and constant encouragement. I love you more than you will ever know.
- My dissertation committee members – Dr. Arlie Woodrum, Dr. Sheri Williams, and Dr. David Bower.
- My UNM professors – in particular, Dr. Allison Borden, Dr. David Bower, Dr. Rick Kitchen, Dr. Peter Winograd, and Dr. Arlie Woodrum.
- My friends, cohort members, and fellow Norteñas who took this journey with me, Monica Archuleta, Carol Brown, Myra Maestas, and Vivian Valencia. Puro Amor.

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Abstract

This study examined the validity and reliability of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS; Hallinger, 1985) for use among teachers in a rural school district. The problem addressed by this study was the need for a well-substantiated tool, which demonstrated reliable and valid assessments of principal leadership skills among elementary and secondary teachers. Measuring principal leadership behaviors is valuable and necessary for the on-going study of the phenomenon of effective school leadership.

This was a study involving one rural, northern New Mexico school district, with an enrollment of approximately 4,000 students and a teacher population of 214. The survey was administered at a teacher staff meeting by the researcher and a research assistant. The participants were assured the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses and their ability to terminate participation at any time and for any reason without repercussion.

The sample consisted of five elementary principals and 162 elementary and secondary teachers in a northern New Mexico school district. Descriptive statistics were calculated and correlation coefficients were estimated to analyze and examine the degree to which relationships existed between the teacher and principal demographics and the instructional leadership behaviors of principals. Results indicate a statistically significant relationship between the number of years the teacher has worked with the current principal and 9 out of 10 instructional behavior subcategories. There was also a statistically significant relationship between the years of experience teachers had and the teachers' perception of the principals' instructional behaviors in coordinating curriculum, monitoring student progress, and providing incentives for teachers and students.

In this study, I tested reliability by estimating Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient. Eight of the 10 functional subscales fell in the *excellent* range and two in the *good* range (George & Mallery, 2003). In Hallinger's (1983) original study, three of the 10 functional subscales fell in the *excellent* range and seven in the *good* range. I assessed construct validity

and instrument validation by estimating the analysis of variance of each of the subscales. The results indicate a statistically significantly higher variation in the ratings by teachers between schools than within schools. Statistical significance exceeds the standard of .01 for nine of the 10 subscales. This suggests that the PIMRS possesses a high degree of construct validity based on the responses from the participants in this study. The results are similar to the findings from other studies (Hallinger, 1983; Hallinger, Taraseina, & Miller, 1994).

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Setting for the study

Rio Arriba County, established in 1852, was one of the nine original counties of the New Mexico Territory. It is located in central northern New Mexico, bordering southern Colorado (Torrez & Trapp, 2010; Viva New Mexico, 2014; Wroth, 2014). "Rio Arriba" means Upper River; the county is so named because the Rio Grande runs through it. Under Mexican rule established in 1821, New Mexico was divided into two territories, Rio Arriba and Rio Abajo, the "Lower River," comprising everything south of Santa Fe (Torrez, 2010).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the county has a total area of 5,896 square miles of which 5,858 square miles is land and 38 square miles is water (United States Census Bureau, 2014). The total Rio Arriba County population in 2010 was 40,246, which had dropped 2.29% since 2000 (United States Census Bureau, 2014).

In 2010, Rio Arriba County had 6.8% of its population under the age of five, and 24.1% under the age of 18. According to the US Census, Rio Arriba county had 71.3% of its population identified as Hispanic, 16.05% identified as Native American, 13.3% White, and 3.5% Other. Sixty-two percent of the persons asked reported they sometimes or always spoke a language other than English in the home (United States Census Bureau, 2014).

Within Rio Arriba County, 21% of the inhabitants have less than a high school education, 30% have graduated from high school, and 32% have some college or an associate's degree. Slightly more than 9% have a bachelor's degree and 6.7% have a degree above a bachelor's degree. Approximately 19% of the population lives in poverty (United States Census Bureau, 2014).

There are six school districts in Rio Arriba County. The largest school district is Española Public Schools with 4,000 students and 280 teachers; the smallest school district is Jemez Mountain Schools with 316 students and 30 teachers. The remaining four districts each

have fewer than 1,000 students enrolled in their schools and have between 25-65 teacher employees. In Rio Arriba County, the educational services, health care, and social services are the largest employers, with 23% of the population employed in these areas.

There are 37 communities, villages, and towns in Rio Arriba. The largest town is Española.

History of Rio Arriba County

The history of Rio Arriba County dates back to 1823, originally known as Villa de Santa Cruz de la Cañada. Villa de Santa Cruz de la Cañada was one of four districts created by the territorial council (Torrez & Trapp, 2010). In 1844, New Mexico reorganized into three regions designated as the northern, central and southern districts. The northern district consisted of Rio Arriba and Taos (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

In 1846, New Mexico was occupied by the American Army of the West led by General Kearny. In August 1846, Kearny's forces of about 1,600 soldiers seized control of Santa Fe and organized a new civilian government for New Mexico, promising a democratic administration (PBS, 2014). The new political organization for New Mexico was known as the "Kearny Code" (New Mexico Compilation Commission, 2014). This new law organized local government and district courts around seven districts: Santa Fe, San Miguel del Bado, Rio Arriba, Taos, Santa Ana, Bernalillo, and Valencia. Socorro and Dona Ana were later added to complete the nine New Mexico Territory counties (Figure 1) (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

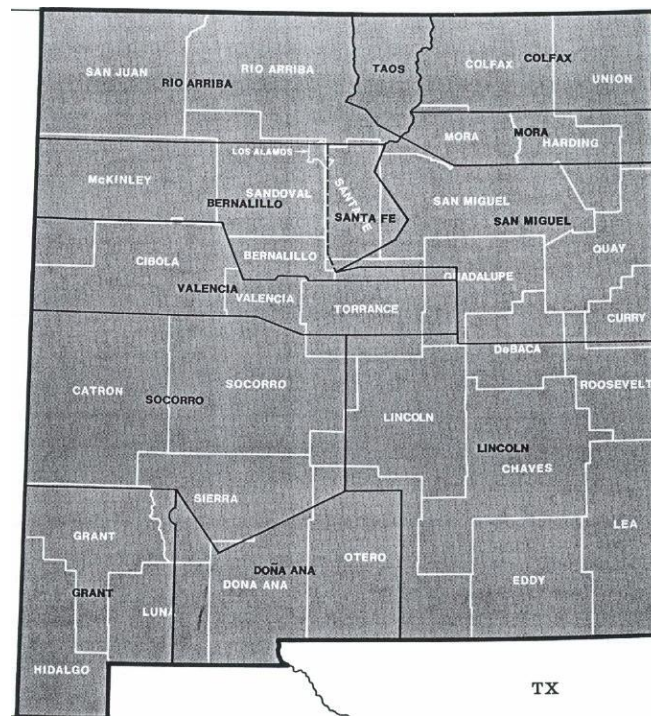


Figure 2. Map of New Mexico, 1880 Reorganization of Rio Arriba and Taos County Boundaries (Peralta & Hayes, 2014).

Native Americans in Rio Arriba

Long before Rio Arriba was formed, Native Americans traveled along the Rio Grande and its principal tributary, the Rio Chama. As far back as the fourteenth century, small villages sprung up along the Rio Chama, El Rito Creek, the Ojo Caliente, Abiquiú, Cañones and the Rio Oso (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

The Tewa People-Ohkay Owingeh and Santa Clara

The Tewa people, also known as Pueblo Indians, lived along the Rio Grande. The Tewa People comprise Nambé, Pojoaque, San Ildefonso, Ohkay Owingeh, Santa Clara, and Tesuque Pueblos. Ohkay Owingeh and Santa Clara are located in Rio Arriba County (Rio Arriba County, 2011; Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

Ohkay Owingeh is a pueblo located in Rio Arriba County; the Tewa name of the pueblo means “place of the strong people.” Juan de Oñate arrived with his colonization expedition in 1598 and settled in Ohkay Owingeh, renaming it San Juan de Los Caballeros

and establishing what is considered the first European capital of New Mexico (Rio Arriba County, 2011; Torrez & Trapp, 2010; Wroth, 2014).

Oñate's main purpose in colonizing New Mexico was to discover gold and silver mines, but he soon realized there was nothing of value and returned to Mexico in 1607 (Riley, 1995; Wroth, 2014). By 1675, after years of suffering under Spanish rule, discontent among the Pueblo peoples came to a head when 47 Pueblo religious leaders were jailed, among those leaders was a medicine man name Popé, who was born and raised in San Juan Pueblo. After his capture and release he moved to Taos, where he established his base of operations and went on to plot with confederates to drive Hispanic settlers out of New Mexico (Aragón, 2006; Riley, 1995; Torrez & Trapp, 2010; Wroth, 2014).

From 1680-1692, Popé and his followers set out to remove all signs of the Spanish, beginning with the churches. Church records and crosses in the cemeteries were burned and Indians who had converted to Catholicism had to wash off the effects of baptism. Popé insisted on doing away with everything introduced by the Spanish, except for paying taxes. Popé and his men collected food, blankets, and other supplies as forms of taxes (Burke, 1973). In 1685, Popé lost power and was replaced by his lieutenant. He regained his position in 1688, dying a year later (Burke, 1973).

In the eighteenth century, Spanish authority adopted a much more lenient attitude, no longer forcing Pueblo people into labor, or suppressing religious rites (Ortiz, 1979). In December of 2005, the tribal council formally changed the name from San Juan Pueblo back to Ohkay Owingeh (Torrez & Trapp, 2010; Wroth 2014).

Santa Clara Pueblo was established around 1550 and is located in southern Rio Arriba County; the traditional name is Kha'p'oo Owinge (Indian Pueblo Cultural Center, 2014). Santa Clara Pueblo is famous for its handcrafted and elaborately rendered red and black pottery (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

The Athabaskan Peoples

The Athabaskans (Apachean) constitute various Apache groups that became known as Navajo. Scholars (Ortiz, 1979; Riley, 1995; Torrez & Trapp, 2010) suggest that the Athabaskans were partially responsible for the abandonment of the Anasazi cultural region around the Four Corners.

The Jicarilla, named “little basket” for the baskets they wove, are one of the six major Athabaskan groups that migrated out of Canada to the southwest, emerging during the 1600s, after the Spanish arrived in New Mexico (Jicarilla Apache Nation, 2014; Torrez & Trapp, 2010). The Jicarilla are organized into two bands that occupied and lived in the diverse plains or mountain regions; they are the Llaneros, or the plains people, who lived in the plains of northeast New Mexico, and the Olleros, or the mountain-valley people, who migrated annually to the Rio Grande Valley (Jicarilla Apache Nation, 2014; Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

During the 1850s, the United States government tried to negotiate several treaties with the Jicarilla in an attempt to establish a reservation. The U.S. Congress never approved the treaty. Open warfare with the Jicarilla broke out in 1854 because of their raids on settlements and stealing of livestock (University of Michigan, 2014).

During the eighteenth century, Spanish authorities had an ally in the Jicarilla because they both had a common enemy in the Comanche. The Spanish recruited the Jicarilla in military action against the Comanche. In 1779 Governor Juan Bautista de Anza and his troops along with 200 Jicarilla, Ute, and Pueblo defeated the Comanche (Tiller, 1983; Worth, 2014).

In 1874, the Jicarilla entered into a treaty with the United States government that created a reservation for them along the San Juan River, which was later rescinded by President Hayes who ordered the Jicarilla to move to the Mescalero reservation in southern New Mexico. The Jicarilla ignored the order and stayed in northern New Mexico (Tiller, 1983; Torrez & Trapp, 2010). It was not until 1887 that President Cleveland issued an

Executive Order making Dulce the permanent home of the Jicarilla Apache (Tiller, 1983; Torrez & Trapp, 2010; Worth, 2014).

Today the Jicarilla Apache Reservation covers 850,000 acres along the western border of Rio Arriba County and was incorporated officially as the Jicarilla Apache Nation in 1937 under the Indian Reorganization Act of 1934 (Jicarilla Apache Nation, 2014). The tribe has negotiated oil and gas leases, managed timber and livestock resources, developed an elk preserve widely known for its trophy hunting and operated a casino (Jicarilla Apache Nation, 2014; Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

Western Religion in Rio Arriba

Spanish explorers came to New Mexico for three things: glory, gold, and God (Archdiocese of Santa Fe, 2014a; Wroth, 2014). The Pueblo and Navajo Indians practiced the first Western religions in New Mexico. Franciscan missionaries arrived at the time of Coronado's conquest in 1540, and the first Roman Catholic Church in the state was built in 1598. Roman Catholicism has long been the dominant religion, though from the mid-1800s there has also been a steady increase in the number of Protestants. The first Baptist missionaries arrived in 1849, the Methodists in 1850, and the Mormons in 1877 (Ortiz & Reichelt, 2014; Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

Jewish history in New Mexico started centuries ago when New Mexico was still a territory. Fleeing the Inquisition, a number of Jewish colonists settled in New Mexico in the 17th and 18th centuries. Many Jews converted to Catholicism under pressure, privately holding on to Jewish practices and rituals such as the Sabbath and candle lighting (New Mexico Jewish Historical Society, 2014; Ortiz & Reichelt, 2014).

The Fraternidad Piadosa de los Hermanos de Nuestro Padre Jesús Nazareno

The *Penitente* brotherhood was central to village life in Rio Arriba. The *Fraternidad Piadosa de los Hermanos de Nuestro Padre Jesús Nazareno* is a confraternity of Spanish-American men from northern New Mexico, Tomé, and southern Colorado. This group was

devoted to providing aid and community charity, the spirit of penance, and the Passion of Jesus Christ (Brown, 1978). Each year during Lent, the *Penitentes* re-enact the Passion of the Savior through the use of art, song, and atonement (Tate, 1968).

Penitential activities were introduced into New Mexico with the arrival of Don Juan de Oñate and his colonists in 1598 (Aragón, 2006). During the Great Pueblo Rebellion in 1680, churches and sacred images were destroyed. A small group of Spaniards survived and made their way to El Paso del Norte, taking with them the image of *Nuestra Señora del Rosario* (Our Lady of the Rosary, Our Lady of the Conquest) (Burke, 1973). *Penitentes* carried out many religious functions themselves because of the scarcity of priests for most of the 17th and 18th centuries (Aragón, 2006). Bishop José Antonio de Zubiria visited northern New Mexico in 1833. He condemned the *Penitentes* and their activities (Aragón, 2006; Ortiz & Reichelt, 2014). In 1845, Bishop Zubiria returned to New Mexico, again admonishing the *Penitentes*, forcing the *Penitentes* to become more secretive (Aragón, 2006; Ortiz & Reichelt, 2014). In 1851, Jean Baptiste Lamy was appointed the first American Bishop of New Mexico. He also condemned the *Penitentes* (Horgan, 1975).

Santuario do Chimayó

Each year, thousands of people journey to a small adobe church in Chimayó, New Mexico, especially during Holy Week, the week leading up to Easter Sunday. They come in search of spiritual or physical healing. Pilgrims walk from near and far, some are barefoot, some carrying crosses. Some walk as an expression of their culture and beliefs, some walk to give thanks for answered prayers, and some walk to pray for divine intercession, healing for themselves or their loved ones (Archdiocese of Santa Fe, 2014b). They believe the church was built on ground that possesses healing powers (Holy Family of Chimayo, 2014). The land where the Santuario now stands belonged to Don Bernardo Abeyta, one of the first members of *Los Hermanos de la Fraternidad Piadosa de Nuestro Padre Jesús Nazarena* (the *Penitentes*) in the area (Carrillo, 1999).

Formal Education in Rio Arriba

Formal education in New Mexico dates back to as early as 1524, when schools were established to teach Latin, music, and academic subjects to native youth (Torrez & Trapp, 2010). The Royal and Pontifical University of Mexico were established in 1551. In 1630, Franciscan Friars were in charge of educating the Spanish and Indians to read and write and educate them in “acts of civilized society” (Torrez & Trapp, 2010, p. 192). In 1721, free public schools were established in the Pueblos and in all the Spanish settlements by order of the King of Spain, and they were to be run by the Franciscans (Hallenbeck, 1950). Pueblos and Spanish settlements during this period included Socorro, Sevilleta, Santa Fe, San Juan, Taos, Santa Cruz de la Cañada, Zuni, Laguna, and Sandia (Jenkins & Shroeder, 1974). By the nineteenth century, there was little evidence of public schooling in New Mexico (Moyer, 1941).

In 1822, the territorial council issued new regulations for schools. Town councils developed their own procedures to recruit, hire, and pay public school teachers and made it a criminal offense for parents to keep their children from attending school (Mondragón & Stapleton, 2005). By 1827, there were nineteen schools located in Santa Fe, Cochiti, San Juan, Zia, Sandia, Alameda, Albuquerque, Vado, Tomé, Belén, Santa Cruz de La Cañada, Laguna, Abiquiú, and San Miguel (Mondragón & Stapleton, 2005). A lack of funding limited the success of free public schooling and the neglect continued throughout the American territorial period and into the early stages of statehood (Mondragón & Stapleton, 2005; Torrez & Trapp, 2010). Only one public school, located in Santa Fe, was reported in 1846 (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

In 1856, the territorial legislature called for an election to approve the statute for free public schooling in four counties: Taos, Rio Arriba, Santa Ana, and Socorro. All four counties voted against the bill (Torrez & Trapp, 2010). In 1860, the territorial legislature passed “An Act Providing Means for the Education of Children” (Mondragon & Stapleton, 2005, p. 19),

placing the local Justice of the Peace in charge of appointing a person from each community to teach children. The law made attendance at school mandatory and threatened parents with fines if they failed to comply (Mondragón & Stapleton, 2005). Under this law, children could be exempt from attending if they were being home schooled, or if the father decided that he needed to employ the children (Torrez & Trapp, 2010).

In 1872, a law was passed to establish a board of supervisors and directors for public schools in each county. Rio Arriba County, under this system, had seventeen public schools with a total of 270 students (Gallegos, 1992). In 1884, the legislature revised the public school law and established the position of school superintendent for each county (Gallegos, 1992; Torrez & Trapp, 2010). In 1891, the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Rio Arriba County reported that there were thirty-six schools with a total enrollment of 1,786 students.

Española Valley

Española was founded in 1880 as a railroad village and incorporated as a city in 1925 (City of Espanola, 2014). Española Valley is in two counties, Rio Arriba and Santa Fe (Torrez & Trapp, 2010). The town of Española is located on the west side of the Rio Grande River, surrounded by ten other communities. These communities are: Santa Cruz, Sombrillo, San Pedro, Riverside, Santo Nino, Fairview, Ranchitos, El Llano, Corral de Piedra and La Angostura (Torrez & Trapp, 2010). Española has a population of 10,224. Española is made up of 85% Hispanics, 1.9% Native Americans, 9.5% White, 0.7% African American, 1.2% Asian and 1.7% Other. Nearly 4,700 families reside in the city (United States Census Bureau, 2014).

Española Public Schools

The Española Public School District serves students in Española, Chimayó, Santa Cruz, Sombrillo, Alcadé, Velardé, Dixon, Abiquiú, Hernandez, Cordova, Truchas, and the Ohkay Owingeh and Santa Clara Pueblos.

The school district has 3,809 students enrolled in grades K-12 with the following demographics: 88% Hispanic, 6% Native American, 5% Anglo, <1% Asian, <1% African American, 19% English Language Learners (ELL), 14% Special Education (SPED) and 97% socio-economically disadvantaged (SED) (see Table 1).

Table 1

Student Demographics of Española Public Schools

School	Total Enrollment	Hispanic	Native American	Anglo	Asian	Black	FRL	SPED
Elem 1	121	96%	1%	2%	-	-	100%	14%
Elem 2	167	99%	-	<1%	-	-	100%	16%
Elem 3	146	97%	1%	1%	-	<1%	100%	18%
Elem 4	71	74%	1%	24%	-	1%	100%	20%
Elem 5	323	91%	2%	7%	<1%	-	100%	16%
Elem 6	153	95%	1%	3%	<1%	<1%	100%	8%
Elem 7	432	85%	6%	6%	3%	<1%	100%	17%
Elem 8	398	73%	24%	3%	-	-	100%	14%
Elem 9	294	94%	1%	3%	1%	<1%	100%	13%
Elem 10	82	96%	-	4%	-	-	100%	11%
Mid Sch.	526	90%	5%	4%	1%	-	100%	12%
High Sch.	961	87%	5%	6%	1%	<1%	57%	12%
Total/Average	3,809	88%	6%	5%	<1%	<1%	96%	14%

The eleven elementary schools are located in different geographical areas of the school district, so the demographics for each school vary slightly from the overall district demographics as shown in Table 1. Total enrollments at the 11 elementary schools range from a school with only 67 students to one with 398 students. The district has one middle school with an enrollment of 526 students and one high school with 961 students; both are located within the city of Española. Two elementary schools shared the same principal and one elementary school had a head teacher who was not eligible to participate in the study.

Statement of the Problem

Measuring the behaviors of school leaders is valuable and necessary for the on-going study of effective school reform. There is a gap in the literature; however, as there are limited studies conducted in small or rural school communities.

Challenges

During the past seven years the district experienced notable changes in school leadership:

- The district has experienced extensive turnover in superintendents. Between school years 2007 and 2012 the school district had five different superintendents. Superintendent mobility averaged 67%. I calculated this percentage based on the number of superintendents the district has had in the past 10 years. This led to instability at the district level in terms of monitoring program implementation and implementation of goals and objectives, as many of the incoming superintendents did not have adequate knowledge of the goals and objectives of reforms such as the implementation of the mathematics and reading curriculums.
- Equally, school sites have also experienced turnover, with each school averaging four principals in the school years between 2007 and 2012. In those five years, one school site has had as many as seven principals. Three schools have had five principals. Four schools have had four principals and three have had three principals. Principal mobility averaged 75% throughout the seven-year cycle. I calculated principal mobility based on the turnover of principals at each school site over a seven-year cycle. This led to instability at the school site level in terms of monitoring program implementation and implementation of goals and objectives, as many of the incoming administrators did not have adequate knowledge of the goals and objectives of reforms such as the implementation of the mathematics and reading curriculums.

Although not formally measured, based on my experience in and knowledge of the district, teacher mobility between schools and grade levels was also high. This has had much of the same effect as administrative mobility. High rates of teacher mobility can have a negative impact on student achievement (Grissom, 2009). Schools serving low income and minority students are often the ones hurt most by teacher turnover (Barnes, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to further add to the discussion on effective schools and effective school leadership. The study examines the validity and reliability of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, Murphy, Well, & Mesa, 1983) based on the responses from teachers and principals in a small school district in New Mexico. Although the PIMRS has been normed in larger districts, its use for research with rural school districts has been limited. Through this study, I sought to determine if the PIMRS could be a useful tool to measure principal leadership behaviors in a northern New Mexico, rural, predominantly Hispanic-serving school district. It is important to note that the PIMRS does not measure an administrator's effectiveness. Rather, it assesses the degree to which a principal is providing instructional leadership in his/her school as perceived by the teachers and according to the principal's self-assessment (Hallinger, 2013).

I was not looking at superintendent practices or the perceptions of superintendents of principals' instructional leadership behaviors. In their review of the literature on policies and practices of principal evaluation, Davis, Kearney, Sanders, Thomas, & Leon (2011) cited McInerney and Fletcher's (1995) study of Indiana public school district superintendents, which found differences between what superintendents valued and the content of the actual principal evaluation frameworks: "Perceptions regarding the purposes, processes, and outcomes of evaluation often vary between principals and superintendents" (p. 13).

Research Hypotheses

This research concerning the reliability and validity of the PIMRS tested the following hypotheses:

1. There is no difference in the measures of internal consistency yielded from this study when compared with the measures yielded from previous research.
2. The PIMRS is not a valid measure of rural teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional behaviors.

Research Questions

This study was guided by these two research questions:

1. Based on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), how do teachers in the Española Public Schools perceive the instructional management of their principals?
2. To what extent is the PIMRS reliable and valid when administered to a sample of teachers and principals from a rural, northern New Mexico, predominantly Hispanic-serving school district?

Significance of the Study

The findings from this study will inform the current body of research regarding measurement of principals' instructional management strategies as perceived by teachers and as assessed by the principals themselves. If the PIMRS is a valid and reliable tool, the information collected via this instrument could assist district leaders and policy makers in improving instructional management behaviors and strategies among principals as perceived by teachers and in response to the principals' self-assessments. This information will be useful for practitioners who have a need for reliable measures of principal instructional leadership in small and rural districts.

Limitations

As is the case with all research, this study had limitations. The first limitation was the inclusion of only one district in the study. The district is a small one, with 11 elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school, and therefore the findings cannot be generalized to other geographic regions with similar demographic characteristics.

The second limitation was that two of the 11 elementary schools were not included in the study because the schools did not have a certified principal, but rather a lead teacher.

Overview of the Study

The design of this study includes the framework set out by Hallinger (1983), where a questionnaire was distributed to teachers and the results were used to conduct a reliability and validity study. A questionnaire was disseminated to all kindergarten to twelve grade teachers and the principals of each school in the district. The instrument, developed by Hallinger (1983), is known as the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). The teachers were asked to rate their principals and principals were asked to rate themselves on ten categories of instructional management where each category has five different questions. The results were aggregated to assign an average category score for principals at each level (elementary and secondary). This resulted in profiles of principal instructional management as perceived by the teachers.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this research study was to examine the validity and reliability of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). This chapter includes a review of the literature of the historical and current perspectives in the area of leadership. The intent of this literature review is to present an introduction, analyze the existing literature, conclude with a summary, and state the specific research questions and hypotheses developed from the review and that were examined in this study.

Title Searches, Articles, Research Documents, and Journals Researched

The intent of the literature review for this study was to examine the principal's leadership practices and how they are related to student success. I conducted an extensive exploration of peer-reviewed articles, expanded title searches, research documents from professional journals located on ProQuest, EBSCO, and other electronic library portals. The database searches included key terms or phrases such as: No Child Left Behind, school leadership, effective school leadership, Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale, transformational leadership, rural education, and school accountability.

Educational Leadership

The concept and definition of leadership have been a matter of discussion among scholars for years. Defining leadership is difficult because it involves a multitude of follower interactions, which take place in many different types of organizations and environments (Leithwood & Duke, 1999). Leadership is based on organizational improvement (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Hopkins, & Harris, 2006; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005), setting direction within the organization (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999; Leithwood et al., 2006; Yukl, 2006), and the importance of leader influence (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood & Duke, 1999; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999a; Leithwood et al., 2006; Yukl, 2006). Yukl (2006) defined leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree

about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8).

A growing body of research evidence indicates that school principals and the decisions they make at the school level are critical to raising student achievement (Leithwood, 2004). Principals need to have an understanding of instructional practices that contribute to student academic success and the capacity to work with school staff to implement these practices (Hoachlander, Alt, & Beltranena, 2001). The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (Public Law 107-110, 2002) made principals accountable for student success, demanding principals have knowledge and skills that had not been expected of principals in the past (Heck & Hallinger, 1999; Hoachlander, Alt, & Beltranena, 2001).

Instructional leadership models began to emerge in the late 1970s into the early 1980s via the effective schools research, which identified strong, directive leadership focused on curriculum and instruction from the principal as an effective characteristic (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). Leadership can be described by two core functions, providing direction and exercising influence (Leithwood & Louis, 2012). Leadership is about organizational improvement, establishing direction and doing whatever it takes to support people to move in that direction (Leithwood & Louis, 2012). The school principal plays a central role in education and is seen as a building manager, administrator, politician, change agent, and instructional leader (Wood, Finch, & Mirecki, 2013).

Two of the most common models are instructional leadership and transformational leadership (Heck & Hallinger, 1999); these two models focus on how administrators and teachers improve teaching and learning (Stewart, 2006).

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leaders focus on school goals, the curriculum, instruction and the school environment (Stewart, 2006). Hallinger’s (2003) most frequently used conceptualization of instructional leadership proposes three dimensions: defining the school’s mission, managing

the instructional program, and promoting a positive school learning climate. Effective instructional leaders are involved in curricular and instructional issues that directly affect student achievement (Cotton, 2000). School leaders have an effect on student learning through the teachers they hire, how they assign those teachers to classrooms, how they retain teachers, and how they create opportunities for teachers to improve (Hrongs & Loeb, 2010). The principal who is an instructional leader becomes the primary source of educational expertise in the building (Hallinger, 1992; Marks & Printy, 2003). The principal is responsible for managing the school and improving the teaching and learning in the building (Leithwood, 1994). The principal leads the faculty toward attainment of the goals as a means to school improvement.

The Center for Educational Leadership (2014) included four dimensions of instructional leadership in its framework: 1) vision, mission, and culture building; 2) improvement of instructional practice; 3) allocation of resources; and 4) management of people and processes. The framework is supported by five core beliefs:

1. Instructional leadership is learning-focused, learning for both students and adults, measured by improvement in instruction and in the quality of student learning.
2. Instructional leadership must reside with a team of leaders of which the principal serves as the “leader of leaders.”
3. A culture of public practice and reflective practices is essential for effective instructional leadership and improvement of instructional practices.
4. Instructional leadership addresses the cultural, linguistic, socio-economic and learning diversity in the school community.
5. Instructional leadership focuses upon the effective management of resources and of people – recruiting, hiring, developing, evaluating – particularly in changing environments. (Center for Educational Leadership, 2014, para. 5)

Instructional leaders are “strong, directive leaders” whose “unitary role” (Hallinger, 2003, p. 335) is coordinating, controlling, supervising, and developing curriculum and instruction in the school (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). Instructional leaders operate from a combination of expertise and charisma, are goal oriented, focusing on the improvement of students’ academic outcomes, are viewed as culture builders, and foster high expectations and standards for teachers and students (Cuban, 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Purkey & Smith, 1983).

Instructional leadership has been characterized by some scholars as a directive and top-down approach to school leadership (Barth, 1990; Day, Harris, Hadfield, 2001; Hallinger, 1992; Marks & Printy, 2003), “with an emphasis on coordinating and controlling others to move towards goals that may have been set at the top of the organization” (Hallinger, 2003, p. 343). Another flaw in instructional leadership is that, sometimes, great leaders are not great classroom teachers (Liontos, 1992) and yet instructional leaders must have a solid grounding in teaching and learning (Liontos, 1992).

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) first proposed the concept of transformational leadership in his seminal work entitled *Leadership*. Burns studied transformational leadership in relation to political and business leaders and army officers (1978). Leithwood and his colleagues extended the study of transformational leadership into the field of education (Stewart, 2006).

Transformational leadership focuses on developing the organization’s capacity to innovate (Hallinger, 2003). Transformational leaders seek to build the organization’s capacity to select its purposes and to support the development of changes in the practices of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003). Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (1998) argued that transformational leadership moves schools beyond first-order, surface changes to second-order, deeper transformations that alter pedagogy, curriculum and assessment.

Transformational leaders develop a shared vision and build goal consensus, hold high performance expectations for teachers and students (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1998; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Duke, 2006). Transformational leaders provide support, acting as mentors or coaches to staff, and support teacher professional development. They provide intellectual stimulation by challenging staff assumptions, and encouraging their creativity (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1998; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, 2006; Leithwood et al., 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Transactional leaders help staff members evaluate their practices, refine them, and carry out their tasks more effectively while transformational leaders model valued behaviors, beliefs, and values. They strengthen the culture of the school, promoting an atmosphere of caring and trust. Leaders build structures to enable collaboration. They engage parents and the wider community and focus on instructional development (Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1998; Leithwood et al., 1999; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, 2006; Leithwood et al., 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

Transformational leadership creates commitment, motivation, and empowerment in individuals. The growth of organizational members transforms both the follower and the leader as they work together to improve the organization (Burns, 1978).

Scholars have reached varied conclusions on the impact of transformational leadership on student achievement, including many scholars who have found no relationship between transformational leadership and student achievement (Griffith, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003). Some scholars found weak effects (Barnett & McCormick, 2004). Leithwood and Jantzi (2005), in a review of research studies, found mixed results between transformational leadership and student achievement. Leithwood et al. (2006) found that there were combined direct and indirect effects of transformational leadership on student achievement; the effects were small but educationally significant. Leithwood and his

colleagues found three overarching categories of transformational leadership that had a positive effect on student achievement: setting direction, developing people, and redesigning the organization (Leithwood et al., 2006).

Educational Leaders and Student Achievement

Over the past two decades, there has been significant research on the principalship that indicates that school leaders affect student achievement indirectly through their influence on the school organization and instructional quality (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Smylie & Hart, 1999). Strong administrative leadership was among the factors of school effectiveness that made a difference in student learning (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979). Only within the last two decades has empirical research begun to develop links between patterns of successful leadership practices and the school's capacity to improve student learning (Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Leithwood, Gu, & Brown, 2010; Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2010; Murphy & Meyers, 2008).

Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis (1996) examined the relationship between principal leadership and student achievement in reading using a structural equation model, finding that it was possible to detect the indirect effects of principal leadership on student achievement. Hallinger and Heck (1998) reviewed 43 studies that were conducted between 1980 and 1995 that examined the relationship between the principal leadership and student achievement. In their analysis they organized the studies into three categories:

1. Direct-effect of the principal leadership on student achievement. This involves examining the relationship between the principal leadership (e.g. attitude, behavior, decision-making skills) and student learning without variables (p. 20).
2. Mediated effect of the principal leadership on student achievement through intervening variables. This is the effect of the principal leadership (e.g. high visibility, instructional supervision, and modeling of expectations) that will occur indirectly through the

principal's efforts to influence those who come into more frequent direct contact with the students (Pitner, 1988).

3. Reciprocal effects where the relationships between leadership efforts and school and environmental factors are interactive. This approach suggests mediating processes and school outcomes as affecting principal leadership, as well as leadership affecting those same processes and outcomes (p. 29).

Hallinger and Heck (1998) saw little evidence of direct effects and few examples of reciprocal effects, with most evidence pointing to indirect effects, concluding that principals have a measurable, but indirect, effect on school effectiveness and student achievement.

Studies repeatedly find a principal's ability to identify and articulate a vision and having high expectations leads to increased student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1999). Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) conducted a meta-analysis examining the effects of leadership practices on student achievement. They analyzed 70 studies conducted over a 30-year period and identified 21 leadership responsibilities that are associated with student achievement (p. 3). Eleven of the 21 leadership responsibilities have a statistically significant relationship with second-order change (Waters & Cameron, 2007).

Second order change can be defined as dramatic and more intense than incremental or first order change (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). First order change refers to an extension from past practices and focuses on doing a better job at what is already being done. Second order change is related to complex change that "alters the system in fundamental ways, offering a dramatic shift in direction, requiring new ways of thinking and acting" (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 66). Table 2 outlines the eleven principal responsibilities correlated with student achievement and second order change. Seven of the 11 had a positive correlation with second order change (Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment; Flexibility; Change Agent; Ideals and Beliefs; Monitor and Evaluate; Intellectual Stimulation;

and Optimize) and four had a negative correlation with second order change (Culture, Communication, Input, Order).

Table 2

Responsibilities Correlated with Second-order Change (Waters & Cameron, 2007, p. 4)

Responsibilities	Associated practices
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is knowledgeable about instructional practices. • Is knowledgeable about assessment practices. • Provides conceptual guidance for teachers regarding effective classroom practices.
Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is comfortable with major changes in how things are done. • Encourages people to express opinions contrary to those with authority. • Adapts leadership style to needs of specific situations. • Can be directive or non-directive as the situation warrants.
Change Agent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consciously challenges the status quo. • Is comfortable with leading change initiatives with uncertain outcomes. • Systematically considers new and better ways of doing things.
Ideals and Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Holds strong professional beliefs about schools, teaching, and learning. • Shares beliefs about schools, teaching, and learning with the staff. • Demonstrates behaviors that we are consistent with beliefs.
Monitor and Evaluate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitors and evaluates the effectiveness of curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

Table 2 (continued)

Intellectual Stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Keeps informed about current research and theory regarding effective schooling.• Continually exposes the staff to cutting-edge ideas about how to be effective.• Systematically engage staff in discussion about current research and theory.• Continually involves the staff in reading articles and books about effective practice.
Optimize	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Inspires teachers to accomplish things that might seem beyond their grasps.• Portrays a positive attitude about the ability of the staff to accomplish substantial things.• Is a driving force behind major initiatives.
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Promotes cooperation among staff.• Promotes a sense of well-being.• Promotes cohesion among staff.• Develops an understanding of purpose.• Develops a shared vision of what the school could be like.
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Is easily accessible to teachers.• Develops effective means for teachers to communicate with one another.• Maintains open and effective lines of communication with staff.
Input	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provides opportunity for input on all, important decisions.• Provides opportunities for all staff to be involved in developing school policies.• Uses leadership team in decision-making.
Order	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provides and enforces clear structure, rules, and procedures for students.• Provides and enforces clear structures, rules, and procedures with staff.• Establishes routines regarding the running of the school that staff understand and follow.

Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, and Wahlstrom (2004) suggested that successful leadership could play a significant role in improving student learning. Through a synthesis of both quantitative and qualitative studies, they concluded that school leadership “is second only to teaching among school-related factors in its impact on student learning” and “effects are usually largest where and when they are needed the most” (p. 5). Without a powerful leader, troubled schools are unlikely to be turned around. The authors stressed, “many other factors may contribute to such turnarounds, but leadership is the catalyst” (p. 7).

The Wallace Foundation (2006) highlighted the connection between achievement and instructional leadership: “Behind excellent teaching and excellent school is excellent leadership—the kind that ensures that effective teaching practices don’t remain isolated and unshared...the importance of having such a leader in every school is greater than ever” (p. 3).

In Table 3, I display the similarities and differences among selected frameworks for examining and understanding principals’ behaviors as they relate to school improvement and school effectiveness. I selected the PIMRS (Hallinger, 1985) for this study not only because it has been found to be reliable and valid in research settings for thirty years (Hallinger, 1983, 2011; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger, Taraseina, & Miller, 1994) but also, as can be seen in Table 3, because subsequent research has confirmed the relevance of many of the factors measured by the PIMRS.

Table 3

*Similarities and Differences among Frameworks for Examining and Understanding**Principals' Behaviors*

Edmonds (1977) and Brookover & Lezotte (1979)	Hallinger (1985)	Leithwood (1987)	Waters et al. (2003)	Clifford & Ross (2012)
Instructional Leadership	Supervise and Evaluate Instruction	Improve instructional program	Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	Focus on learning
Clear and Focused Mission	Framing the Goals	Develop shared vision Strengthen school culture	Focus, Culture	Build shared purpose
Safe and Orderly Environment	Maintain High Visibility, Protects Instructional Time	Hold high performance expectations	Order Discipline Visibility	Manage organizational systems
Climate of High Expectations		Hold high performance expectations	Ideals/Beliefs	Lead with integrity
Frequent Monitoring of Student Progress	Monitor student progress	Improve instructional program	Monitors/Evaluates	
Positive Home-School Relations		Engage communities	Outreach	Collaborate with community
Opportunity to Learn and Student Time on Task		Improving the instructional program	Discipline	

Conceptual Framework

The PIMRS (Hallinger, 1982/1990) is grounded in a conceptual framework that proposes three dimensions in the instructional leadership role: Defines the School Mission, Manages the Instructional Program, and Develops a Positive School Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; see Figure 3). Within each of the three dimensions are 10 instructional leadership functions. Under “Defining the School Mission” are two functions, frames the school’s goals and communicates the school’s goals; under “Managing the Instructional Program” are three functions, coordinates the curriculum, supervises and evaluates instruction, and monitors student progress; and under “Developing the School Learning Climate” are five functions, protects instructional time, provides incentives for teachers, provides incentives for learning, promotes professional development and maintains high visibility (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 221).

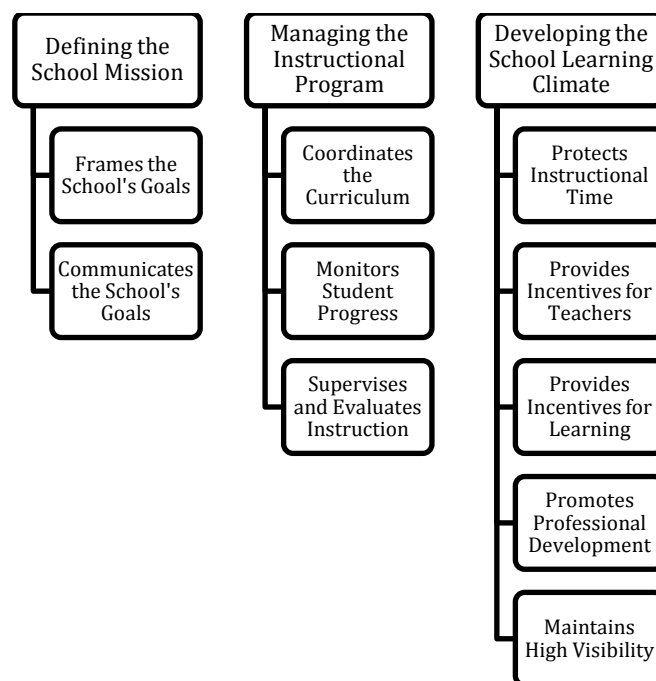


Figure 3. Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) conceptual framework (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Defining the School's Mission

School mission refers to the school's orientation toward improving student learning (Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1996). Hallinger and Heck (1996) found that establishing a clear school mission was an important avenue through which principals influence school effectiveness. Hallinger (1982) stated that the principal does not define the school's mission alone, but is responsible for ensuring that a mission exists and communicates the mission to all staff. One of the greatest barriers to school reform is lack of a clear vision (Schlechty, 2000). Excellent schools have a clear vision (Sergiovanni, 1991). Leaders give their schools purpose and direction by developing a shared strategic vision, shaping school culture and values, and formulating school improvement efforts (Thomson, 1993). Principals serve as facilitators, eliciting the involvement of stakeholders and ensuring that efforts are carried out (Thomson, 1993).

Leaders should be visionaries, strategists, and cultivators of practical ideals and enablers of others (Gill, 2003). A shared vision is the force that bonds students, teachers and others together in a common cause (Sergiovanni, 1991). Vision defines the desired state that a school is working toward; school improvement strategies and goals are needed to move toward the vision (Thomson, 1993). Hallinger and Heck (2002) described vision as the moral and spiritual values that underlie a leader's view of the world and provide the inspiration for the leader's life work.

Leaders who set a clear sense of direction have the greatest impact (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Principals must be able to lead organizations through a goal-setting process in which improvement areas are identified and actions for change are initiated (Thomson, 1993). If leaders help to develop among their staff members a shared understanding of the organization and its goals and activities, this understanding becomes the basis for a sense of purpose or vision. Leithwood et al. (2012) asserted having goals "helps people make sense of their work and enables them to find a sense of identity for themselves

within their work context" (p. 10). Effective principals work to build consensus among staff on the guiding beliefs and values of their school (Thomson, 1993).

Setting organizational direction is one of the core tasks for transformational leadership (Leithwood, 1996). Leaders build consensus among staff about the importance of common purpose and achieving the organization's goals (Leithwood et al., 2012). Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger (2003) conducted a quantitative meta-analysis of specific leadership behaviors and determined that "defining and communicating mission" had the largest effect size of all those they examined. Goldring and Pasternack (1994) examined the relationship between strategies used by principals to coordinate organizational activities and school effectiveness. They found that the principal's role in framing school goals and establishing a clear mission was instrumental in establishing school effectiveness. Effective leaders collect and utilize data to develop a purpose that focuses on student learning; they commit to and communicate values that all children will learn at high levels, and inspire others with that vision (Green, 2013). Studies repeatedly find a principal's ability to identify and articulate a vision leads to increased student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1999).

Managing the Instructional Program

Managing the instructional program requires that principals be deeply engaged in stimulating, supervising, and monitoring teaching and learning in the school (Green, 2013; Hallinger, 2005). This also requires that principals have expertise in teaching and learning and a commitment to the school's improvement (Hallinger, 2005). A central task of the principal is to ensure that school goals are translated into school practice (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This is achieved by coordinating classroom objectives of teachers with those of the school, providing instructional support to teachers, and monitoring classroom instruction through classroom observations (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Effective leaders also use data to make instructional program decisions that meet the needs of all students (Green, 2013).

Along with supervision of instruction, a principal must be able to coordinate curriculum and monitor student progress. School curricular objectives are closely aligned with the content taught and achievement tests, principals provide teachers with assessment results in a timely and useful manner, discuss test results with staff as a whole and with grade-level staff and individual teachers and provide interpretive analyses (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, pp. 222-224).

Developing the School Learning Climate

Developing the school learning climate includes protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, developing high expectations and standards and providing incentives for learning (Hallinger, 2005). Principals play a key role in supporting and encouraging teachers' professional development needs. Leaders demonstrate a commitment to the professional development of others, they keep track of teacher needs, and provide resources and materials to improve teachers' repertoire of instructional practices (Green, 2013; Leithwood, Louis, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010).

The term culture is used to describe the similar, but more limited, phenomenon that occurs within organizations (Deal & Peterson, 1990). Schein (1985) described culture as "basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously, and that define in a basic 'take-for-granted' fashion an organization's view of itself and its environment" (p. 6). Values and norms emerge from the culture and guide employee behavior (Thomson, 1993). Productivity is linked to a strong positive culture in schools (Leithwood, 1992).

Principals craft school cultures that help set the foundation for change (Peterson & Deal, 1998). Cultural leadership is the art of fusing a personal vision with a school that needs direction (Office of Educational Research and Improvement, 1990). Effective leaders establish clearly defined, school-wide academic and behavioral standards to promote high expectations

and hold teachers and students accountable for learning; leaders expect a high standard of professionalism from staff (Green, 2013; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Principals play a key instructional leadership role by shaping teachers' attitudes toward students' ability to master subject matter (Purkey, 1983). Bolman and Deal (2001) stated that school leaders must fully care and commit by being insightful, opportunistic, loving, and empowering in addition to valuing those who work for them (p. 172).

Organizational improvement comes from the improvement of the people who are members of the organization (Leithwood et al., 1999). Intellectual stimulation helps promote intelligence, rationality, and problem solving (Bass, 1990). Intellectual stimulation through professional development leads to collaboration and promotion of collective action to reach school goals (Brown, 1993; Poplin 1992).

Rural Education and School Leadership

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) presented challenges for schools and districts to ensure that all students are proficient on state standards by 2014 and that, by 2006, all teachers be highly qualified (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Due to small student populations and geographic isolation, these requirements are uniquely problematic for rural schools and districts (Reeves, 2003).

Rural school principals face multiple challenges that are unique to their environment, including school-based and community-related challenges and meeting increased achievement expectations (Williams & Nierengarten, 2011). Williams and Nierengarten (2011) conducted a mixed-methods study, surveying K-12 administrators across six regions in Minnesota to determine the challenges specific to rural administrators. Their study identifies student achievement, specifically testing, adequate yearly progress, achievement for all, and professional development for staff as concerns for rural administrators.

Reeves (2003) studied the impact of NCLB legislation on rural school districts and found issues of accountability, teacher recruitment and retention, and funding and fiscal

management, further stating that small schools and districts are more likely to be labeled in need of improvement due to the volatility of annual test scores.

Rural America

The United States Census Bureau (2013) states that “rural” encompasses all populations existing outside urban clusters (2,500 - 50,000 people) or urbanized areas (50,000 or more people). The urban area of the United States for the 2010 Census contained 80.7% of the population, whereas rural areas contained 19.3% of the population (United States Census Bureau, 2014). Since 2000, metro areas grew by 11 percent. The U.S. Census Bureau shows that rural regions saw sharper losses than expected in the last decade.

Since 1976, the rural population has been declining (Figure 4), with its greatest loss during the 1980s. However, overall population change remained positive during the 1980s because natural increases (births minus deaths) contributed to a roughly 0.5 percent growth (United States Department of Agriculture, 2013). Historically, non-metro populations grew because high rates of natural increase always offset any net migration loss experienced by non-metro areas (United States Department of Agriculture, 2013). Since 2010, the increase in non-metro population from natural change has not matched the decrease in population from the net migration. The 2010-2013 period marks the first time there was an estimated population loss for non-metro America as a whole (United States Department of Agriculture, 2013).

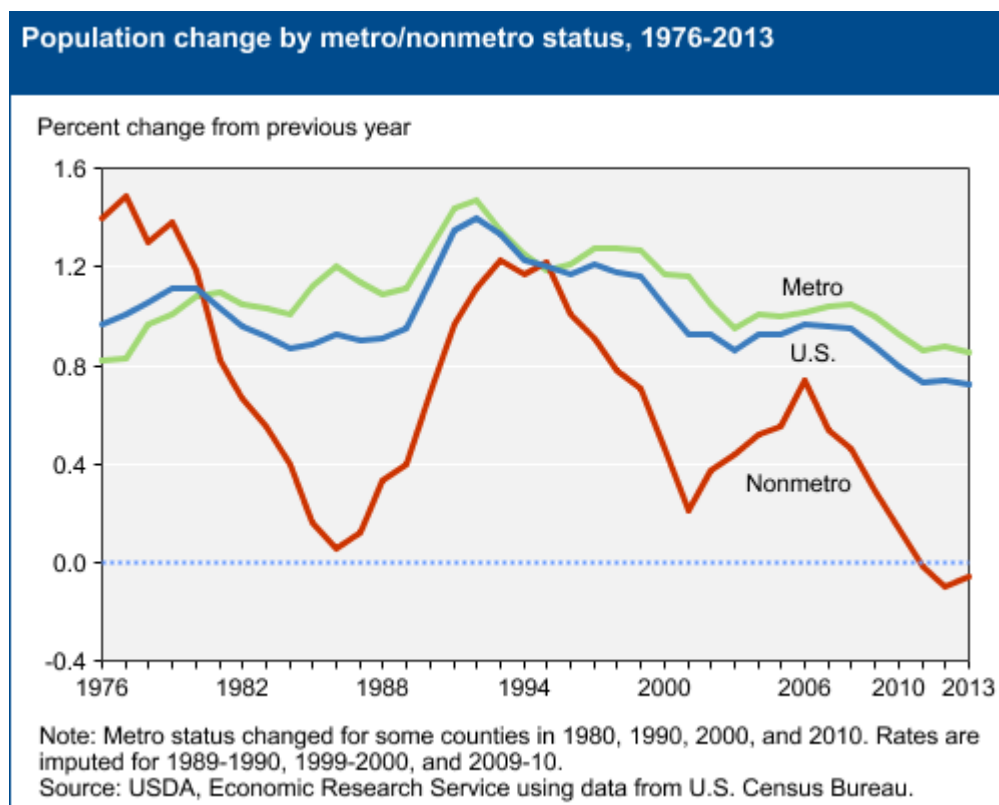


Figure 4. The population change by metro/non-metro status, 1976-2013 represented in percent of change from previous year (United States Department of Agriculture, 2013).

Many Americans perceive that rural areas offer a wholesome life; likewise many also believe that rural areas can be less-than-ideal places to live, with poverty, low wages, few job opportunities, and rapidly increasing drug use and crime (Kellogg Foundation, 2001). For decades, media have delivered anti-rural imagery with comic strips, radio and television shows portraying rural people as hillbillies, backward, ignorant, or dim-witted folk lacking ambition or sophistication, and we continue to accept these stereotypes because it is deeply engrained in our culture (Theobald & Wood, 2010). These misconceptions further exacerbate the notion that to be rural is to be sub-par, even among members of rural communities, as Theobald and Wood (2010) found through discussions with administrators, teachers, students and community members from eighteen rural school districts in New York. Many students, teachers and administrators conceded that they did not have the best schools, teachers, or provide the best education for students.

There are several factors driving change in rural America: demographic transitions, changing economic conditions, changing patterns of investment and resource distribution (transportation, telecommunications, etc.), environmental challenges, and challenges facing community institutions and civic leadership (Carsey Institute, 2007; Chi & Ventura, 2011).

Many rural communities are experiencing a loss in population, especially those that are in remote areas (McGranahan & Beale, 2002). Rural communities often experience the loss of the most educated people to urban areas (Artz, 2003). Some families discourage their children from attending college, fearing their children may never return (Corbett, 2007; Stricker, 2008).

Poverty in Rural America

In 2010, approximately 10 million persons or 16.3 percent of the rural and small town population lived in poverty and nearly one-quarter of people in poverty live in rural areas (Housing Assistance Council, 2012). Rural minorities continue to experience the highest poverty rates in America, with poverty rates more than twice those of rural white not Hispanic at 28 percent, rural African Americans at nearly 34 percent, and rural Native Americans at 30 percent (Housing Assistance Council, 2012). Rural minorities have higher poverty rates compared to minorities nationally, and economic conditions for many rural minorities have not improved over the past decades (Housing Assistance Council, 2012).

Mattingly, Johnson and Schaefer (2011) found when looking at poverty rates across the United States between 1980 and 2009, there were 706 persistent child poverty counties and 571 (81%) of these counties were rural counties. When looking at 362 U. S. counties categorized as nearing persistent or “frequent high child poverty” (p. 3), the researchers found 267, or 74% of the counties encompassed rural communities. The researchers identified several “hot spots” along the Rio Grande in Texas and New Mexico (Mattingly, Johnson, & Schaefer, 2011, p. 1).

Mattingly et al. (2011) identified characteristics of counties with persistent child poverty, including high rates of unemployment, low education levels, and higher proportions of minority children.

Rural New Mexico

In 2010, ninety-nine percent of the land area in New Mexico was considered rural, with 46.3 percent of the population living in rural and small cities. New Mexico saw a spike in the number of people living in poverty in 2013 and had the nation's second highest percentage of people living in poverty. Since 2007, the poverty rate has increased from 17.9 percent to 21.9 percent (United States Census Bureau, 2014). The number of children living in extreme poverty, those who live in families with income less than 50 percent of the federal poverty level, has increased from 10 percent in 2009 to 15 percent in 2013 (Population Reference Bureau, 2013).

Figure 5 shows New Mexico's rural locations in 2000, based on three definitions of Census Places (United States Census Bureau, 2014). Rural definition number 1 includes all areas outside a Census place with 2,500 or more people. Rural definition number 2 includes all areas outside Census Places with 10,000 or more people, and rural definition number 3 encompasses all areas outside Census places with 50,000 or more people (United States Census Bureau, 2014).

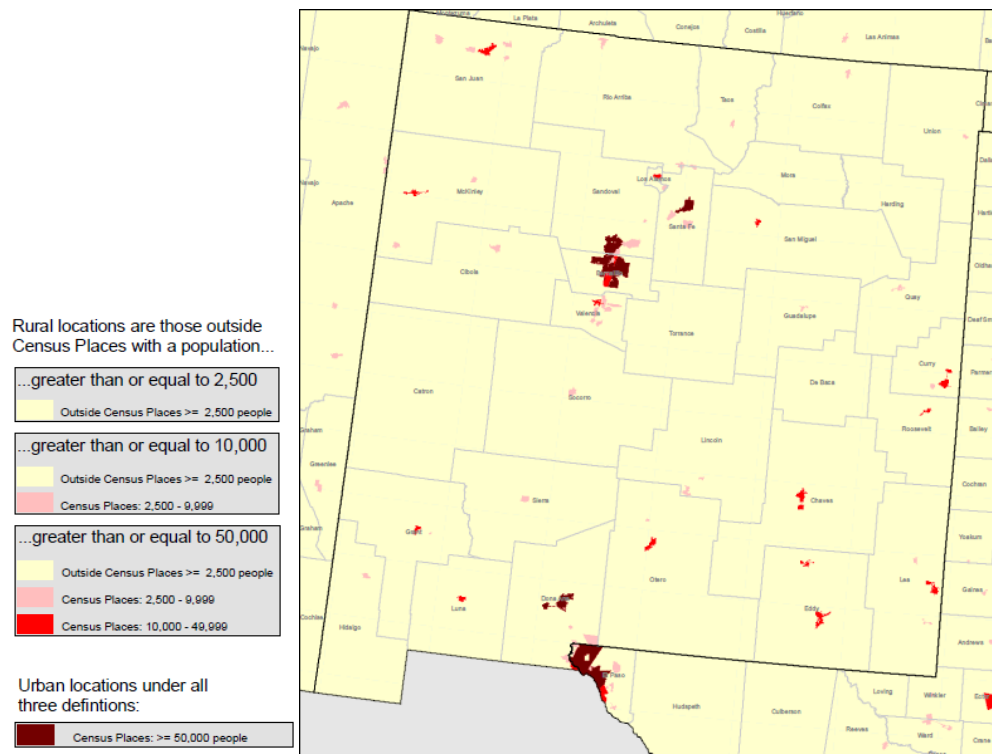


Figure 5. The rural locations in the State of New Mexico, 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013)

There are 89 school districts in New Mexico. Of these 89 districts, 33.7% have populations less than 2,500, ranging from a total population of 248 to 2,267, and an estimated population of 5 to 17 year olds ranging between 33 and 452. These 30 school districts have an average of five percent of 5 to 17 year olds living in poverty. Twenty-nine percent of New Mexico's school districts have populations between 2,500 and 10,000 ranging from 2,686 to 9,862, with an estimated population of 5 to 17 year olds between 346 and 1806. These 26 school districts have an average of 5.5% of children ages 5 to 17 living in poverty. Twenty-eight percent of school districts in New Mexico have total populations between 10,001 and 50,000, ranging from 10,703 to 47,994, with an estimated population of 5 to 17 year olds ranging from 1,586 to 9,267 with an average of 5% of children ages 5 to 17 living in poverty. There are only eight school districts with a total population exceeding 50,000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

Challenges Faced by Rural Schools

Nearly 32% of public schools in the United States are considered rural, with approximately 25% of all public school students enrolled in these schools (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013). Principals play a role in shaping school culture and organizing the day-to-day running of the school (Deal & Peterson, 1999), and play a significant role in the community (Clarke & Wildy, 2008; DeYoung, 1995; Mohr, 2000).

Rural schools face issues of school consolidation, closures, and declining economics (Barley, 2007). Changes in social and economic structures of rural communities have created families that are economically insecure, socially dislocated, and highly mobile (Schafft, Killeen, & Morrissey, 2010). Many rural communities are in economic distress, which contributes to many of the social problems that affect rural schools and rural students' achievement (Budge, 2006).

Highly mobile students are less successful academically, drop out of school at higher rates, and require more frequent disciplinary action (Barley & Beesley, 2007; Chen, 2008; Killeen & Schafft, 2009). Districts with extremely high student mobility are often rural and have a higher number of students eligible for free or reduced-priced meals (Beesley, Moore, & Gopalani, 2010; Chen 2008; Engec, 2006). In their research on rural school districts in New York and Pennsylvania, Schafft, Killeen, and Morrissey (2010), Killeen and Schafft (2008), and Schafft (2006) identified several key challenges for school districts and mobility: 1) Strains on teaching and administrative staff; 2) Highly mobile, high needs students tend to be high-cost students, 3) There was a perceived impact on school testing and assessments by teachers and administrators, 4) Academic underachievement, and 5) Reduced social and academic attachment of mobile students. Disadvantaged districts' student turnover rates were twice those of wealthier districts where mobility was driven largely by household social and economic insecurity and lack of safe, adequate, and affordable housing (Killeen & Schafft, 2008; Schafft, 2006; Schafft, Killeen, & Morrissey, 2010).

Teacher recruitment and retention is a challenge in rural areas, especially in the secondary schools where there are fewer and fewer science and math teachers, placing a burden on rural school administrators (Clarke & Hood, 1986). Gagnon and Mattingly (2012) found that poor communities have higher percentages of beginning teachers, with upwards of 11 percent classified as beginning teachers, further adding that a higher concentration of minority students in districts is associated with a higher percentage of beginning teachers (Gagnon & Mattingly, 2012). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2013), the average base salary for teachers in rural areas was \$47,130, well below the national average of \$53,070, and below the average salaries for teachers in towns (\$47,780), suburbs (\$58,470), and cities (\$54,070) (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013).

A national survey of rural school superintendents conducted by the American Association of School Administrators and the Appalachia Educational Laboratory found that superintendents identified low salaries and social and geographical isolation as the main factors responsible for their difficulties in recruiting and retaining teachers (Schwartzbeck, Prince, Redfield, Morris, & Hammer, 2003).

Selection and retention of effective principals has become problematic for rural schools because the pool of candidates is growing smaller (Young, Peterson, & Short, 2002). Rural schools are at a disadvantage when searching for school leaders (Pijanowski, Hewitt, & Brady, 2009). Rural areas may not be as attractive as urban areas to principal applicants (Ayers, 2011). Cruzeiro and Boone (2009) cited factors such as lower pay, isolation, and lack of support from central office contributed to the lack of effective leadership in rural school districts.

Challenges faced by Rural School Principals

Clarke and Hood (2002) identified six challenges faced by rural school administrators: (a) *geographic isolation* that focuses the school as the center of the community; (b) *cultural isolation* that prevents the diffusion of effort; (c) *financial stringency* that is caused by a small

tax base; (d) *inadequate mass*, which prevents specialization, staff members take on multiple roles depending on the needs; (e) *personal loneliness* where communication of trouble occurs quickly, but good news takes longer; and, (f) *historical stability* where rural schools represent the history of the community (p. 80). Preston, Jakubiec, and Kooymans (2013) presented thematically common challenges associated with the role of the rural principal using data from the United States, Canada and Australia. Compared to urban principals, rural principals faced unique challenges, among those challenges was the importance of the principal having an affiliation or a connection to the rural community; principals need to “fit into the political and social context of the local community” (Preston, Jakubiec, & Kooymans, 2013, p. 3), and that without this quality, the principal may be viewed with suspicion by the community (Keddie & Niesche, 2012). In their study of two schools in north central British Columbia, Foster and Goddard (2003) found that current administrators who were raised in the community had a greater understanding of the values, priorities and culture of the community. Lock, Budge, Oakley, and Lunay (2012) found that principals were most likely to stay in remote rural areas when they felt a sense of acceptance by and involvement in the community, this acceptance appeared to create stronger ties that compensated for some of the challenges faced by staff in remote communities.

Adding to the challenges, there is a feeling of professional loneliness and isolation as well as a lack of professional development for principals (Starr & White, 2008). Feelings of professional isolation and loneliness are magnified in rural settings (Hobson, Brown, Ashby, Keys, Sharp, & Benefield, 2003). Rural principals often assume other roles with fewer resources and complex issues around school accountability and change (Preston et al., 2013). Lock et al.'s (2012) research on rural school principals in Australia indicates that rural school principals require professional learning more suited to their needs as managers and leaders in rural settings. Rural principals also have fewer opportunities to network with colleagues in face-to-face environments (Lock et al., 2012). Buettner (2004) found:

Opportunities for frequent and purposeful dialogue should be provided whereby principals can openly communicate their frustrations and feelings in relation to a particular circumstance. Discussions would have the potential to alleviate tension arising from distressful events in schools.

(p. 12)

Rural principals serve in many roles and responsibilities such as “accountability, planning, monitoring, reporting, school performance” (Clarke & Wildy, 2004, p. 555). They also have to deal with student discipline, working with community, and being the face of the school (Ashton & Duncan, 2012).

Leaders in successful rural high schools in California maintained “a school-wide focus on instruction and high expectations, developed multiple support systems for students with varying needs, and capitalized on strengths on teachers to enhance student outcomes. Successful leaders discover ways to utilize and stretch resources to help students, regardless of location or lack of funding” (Masumoto & Brown-Welty, 2009, p 15).

Factors perceived by school personnel to contribute to success in high-performing, high-needs rural schools include “a close and mutually supportive relationship with the community, high teacher retention, supportive leadership, use of student data to support student achievement, parental involvement, and a culture of caring” (Barley & Beesly, 2007, p. 1).

Challenges faced by rural school principals are unique to each district. Challenges faced by many principals include pressure from political groups, becoming acquainted with the district and community, deciding who to trust, and a lack of people in whom to confide (Czaja, 1997, p. 2). Rural school principals must be aware of the politics that come into play, because of the likelihood of community members being related to one another (De Ruyck, 2005). It is also important for principals to form relationships within the community; principals need to understand local knowledge, histories, key figures, and rituals (Murphy,

1996). Rural school principals often do not have the means to separate themselves from the political arena, as do administrators in larger districts (De Ruyck, 2005).

Access to Curriculum

Rural school youth have a greater likelihood of experiencing a narrow school curriculum, fewer educational opportunities, fewer electives, less advanced placement offerings, and a shortage of teachers with advanced degrees (Alspaugh, 1998; Edington & Koehler, 1997; Lapan, Tucker, Kim, & Kosciulek, 2011).

Students in rural areas and small towns have limited access to rigorous curriculum and instruction. Graham (2009) found that nearly 50 percent of students in rural areas and small towns attend schools that only offer one to three advanced mathematics courses, and only 10 percent have access to seven or more courses in advanced mathematics, capping the possible mathematics achievement levels for rural students. Data based on national assessments suggest that rural youth are not achieving at the same level of mathematics proficiency as urban high school students (Provasnik, KwealRamani, Coleman, Gilbertson, Herring, & Xi, 2007).

Nearly one-half (47.2 percent) of rural school districts have no secondary students enrolled in Advanced Placement (AP) courses, compared with only 20.1 percent of town, 5.4 percent of suburban, and 2.0 percent of urban districts and remote rural districts are 10 times less likely to offer access to AP courses (Gagnon & Mattingly, 2015). Rural school districts often find it “difficult to offer rigorous coursework because of insufficient numbers of capable students, lack of appropriate teacher staffing, or other logistical concerns” (Gagnon & Mattingly, 2015, p. 3). Lack of access to rigorous coursework continues to place rural students at a disadvantage compared with their urban and suburban peers (Graham, 2009).

Summary

In this chapter, I presented an overview of the body of knowledge related to effective school leadership. The review of literature included a discussion of instructional leaders,

transformational leaders, and rural school communities. Instructional leadership models began to emerge in the late 1970s into the early 1980s via the effective schools research, which identified strong, directive leadership focused on curriculum and instruction from the principal as an effective characteristic (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982).

Key findings include:

1. Strong administrative leadership was among the factors of school effectiveness that made a difference in student learning (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979).
2. Principal leadership behaviors have an indirect effect on student achievement (Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1996).
3. Successful leadership can play a significant role in improving student learning (Leithwood et. al., 2004).
4. Rural communities have higher poverty and mobility rates, high rates of unemployment, low educational levels, higher proportions of minority children, and high teacher and principal mobility (Killeen & Schafft, 2008; Mattingly et al., 2011; Schafft, 2006; Schafft, Killeen, & Morrissey, 2010).
5. The majority of New Mexico, 99%, is considered rural, with 46.3 percent of the population living in rural or small cities.

Chapter 3

Research Methods

This chapter presents the research methods that I used to collect data to help me answer my research questions:

1. Based on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), how do teachers in the Española Public Schools perceive the instructional management of principals?
2. To what extent is the PIMRS reliable and valid when administered to a sample of teachers and principals from a rural, northern New Mexico, predominantly Hispanic-serving school district?

I outline the criteria I used to select the teachers and principals that were invited to complete the questionnaires. I also describe the instrument, the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. Finally, I describe the data collection procedures and data analyses.

Setting and Sample

I conducted the study in the Española Public Schools, a public school district in Northern New Mexico. The study targeted elementary and secondary teachers and principals working in the school district during the 2014-2015 academic year. There were 132 teachers teaching in the primary grades and 82 teachers teaching at the secondary level that were eligible to take part in the study, for a total of 214. Twenty-six percent of the teachers were male and 74% were females, with 11% of males working at the elementary level. Of the 214 teachers, 62% of the teachers were Hispanic, 20% were White, 16% were Filipino, and 2% were other. There were ten principals eligible to participate in this study, eight principals from the 11 elementary schools (two schools shared a principal and one had a lead teacher) and two principals at the secondary level (one each at the middle school and high school levels).

Instrument

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Appendix A) is a survey tool designed and tested by Hallinger (1983). The PIMRS assess three dimensions of instructional leadership: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The tool consists of 50 questions that cover 10 different areas of instructional management with five questions for each characteristic and is used to survey teachers to elicit their perceptions of their principals' instructional management. By using a five-point, Likert-type scale (Almost Never - 1, Seldom - 2, Sometimes - 3, Frequently - 4, Almost Always - 5) teachers document the frequency with which they perceive their principal to be performing certain instructional-related tasks. The PIMRS has been used in 135 empirical studies over the past 30 years appears to have attained a consistent record of yielding reliable and valid data on principal instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2013).

The PIMRS was developed by Hallinger (1982) to measure principal instructional management behaviors in a school building. Hallinger (1982) developed the PIMRS based on the School Effectiveness Program Model of Instructional Leadership. The original form had eleven categories, but was narrowed to ten categories after further research (Hallinger, 1983). Hallinger tested the questionnaire for reliability and validity. I obtained duplication rights for use in this study.

The original validation study found that the PIMRS met high standards of reliability (Hallinger, 1983). Four criteria for this validation were used. First, content validity received a minimum average agreement of .80 among the group of raters, which indicated there was relevancy among the group of raters, which in turn indicated there was relevancy among the items listed on the questionnaire concerning the critical requirements of the principals' job. Second, the estimate of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient, which tests the internal consistency of an instrument, was .75 and the test of significance was at the .05 level. Fourth,

construct validity, achieved by a subscale intercorrelation and documentary support, indicated a strong correlation between the questionnaire and related studies (Hallinger, 1983).

The ten categories of principal instructional management are:

1. Frames the School's Goals – refers to the principal's role in determining the areas in which the school will focus its resources during a given school year.
2. Communicates School's Goals – concerned with the ways in which the principal communicates the school's most important goals to teachers, parents, students, etc.
3. Supervises and Evaluates Instruction – ensuring that the school goals are being translated into practice at the classroom level, which involves coordinating with the classroom teacher and evaluating classroom instruction.
4. Coordinates Curriculum – curricular objectives are closely aligned with both the content taught and the achievement tests used by the school.
5. Monitors Student Progress - refers to how the principal communicates and provides teachers with test results.
6. Protects Instructional Time – refers to the principal's ability to protect instructional time of teachers.
7. Maintains High Visibility – refers to the interaction between the principal, students and teachers.
8. Provides Incentives for Teachers – refers to how the principal recognizes staff both formally and informally.
9. Promotes Professional Development – refers to how the principal supports teachers in the effort to improve instruction.
10. Provides Incentives for Learning – refers to the principal's ability to create a learning climate in the school in which academic achievement is highly valued by students and where students are recognized for their academic achievement and improvement. (Hallinger, 2013, p. 14)

I added two open-ended questions on both the teacher and principal form of the PIMRS. I asked the teachers: “What does your principal need to know and do in order to support teachers at your school?” and “Is there anything else you would like to add?” I asked the principals: “What does your supervisor need to know and do in order to support principals in your district?” and “Is there anything else you would like to add?”

Instrument Validity and Reliability

Research often attempts to measure intangible constructs such as attitudes, behaviors, emotions, or personalities. Researchers often design surveys, interviews, and other assessments to measure these concepts. Tests must accurately measure given traits and do so with consistency (Galvan, 2006; Ruane, 2005; Wright & Stone, 1999).

Validity and reliability are the common terms to designate test accuracy and consistency. In assessing the effective relevance and usefulness of the PIMRS with school leaders, it is critical to assess both the validity and reliability of the tool.

Joppe (2000, p. 1) defines reliability as “the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under the study is referred to as reliability and if the results of the study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable.”

Kirk and Miller (1986, pp. 41-42) identified three types of reliability in quantitative research: the degree to which a measurement, given repeatedly, remains the same; the stability of a measurement over time; and the similarity of measurement within a given time period. In other words, reliability refers to the degree to which the rating scales measure the targeted phenomenon consistently.

Validity is a general term denoting “correctness of measure” (Yaremko, Harari, Harrison, & Lynn, 1982, p. 245). To be a valid instrument, survey questions must measure the identified dimensions or construct of interest (Czaja & Blair, 2005). “A valid measure should yield consistent (reliable) data about what is concerned with regardless of the time of day,

week, or month, the measures are taken and regardless of who takes the measure” (Latham & Wexley, 1981, p. 65).

Data Collection Procedures

I obtained approval from both the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the selected school district prior to commencing the research (Appendix B). I was not affiliated with the school district. My research assistant, as approved by the IRB, was the assistant superintendent for the school district. Valid certificates of completion of the University tutorial on research related to human subjects were on file for the principal investigator, the research assistant, and the faculty advisor prior to commencing data collection.

In the spring of 2015, either the research assistant or I recruited teacher participants during teacher meetings in a designated meeting room on the school campuses. Prior to disseminating the paper and pencil version of the PIMRS-Teacher Form (Appendix C) to those interested in taking part in the study, we reviewed the Information Sheet (Appendix D) with all potential participants and they were given the opportunity to decide whether or not to participate. I disseminated the PIMRS at eight schools and my research assistant disseminated it at three schools. The process of completing and submitting the instrument constituted consent to take part in the study.

Participants remained anonymous and did not provide any identifiable information that could link them to their responses. My research assistant and I used a script that we read to the teachers (Appendix E), which explained that participation in this study on principal leadership behaviors was voluntary. In order to encourage participation, again with approval from the IRB, I offered incentives: the possibility to win via a raffle a Kindle Fire HD, a \$25 gift certificate to Wal-Mart, or a \$25 gift certificate to a local restaurant.

The participants were assured of their anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses and their ability to terminate their participation at any time and for any reason

without repercussions. It was also made clear during the consent process that refusal to participate would not affect the participants' status in the school district. Those teachers who chose to participate were encouraged to answer the questions with complete honesty and to ask questions at any time. After disseminating the instrument, we left the room to allow those that wished to participate time to complete the questionnaire and return it. Upon completion, participants placed the completed questionnaire in a secure box, detached a form that served as a "raffle ticket" (Appendix F) for the drawing where they recorded their name and telephone number. Teacher participants deposited the "raffle ticket" in a separate secure box. We picked up the two boxes when the last participant left the room. The completed instruments were stored in a locked file cabinet in my office.

I submitted an amendment to the original IRB (Appendix G) to collect data from principals. The research assistant collected the data from the principals. She had a meeting with the principals to have them fill out the PIMRS; only five elementary principals completed the survey, none of the secondary principals completed the survey. Two elementary principals left the district prior to data collection.

Prior to disseminating the paper and pencil version of the PIMRS-Principal form (Appendix H) to those interested in taking part in the study, the research assistant reviewed the Information Sheet with all potential participants and they were given the opportunity to decide whether or not to participate. The research assistant disseminated the PIMRS to the principals. The process of completing and submitting the instrument constituted consent to take part in the study.

Participants remained anonymous and did not provide any identifiable information that could link them to their responses. My research assistant used a script that she read to the principals, which explained that participation in this study on principal leadership behaviors was voluntary.

The principals were assured of their anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses and their ability to terminate their participation at any time and for any reason without repercussions. It was also made clear during the consent process that refusal to participate would not affect the participants' status in the school district. Those principals who chose to participate were encouraged to answer the questions with complete honesty and to ask questions at any time. After disseminating the instrument, the research assistant left the room to allow those that wished to participate time to complete the questionnaire and return it. Upon completion, participants placed the completed questionnaire in a secure box

Dataset Construction and Analysis

In a MS Excel spreadsheet, I entered each person's responses to the items on the PIMRS and then checked for data entry errors. I used standard methods for dealing with missing data (Osborne, 2013). I organized the responses using the subscales on the PIMRS.

I created categorical variables to record information about the teacher's principal's gender (Male = 1, Female = 0) and the school level (Primary = 1, Secondary = 0). I used the categories from the instrument to create the variables for the number of years the teacher has worked with the current principal and the teacher's number of years of experience at the school (1 year = 1, 2-4 years = 2, 5-9 years = 3, 10-15 years = 3, more than 15 = 4). Principals were asked to indicate the number of years s/he has worked at the school (1 year = 1, 2-4 years = 2, 5-9 years = 3, 10-15 years = 3, more than 15 = 4). Other demographic data collected from the principals was the years of experience they have had as principals (1 year = 1, 2-4 years = 2, 5-9 years = 3, 10-15 years = 3, more than 15 = 4), their gender (Male = 1, Female = 0), and the level the principals worked at (Primary = 1, Secondary = 0).

Once I had created the dataset in Excel, I imported it into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v. 22) for subsequent analyses. In order to answer my first research question regarding teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional leadership behaviors, I calculated descriptive statistics, created scores on the 10 sub-scales of the PIMRS, and

estimated correlation coefficients between demographic variables and the scores on the sub-scales. In order to answer the second research question about the reliability and validity of the instrument, I estimated Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the 10 sub-scales, examined the estimated intercorrelation of the scores on the sub-scales, and conducted one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Table 4 presents a summary of the analyses I conducted.

Table 4

Data Analyses to Create Profiles of Principals' Instructional Leadership Behavior and Assess Validity and Reliability of the PIMRS

Statistical Analysis	Assessment	Questions to be considered
Descriptive Statistics and Correlation	Profiles of principals' instructional leadership behaviors	How do teachers perceive the instructional leadership behaviors of their principals?
Correlation	Construct Validity	Is the PIMRS a valid instrument when used with teachers in rural NM?
Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient	Reliability-Internal Consistency	Is the PIMRS a reliable instrument when used with teachers in rural NM? Does the internal consistency of the instrument match that of previous research attempts?
One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)	Concurrent Validity	Is the PIMRS a valid instrument when used with teachers in rural NM?
Qualitative analysis of open ended questions	Categorize by subscale	What do principals need to do and know to support teachers in their school?

I compared the results from this administration of the PIMRS to the trends from previous research studies. I compared the teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional behaviors to the principals' self-assessments of their instructional leadership in anticipation of revealing areas for possible professional development for school leaders in Española's Public Schools.

Analysis of responses to open-ended questions

Teachers and principals were asked two open-ended questions: “What does your principal/supervisor need to know and do in order to support teachers/principals in your school/district?” and “Is there anything else you would like to add?”

One hundred sixteen teachers responded to the first question, and 43 of the 116 teachers responded to the second question. Four of the five principals responded to the first question, none of the principals responded to the second question.

I entered all open-ended responses verbatim into a spreadsheet, along with each participant’s responses to the questionnaire. Responses were then grouped into themes as they related to the 10 instructional behaviors on the PIMRS. Teacher and principal quotes were used to illustrate findings in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the reliability and validity of Hallinger's (1983) Principal's Instructional Management Rating Scale when used with teachers from a small district in northern New Mexico. The statistical analyses I conducted are: 1) Descriptive statistics of the scores and demographic variables, 2) the estimate of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient estimate of the overall PIMRS and for the ten sub-scales, 3) the estimated correlation matrix for the PIMRS and demographic variables, 4) the estimated correlation matrix for the scores on the sub-scales, and 5) one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Demographic Profile of Sample - Teachers

There are 214 teachers in the district, 132 are elementary teachers (grades K-6) and 83 teachers at the secondary level (grades 7-12). One hundred and ten teachers at the elementary level and 52 teachers at the secondary level completed the questionnaire, resulting in a 75% response rate. Non-respondents included those teachers who were not present at the meeting to invite participation in the study and those who chose not to complete the instrument. All elementary and secondary schools that have a certified/licensed administrator are represented. Participants with ID numbers 129 and 138 did not complete more than 90 percent of the questionnaire, and therefore their responses were not included in the data analysis.

Of the 160 teachers in the analytic sample, 68 percent were elementary teachers and 32 percent were secondary teachers. Approximately 92 percent of teachers indicated that they had worked with their current principal for 1-4 years and of those, 47.5 percent indicated that they had worked with their current principal for just 1 year. Only 2.5 percent of teachers indicated that they had worked with their current principal for more than 5 years. Eighty-six of the respondents (54%) indicated they currently work with a female administrator, and 74 respondents (46%) indicated they work with a male administrator.

One hundred and twenty teachers (77.5 percent) indicated they would have 10 or more years of teaching experience by the end of the 2014-2015 school year, and 21.3 percent indicated they would have between two and nine years of teaching experience by the end of the 2014-2015 school year.

Demographic Profile of the Sample - Principals

At the time we collected data from the teachers, there were eight elementary principals and two secondary principals in the district. When we collected data from the principals, the district had lost two elementary principals. Of the eight remaining principals, five principals completed the questionnaire, all of which were elementary principals. Four principals who responded indicated that they had been at their current school between 2 and 4 years. Two principals indicated they had more than 15 years of experience as a principal, one indicated that s/he had between 10 to 15 years of experience, one indicated 5 to 9 years of experience and one indicated 2 to 4 years of experience as a school principal. Three of the principals were male and two were female.

Teachers' Perceptions of the Principals' Instructional Management

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) was the instrument I utilized in this study to collect data on principals' and teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional management behaviors. The PIMRS employs a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, which creates the possibility of a total score across 10 subscales that ranges from 50 (a response of 1 or almost never for all items) to 250 (a response of 5 or almost always for all items). Since each subscale consists of five items, the minimum score on a sub-scale would be 5 (a response of 1 or almost never for the five items) to 25 (a response of 5 or almost always for the five items).

There is considerable variation in the teachers' total scores with a minimum score of 52 and a maximum score of 247 (range = 195, Std. = 45.24). The descriptive statistics for the total score on the PIMRS and the ten sub-scale scores are displayed in Table 5. Examination

of the mean for each subscale tells us that, on average, teachers perceived that their principals exhibited these behaviors *sometimes to frequently*.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Total Scores and Subscales from Teachers' Responses on the PIMRS

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Maximum	Minimum
PIMRS Total Score	160	168.9	45.24	246	52
Framing the School's Goals	160	18.13	5.00	25	5
Communicates the School's Goals	160	17.77	5.46	25	5
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	160	17.43	5.03	25	5
Coordinates the Curriculum	160	16.86	5.15	25	5
Monitors Student Progress	160	16.77	5.03	25	5
Protects Instructional Time	160	16.86	4.83	25	5
Maintains High Visibility	160	16.18	5.32	25	5
Provides Incentives for Teachers	160	14.90	5.51	25	5
Promotes Professional Development	160	18.40	5.04	25	5
Provides Incentives for Students	160	15.61	5.81	25	5

Table 6 summarizes the average rating principals received from the teachers on each of the questions on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. I used the average PIMRS item ratings to describe teachers' perceptions of the frequency of principal instructional management behavior. For example, PIMRS average ratings closer to 5.0 indicate higher principal instructional management behavior. It is important to note that the ratings do not measure the quality of those instructional management behaviors (Hallinger, 1982).

Table 6

Averages of Teachers' Ratings of Principals for Each Item on the PIMRS

Sub-Scale		Average of Teachers' Ratings of Principals
Frames the School's Goals	Q1	3.59
	Q2	3.64
	Q3	3.46
	Q4	3.82
	Q5	3.63
Communicates the School's Goals	Q6	3.67
	Q7	3.81
	Q8	3.64
	Q9	3.26
	Q10	3.38
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	Q11	3.57
	Q12	3.43
	Q13	3.44
	Q14	3.47
	Q15	3.52
Coordinates the Curriculum	Q16	3.45
	Q17	3.52
	Q18	3.29
	Q19	3.36
	Q20	3.24
Monitors Student Progress	Q21	2.99
	Q22	3.38
	Q23	3.68
	Q24	3.42
	Q25	3.30
Protects Instructional Time	Q26	3.49
	Q27	3.31
	Q28	2.63
	Q29	3.89
	Q30	3.53

Maintains High Visibility	Q31	3.65
	Q32	3.33
	Q33	3.81
	Q34	2.84
	Q35	2.55
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Q36	3.21
	Q37	3.44
	Q38	2.57
	Q39	2.79
	Q40	2.89
Promotes Professional Development	Q41	3.64
	Q42	3.58
	Q43	3.73
	Q44	3.78
	Q45	3.68
Provides Incentives for Learning	Q46	3.30
	Q47	3.42
	Q48	2.95
	Q49	2.79
	Q50	3.15

I developed principal profiles from the data I collected from teachers. Table 7 presents the average teacher rating each principal received on each of the subscales on the PIMRS.

Table 7

Comparison of Principals by Subscale Average based on the Teachers' Ratings

	Prin1	Prin2	Prin3	Prin4	Prin5	Prin6	Prin7	Prin8	Prin9	Prin10
Frames the School's Goal	4.29	3.67	2.50	2.81	4.22	3.88	3.56	4.42	3.99	3.13
Communicates the School's Goals	4.43	3.67	2.80	2.71	4.34	3.71	3.34	4.33	3.99	3.02
Supervises & Evaluates Instruction	3.71	3.16	3.60	2.91	3.32	3.54	3.70	4.22	4.02	3.11
Coordinates the Curriculum	3.80	3.39	3.10	2.89	3.60	3.55	3.20	4.23	3.79	2.83
Monitors Student Progress	4.09	3.35	3.15	2.72	3.60	3.48	3.14	4.23	3.74	2.91
Protects Instructional Time	3.83	3.56	3.70	2.87	3.64	3.68	3.56	3.82	3.14	2.96
Maintains High Visibility	3.94	3.69	3.65	2.47	3.58	3.28	3.27	4.07	3.71	2.45
Provides Incentives for Teachers	3.20	2.53	3.28	2.48	3.00	3.50	2.76	3.84	3.33	2.45
Promotes Professional Development	4.31	3.84	3.65	3.34	3.74	4.03	3.61	4.23	3.99	2.95
Provides Incentives for Learning	3.83	3.56	3.20	2.11	3.62	3.40	2.70	4.08	3.54	2.58

Frames the School's Goals

As a group, principals were, on average, rated within 3.46 and 3.82 on each of the questions on framing the school goals (see Table 6), indicating teachers perceived their principals in the *sometimes* range when creating a mission and goals for the school.

Overall, principals scored highest using data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals (Q4) and lowest on using needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development (Q3).

Each principal received a total average score on each of the subscales (see Table 7). Looking across the ten principals, we can see that teachers rated their principal from a low of 2.81 (Principal 4) to a high of 4.42 (Principal 8). Lower averages tell us that the

teachers perceived their principals' leadership practices and behaviors as *seldom* exhibited and higher averages as frequently exhibited.

Figure 6 shows the average total scores of teachers' ratings of their principals on the extent to which they frame the school's goals. A score of 15 indicates that the occurrences of instructional leadership behaviors as perceived by teachers are *sometimes* displayed in daily practice. Elementary Principal 4, with an average total score of 14.03, received the lowest total rating from her/his teachers and Elementary Principal 8 received the highest total score with 22.08 points. Fifty percent of the principals fell at or above the 20-point range, indicating that the occurrences of instructional leadership related to framing the school's goals were *frequently* displayed in daily practice. Forty percent of the principals were above the 15-point range. Teachers who work with Principal 4 rated this principal a 2.81 on average, indicating that this principal's behaviors fall within the *seldom* range, whereas Elementary Principal 8 was rated an average of 4.42, indicating that the principal's behaviors fell within the *frequently* range (See Table 7).

When asked "What does your principal need to know and do in order to support teachers at your school", teachers responded with the principal needs to have "clearer goals" and "help staff understand what the school wide goals are, (communicate) the mission and vision."

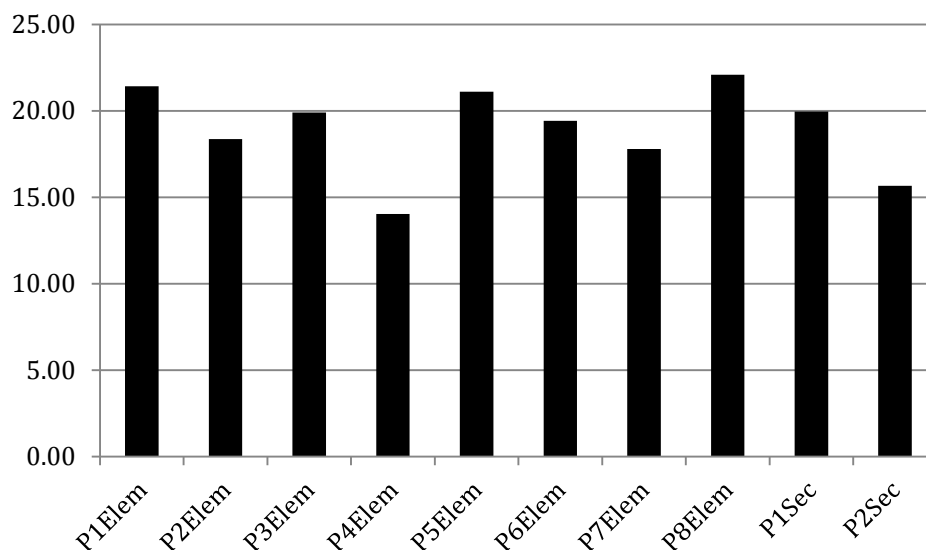


Figure 6. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Frames the School's Goal.

Communicates the School's Goals

Principals were rated on the extent to which teachers perceived them as communicating the school's goals and mission effectively to members of the school community; discussing the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings; referring to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers; ensuring that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school; and the extent to which the principal refers to the school's goals or mission in forums with students.

As a group, teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional behaviors ranged from 3.26 to a 3.81 (Table 6), indicating the principals, on average, fell in the *sometimes* range on each of the questions related to communicating the school's goals. Individual principals ranged, on average, from as low as 2.71, indicating that the principal was in the *seldom* range, and as high as 4.43, indicating that principal was in the *frequently* range. The majority of principals fell in the *sometimes* and *frequently* range. Figure 7 shows the average total scores of teachers' ratings of their principals on the

extent to which they communicate the school goals. Elementary Principal 4 received the lowest ratings with an average score of 13.54, indicating teachers perceived this principal in the *seldom* range when it came to communicating the school's goals. Fifty percent of principals had a total average score at or above 20 points, with Elementary Principal 1 received the highest rating with an average score of 22.14, indicating teachers perceived these principals as *frequently* communicating the school's goals. Forty percent of principals had a total average score above 15 points, indicating teachers perceived these principals as *sometimes* communicating the school's goals.

When asked what their principal needed to know and do in order to support them, one teacher stated s/he needed the principal to “better communicate expectations and ensure staff is on board with decisions made for the school.”

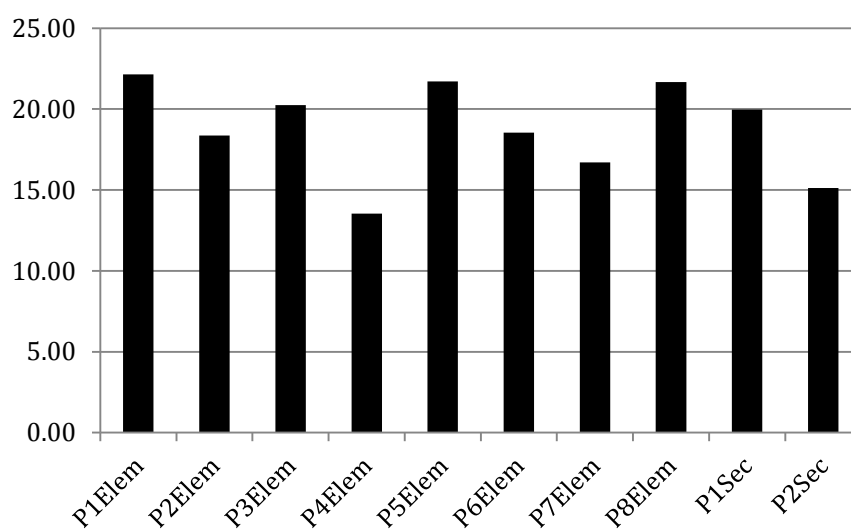


Figure 7. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Communicates the School Goals.

Supervises and Evaluates Instruction

Teachers, on average, rated the principals between a 3.43 and 3.57 on supervising and evaluating instruction (Table 6), rating principals highest on ensuring that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school

(Q11) and lowest on reviewing student work products when evaluating classroom instruction (Q12). Individually, principals ranged from 2.91 (Seldom range) to a 4.22 (Frequently range) (Table 7). Figure 8 shows the average total scores of teachers' ratings of their principals on the extent to which they supervise and evaluate instruction. The majority of principals received average ratings below 20 points with only Elementary Principal 8 scoring over 20 points and Elementary Principal 4 receiving the lowest points.

Several teachers stated they needed support from their principal in this area. One elementary teacher stated s/he needed "constructive criticism and more praise for the work we do." Another stated that s/he needed the principal to conduct "classroom observations, formal and informal, and provide feedback after the observations," and "take notice of teacher performance and praise them for their efforts."

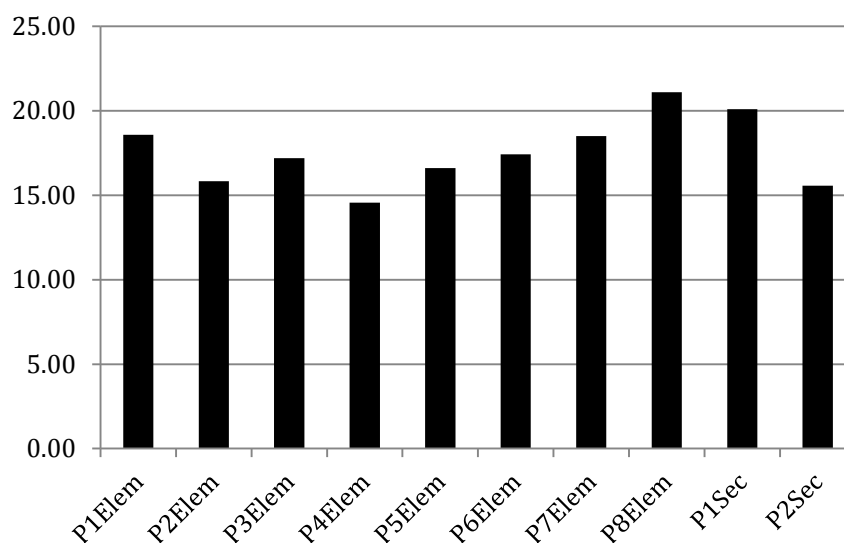


Figure 8. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Supervises and Evaluates Instruction.

Coordinates the Curriculum

All principals were rated, on average, between a 3.24 and a 3.52 on coordinating the curriculum (see Table 6), rated lowest on participating actively in the review of curricular materials (Q20), with an average rating of 3.24 and highest on drawing upon

results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions (Q17), with an average rating of 3.52. Individual principals ranged from a 2.83 (Seldom range) to a 4.23 (Frequently range) (Table 7). The majority of principals fell in the *sometimes* range. Figure 9 shows the average total scores of teachers' ratings of their principals on the extent to which they coordinate the curriculum. Elementary Principal 4 and Secondary Principal 2 received the lowest average scores (14.47 and 14.15, respectively), indicating these principals fell in the *seldom* range when coordinating the curriculum, as perceived by teachers. Sixty percent of principals scored between 16 and 19 average points, indicating they fell in the *sometimes* range. Only Elementary Principal 8 scored above 20 points, indicating that her/his teachers perceived her/him as *frequently* coordinating the curriculum.

When asked what the principal needs to know and do to support them, a teacher reported that the principal needed to “make sure that we get the necessary materials for the classroom” and another stated “...the principal needs to know the curriculum we are utilizing in our classrooms and the tools we need to implement our lessons.”

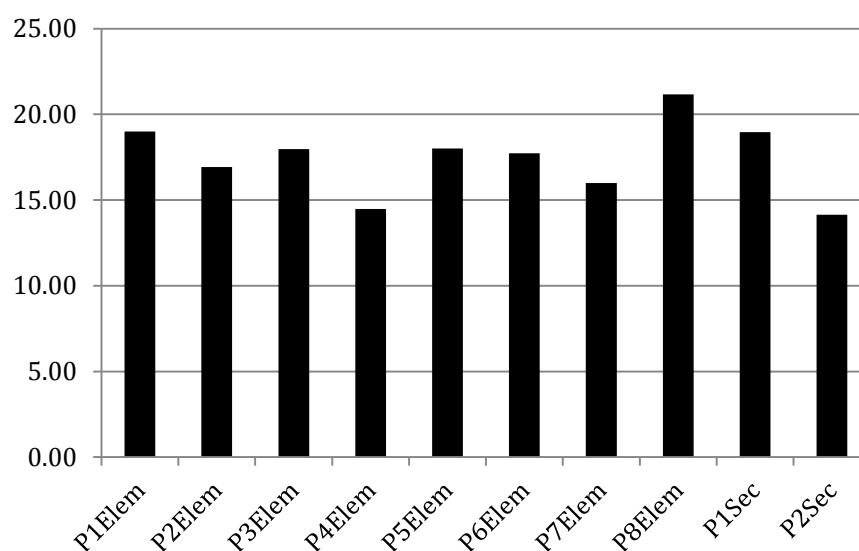


Figure 9. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Coordinates the Curriculum.

Monitors Student Progress

As a whole group, teachers rated their principals between a 2.99 and a 3.68 on monitoring student progress (See Table 6), with the lowest average of 2.99 on meeting individually with teachers to discuss student progress (Q21) and the highest average of 3.68 on using tests and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals (Q23). When looking at individual school principals (see Table 7), principals ranged from an average of 2.72 (Seldom range) through a 4.23 (Frequently). Figure 10 shows the average total scores of teachers' ratings of their principals on the extent to which they monitor student progress. Elementary Principal 4 and Secondary Principal 2 are the only two principals that had fewer than 15 point-averages. Only Elementary Principal 1 and Elementary Principal had average ratings above 20 points.

When asked what the principal needs to know and do in order to support teachers at the school, one elementary teacher stated the principal “need[s] to provide more tutoring classes for students at risk.”

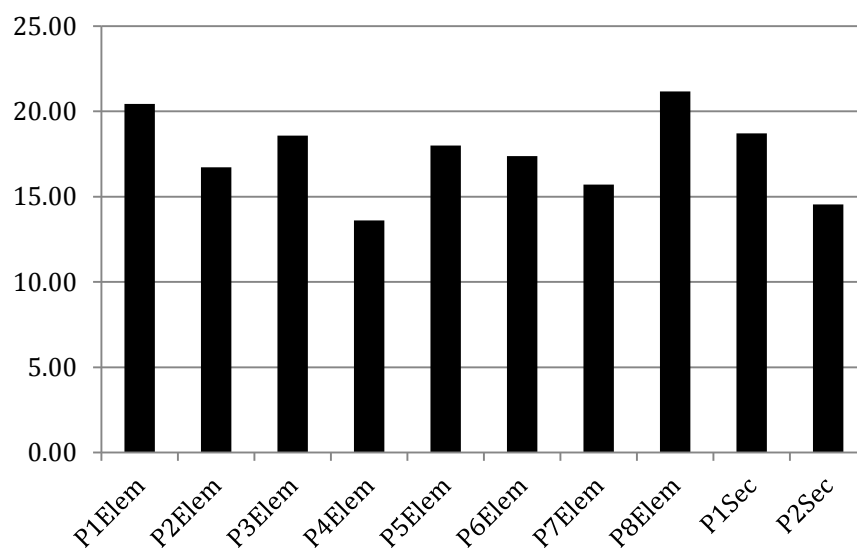


Figure 10. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Monitors Student Progress.

Protects Instructional Time

Overall, principals were rated on average between 2.63 (Seldom range) and 3.89 (Sometimes range) on protecting instructional time (see Table 6), scoring lowest on ensuring that students are not called to the office during instructional time (Q27) and scoring highest on encouraging teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts (Q29). The majority of principals were rated in the Sometimes range, when looking at principals individually (see Table 7). Figure 11 shows the average of the total points each principal received on the extent to which they protect instructional time for teachers. Elementary Principal 4 and Secondary Principal 2 are the only principals who fell below the 15 points, indicating that these principal scored more in the *seldom* range in regards to protecting instructional time for teachers. All other principals scored above 15 points, but below 20, indicating teachers perceived principals as *sometimes* protecting instructional time.

When asked what the principal needs to know and do to support teachers, one teacher stated that the principal needs to “support teachers’ planning time, quit cancelling specials (library, music, PE),” and another stated that the principal needs to “respect our time, be aware of our curriculum, assessments, and schedules.”

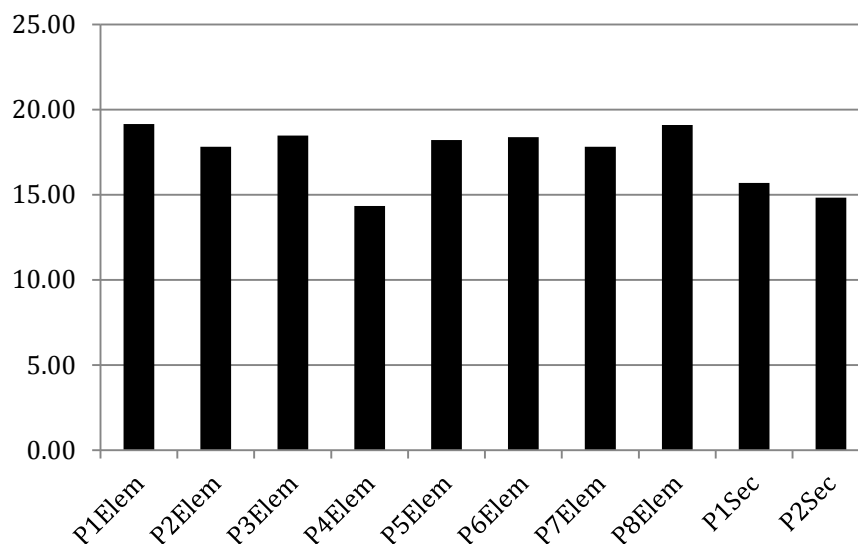


Figure 11. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale Protects Instructional Time.

Maintains High Visibility

Overall, teachers, on average, rated principals between a 2.55 (Seldom range) and 3.84 (Sometimes) on maintaining high visibility (see Table 6), rating highest on covering classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives (Q34) and rating lowest on tutoring students or providing direct instruction to classes (Q35). Individually, principals averaged from as low as 2.45 (Seldom range) to 4.07 (Frequently range) (see Table 7). Figure 12 shows the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Maintains High Visibility. Elementary Principal 4 and Secondary Principal 2 averaged approximately 12 points, indicating teachers felt the principal *seldom* maintained high visibility. The majority of principals were between 15 and 20 points, only Elementary Principal 8 scored above 20 points.

When asked what the principal needs to know and do to support teachers, one teacher stated s/he needed the principal to “limit off-site meetings as much as possible...be visible in classrooms and on campus.” Another teacher stated s/he needs the principal “to get involved with the student body and find more time to interact with

them.” Another teacher stated the principal needed to be “actively involved with students...students would benefit by knowing their principal.” Several teachers expressed that their principal needs to provide opportunities for input, “be more open to our ideas,” “to be more open and welcome to ideas and suggestions given by teachers,” “listen to concerns, allow for open discussion and opinions from others, often if it is not her idea, it’s not considered.”

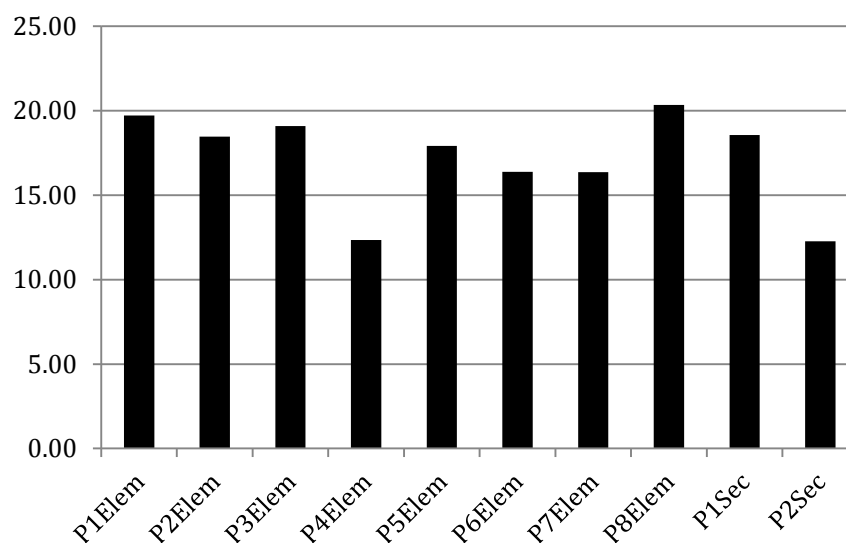


Figure 12. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Maintains High Visibility.

Provides Incentives for Teachers

For the most part, principals were rated lowest on providing incentives for teachers with an overall average of 2.98 and ranging between 2.5 and 3.21 (see Table 6). Teachers rated principals lowest on acknowledging teachers exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files (Q38) and rated principals highest on complimenting teachers privately for their efforts (Q37). Individually, principals ranged from 2.45 (Seldom range) to a 3.84 (Sometimes range) (see Table 7). Figure 13 shows the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Provides Incentives for Teachers. Fifty percent of principals earned averages below 15 points, indicating

teachers felt the principal fell in the *seldom* range in regards to providing incentives for teachers. Four principals scored between 15 and 20 points, indicating teachers felt that these principals *sometimes* displayed behaviors associated with providing incentives for teachers.

Teachers reported that principals needed to “recognize teachers who are making a difference, recognize growth...this might motivate teachers who are stagnant and do not show growth,” “provide more positive reinforcement and recognition,” and “treat us as professionals, find our areas of expertise, do not crucify us.”

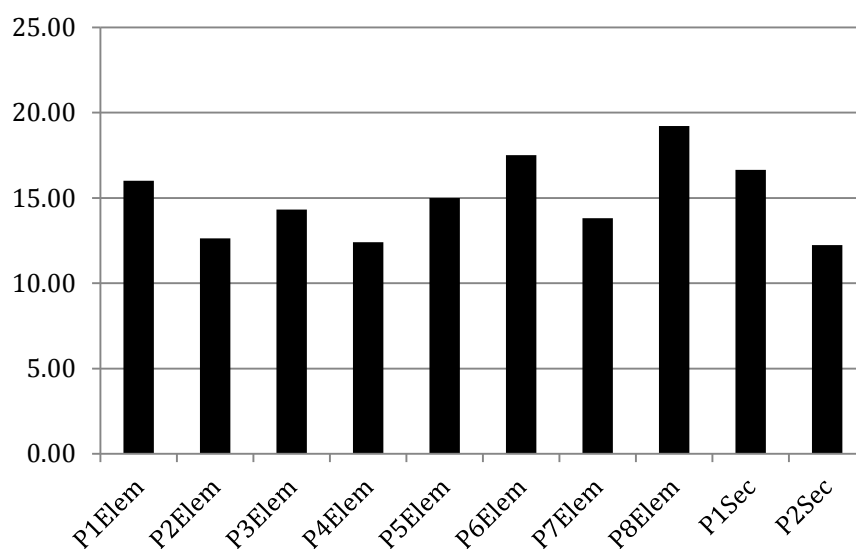


Figure 13. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Provides Incentives for Teachers.

Promotes Professional Development

With an overall average of 3.68, principals were rated the highest on promoting professional development; teachers, on average, rated their principals highest on the principal leading or attending teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction (Q44) and rated principals lowest on actively supporting the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in-service activities (Q42) (see Table 6). Individually, principals ranged from 2.95 (*Seldom* range) to 4.31 (*Frequently* range) (see Table 7). Figure 14 shows the

average total score each principal received on the subscale, Promotes Professional Development. All principals scored above an average of 15 points (Seldom range), except for Secondary principal 2. Two principals scored averages above 20 points, indicating that they *sometimes to frequently* display instructional behaviors associated with promoting professional development.

When asked what the principal needs to do and know in order to support teachers, one teacher commented, “More professional development training for teachers should be provided so teachers will gain more knowledge on his/her content field.” Another stated, “The principal needs to continue training and support teachers and staff.”

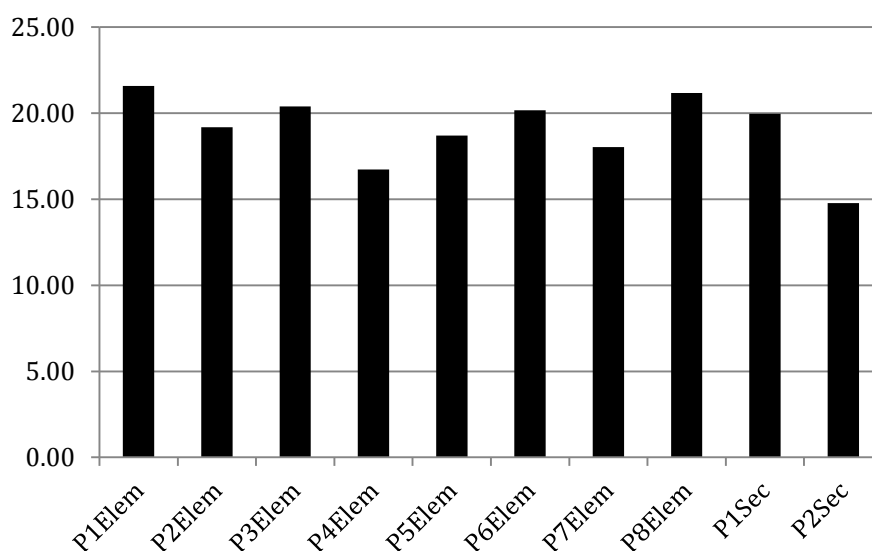


Figure 14. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Promotes Professional Development.

Provides Incentives for Learning

Teachers, on average, rated principals between a 2.79 to a 3.42 on providing incentives for learning (see Table 6). They rated principals lowest on contacting parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions (Q49) and rated principals highest on using assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship (Q47). Individually, the principals’

average score on the subscale ranged from 2.73 (Seldom range) to 4.15 (Frequently range); the majority of principals fell in the Sometimes range (see Table 7). Figure 15 shows the average total score each principal received on the subscale, Provides Incentives for Learning. Three principals scored below the average score of 15 (Sometimes range), with one of those principals scoring close to an average of 10 points, indicating that this principal fell in the *seldom* range. One principal scored above an average of 20 points, indicating that the teachers perceived this principal to frequently provide incentives for learning. One teacher felt that the principal needed to ensure “monthly rewards for children are implemented, like perfect attendance, best reader, etc.”

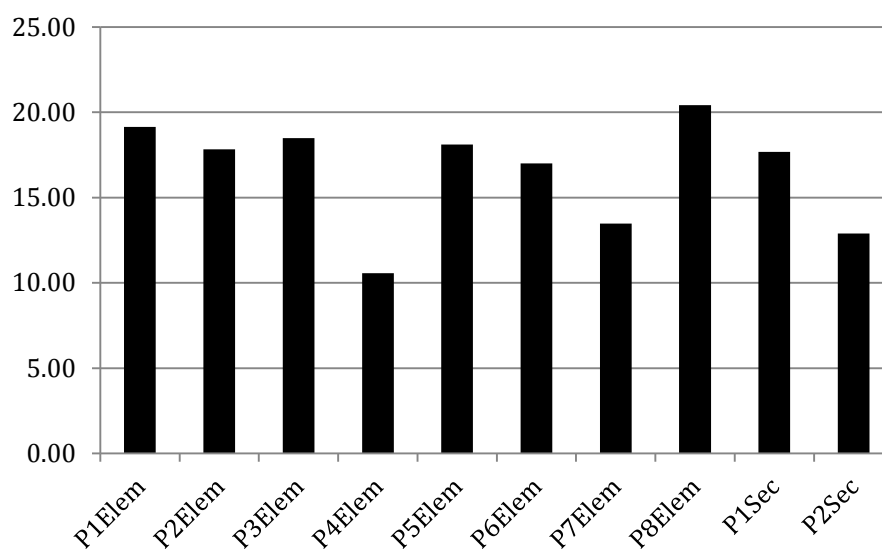


Figure 15. A comparison of the average total score each principal received on the subscale Provides Incentives for Learning.

Comparison of Teachers' Perceptions by Individual Principal

In Figures 16a and 16b, I display the average rating teachers gave each principal on the 10 PIMRS subscales. Principal 4 was rated in the *seldom* range on 9 of the 10 subscales and lowest among principals in 6 of 10 subscales (Supervises and Evaluates Instruction, Protects Instructional Time, Provides Incentives for Learning, Monitors Student Progress, Frames the School's Goals and Communicates the School's Goals) and

second lowest in 4 of 10 subscales (Provides Incentives for Teachers, Coordinates the Curriculum, Maintains High Visibility, and Promotes Professional Development).

Principal 10 was rated in the *seldom* range on 7 of the 10 subscales and in the *sometimes* range on the remaining three subscales. Principal 10 was lowest among principals on four subscales, Provides Incentives for Teachers, Coordinates the Curriculum, Maintains High Visibility, and Promotes Professional Development and second lowest on the remaining six.

Principal 8 was rated in the *frequently* range on 8 of the 10 subscales (Frames the School's Goals, Communicates the School's Goals, Coordinates the Curriculum, Monitors Student Progress, Promotes Professional Development, Supervises and Evaluates Instruction, Provides Incentives for Learning, and Maintains High Visibility) and in the *sometimes* range on the subscales, Provides Incentives for Teachers and Protects Instructional Time. Principal 8 was rated the highest among principals on 7 of 10 subscales and second highest on the remaining 3, scoring lowest on Provides Incentives for Teachers. Principal 1 was rated in the *frequently* range on 4 of the 10 subscales (Communicates the School's Goals, Promotes Professional Development, Frames the School's Goal, and Monitors Student Progress) and in the *sometimes* range on the remaining six, scoring lowest on Provides Incentives for teachers.

Five of the principals scored in the *seldom* range on Provides Incentives for Teachers, making this the lowest scoring subscale among principals. Provides Incentives for Teachers requires principals to reinforce, acknowledge, and reward superior performance through written form, compliment teachers privately for efforts or performance, and create professional development opportunities as a reward.

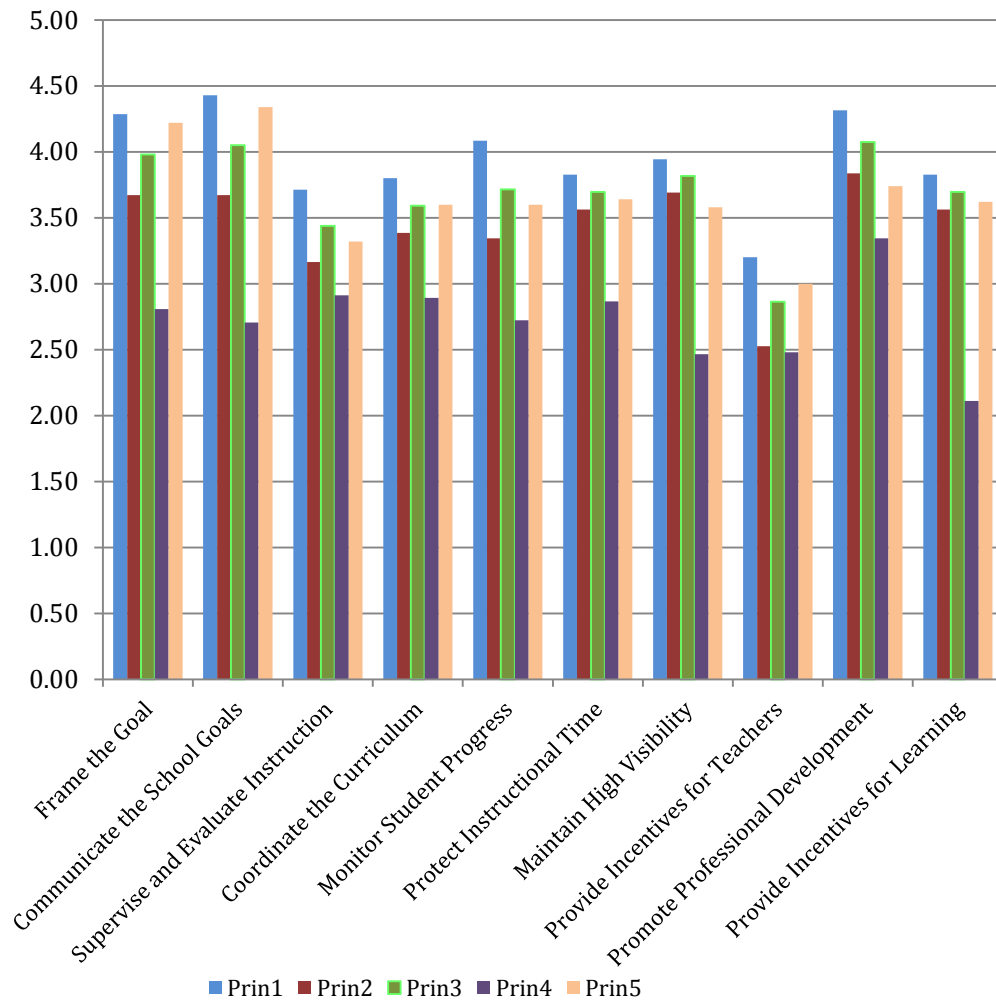


Figure 16a. A comparison of the average total score principals received on each of the subscales, as perceived by their teachers.

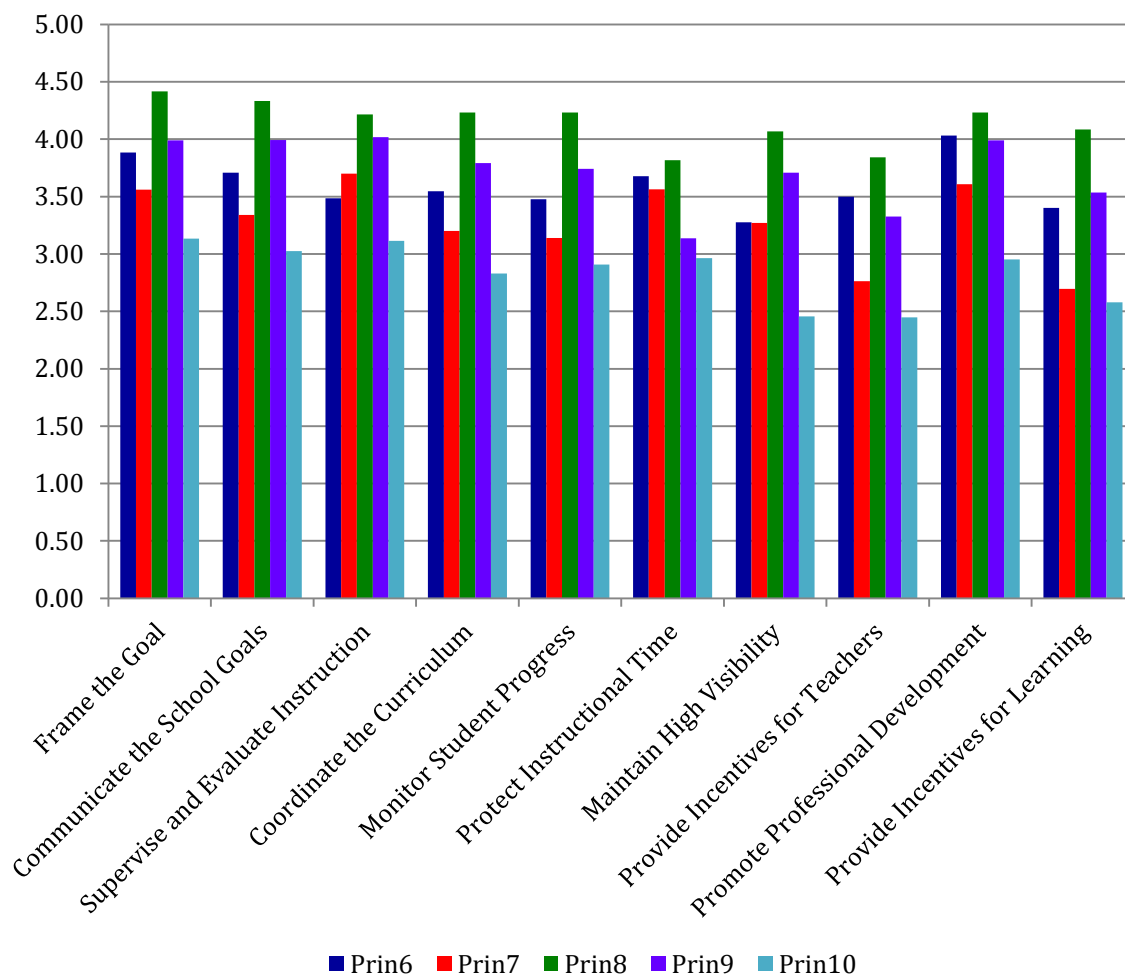


Figure 16b. A comparison of the average total score principals received on each of the subscales, as perceived by their teachers.

Open Ended Responses

I added two open-ended questions to the instrument for teachers: “What does your principal need to know and do in order to support teachers at your school?” and “Is there anything else you would like to add.”

Twenty-eight teachers indicated they had between 1 and 4 years of teaching experience. These teachers specifically indicated that they would like their principals to support them by providing feedback after observations, actively checking on teachers and offering support in the classroom, and communicating better with teachers. One teacher

stated that the principal “should know what we are struggling with in order to help support us.” New teachers need to know what is expected of them and what kinds of support they can expect from principals (Davis & Bloom, 1998). Principals can build relationships with new teachers by maintaining regular communication with teachers, maintaining an open-door policy, providing positive and honest feedback, and fostering a welcoming, nurturing, and collegial work environment (Carver, 2003).

Eight teachers indicated they had between 5-9 years of experience, but only six answered the open-ended question. These teachers stated the principal needs to “know the problems encountered by teachers and address the issues”, and “have clearer goals, recognize students, monitor student progress.” Communication seemed to be a concern with one teacher stating the principal needs to “provide feedback after observations, have clear, delineated expectations, and respond to emails and calls in a timely manner.” Another stated, the principal needs to “forewarn staff of pending changes, rather than “effective immediately.”

One hundred and sixteen teachers that indicated that they have ten or more years of teaching experience answered the open-ended question. Many of their responses could be grouped into categories such as recognition of teachers, communication, favoritism, and input and collaboration.

Comments regarding recognition included:

- “We need more constructive criticism, and more praise for the work we do.”
- “I feel that more recognition of a job well done would be welcome. Small rewards would be welcome also.”
- “Praise and encourage everyone. Don't leave anyone out. When someone is doing a good job, say so.”

Comments regarding favoritism included:

- “There needs to be a sense of equality of input and importance between/among all teachers. At times there seems to be or there is a display of favoritism towards some teachers and this creates a divide in the staff as a whole and distrust between employees. This is a huge problem created by principals, superintendents and board.”
- “Make standards the same for all teachers and staff regardless of their personal relationship with the principal as a family member or friend.”
- “Not have favoritism, treat everyone with respect.”

Teachers’ comments regarding collaboration and input included:

- “First and foremost listen to concerns. Allow for open-discussion and opinions of others. Often it appears as though if it's not his/her idea, it's not considered.”
- “Make time to informally ask if there is any way he/she can help or guide in an area of concern. Teachers might not ask because they’re made to feel he/she's too busy.”
- “Be open-minded to teacher input and suggestions. Be supportive in general, specifically for new teachers.”
- “Needs to be more open and welcome to ideas and suggestions given by teachers. As teachers we need to have discipline issues with students to be taken care of in a timely manner. Be more open to our ideas. Not support just ‘certain’ teachers.”
- “He/she can schedule an informal meeting with each teacher and ask him/her about the problems he/she encounters in class, without pressure and prejudice.”

- “Work with teachers, ask opinions, allow teachers to teach, do not micromanage, we are professionals.”

Principals’ Self-Ratings of Instructional Management

The principals completed a version of the PIMRS that allows them to self-rate on the ten subscales related to instructional leadership behaviors. Only five elementary principals participated in the study; there were no secondary principals who agreed to participate. Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics from the PIMRS for the five elementary principals that took part in the study.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations on the PIMRS Completed by the Principals (N=5)

Variable	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
PIMRS Overall Score	5	3.74	0.21
Frames the School’s Goals	5	3.92	0.48
Communicates the School’s Goals	5	3.80	0.71
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	5	3.64	0.26
Coordinates the Curriculum	5	3.48	0.59
Monitors Student Progress	5	3.36	0.67
Protects Instructional Time	5	3.84	0.38
Maintains High Visibility	5	3.96	0.50
Provides Incentives for Teachers	5	3.68	0.63
Promotes Professional Development	5	4.00	0.51
Provides Incentives for Students	5	3.72	0.52

Results from the analyses of responses to the PIMRS show principals rate themselves highest in the area of Promotes Professional Development ($x = 4.00$). A mean of 4 represents the occurrence of instructional leadership behaviors that are *frequently* displayed in daily practice. For all other categories of job behaviors or practice, the principals rated themselves, on average, as sometimes exhibiting the behavior or practice. The overall mean for all five principals completing the PIMRS was 3.74 ($SD = .21$). Principals rated themselves highest in the job function Promotes Professional

Development (mean = 4.00, $SD = .51$) and lowest in the area of Monitors Student Progress (mean = 3.36, $SD = .67$). The second lowest self-rating for principals in the area of instructional leadership behaviors was Coordinates the Curriculum (mean = 3.48, $SD = .59$), suggesting principals spend little time coordinating curriculum across grade levels, utilizing results from assessments to make curricular decisions, monitoring classroom curriculum, and reviewing curricular materials.

Each subscale contains five items and scores can range from 5 to 25. A score of 5 means that the principal self-rated the frequency of her/his behavior on the five items with a 1 (almost never) and a score of 25 means that the principal self-rated the frequency of her/his behavior on the five items with a 5 (almost always). I considered any score above 15 as positive and scores below 15 as negative because a score of 15 means that the self-ranking of the frequency of behaviors was a 3 for each item (sometimes). Figures 17 through 21 illustrate the average on the principal's self-rating on each of the subcategories.

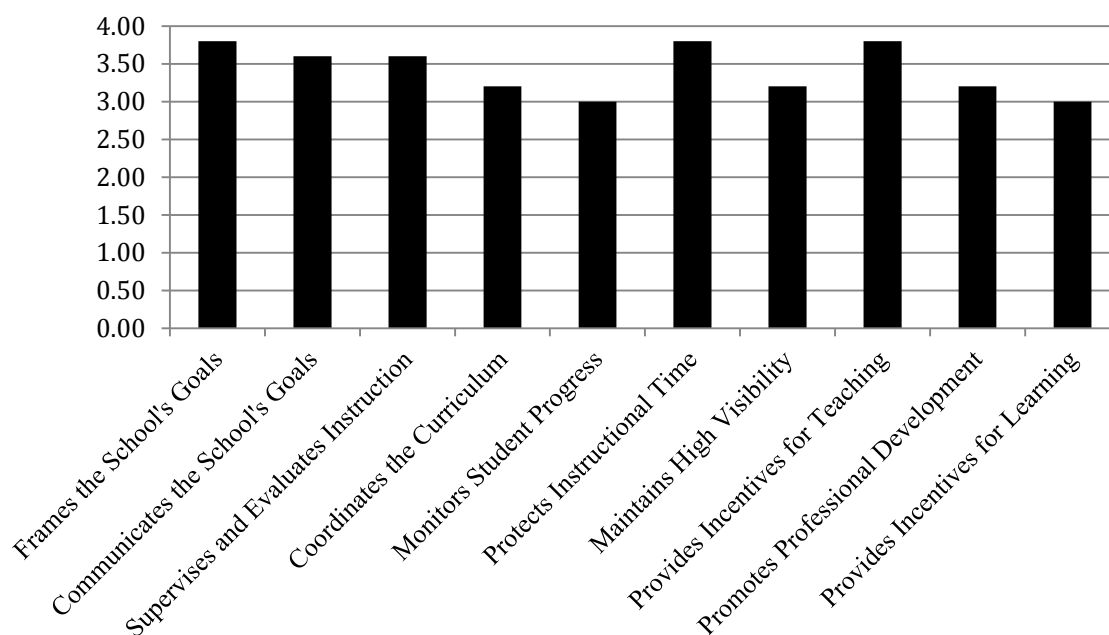


Figure 17. Average, self-rated scores on the PIMRS for Elementary Principal 1.

As illustrated in Figure 17, the highest average subscale scores for Elementary Principal 1 are Frame's the School's Goals (mean = 3.80), Protects Instructional Time, (mean = 3.80), Provides Incentives for Teachers (mean = 3.80). A mean score of 3 represents instructional leadership behaviors that are *sometimes* displayed in daily practice.

Elementary Principal 2 ranked her/himself in the *sometimes* category in the assessment of her/his leadership behaviors in all 10 job functions. When asked, "What does your supervisor need to know and do in order to support principals in your district?" the response was, "Allow more time for on-site time with staff and principal for working on the goals, professional development, etc."

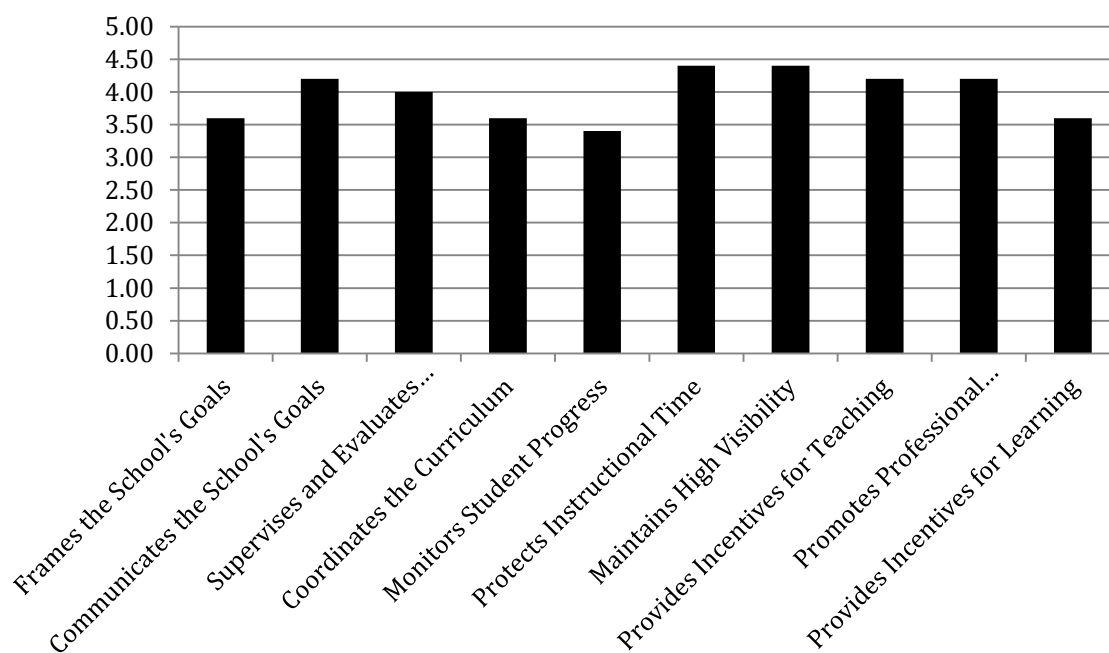


Figure 18. Average, self-rated scores on the PIMRS for Elementary Principal 2.

Results from analyses of responses to the PIMRS show Elementary Principal 2 (Figure 18) rating her/himself highest in the area of Protects Instructional Time (mean = 4.40) and Maintains High Visibility (mean = 4.40). This principal assessed her/himself in the range of *frequently or almost always* for Communicates the School's Goals (mean = 4.20), Provides Incentives for Teachers (mean = 4.20), and Promotes Professional

Development (mean = 4.20). Elementary Principal 2 found that s/he *sometimes* exhibited job functions such as Frames the School's Goals (mean = 3.60), Coordinates the Curriculum (mean = 3.40), Monitors Student Progress (mean=3.40) and Provides Incentives for Learning (mean = 3.60).

As displayed in Figure 19, elementary Principal 3 rated the degree to which s/he exhibited instructional leadership behaviors as *frequently or almost always* on 4 out of 10 job functions and displaying instructional leadership behaviors *sometimes* on Communicates the School's Goals (mean = 3.4), Supervises and Evaluates the Curriculum, (mean = 3.80), Protects Instructional Time (mean = 3.60), and Provides Incentives for Teachers (mean = 3.80). When asked, "What does your supervisor need to know and do in order to support principals in your district?" the response was, "Our needs as a school to include PD, materials and facility needs."

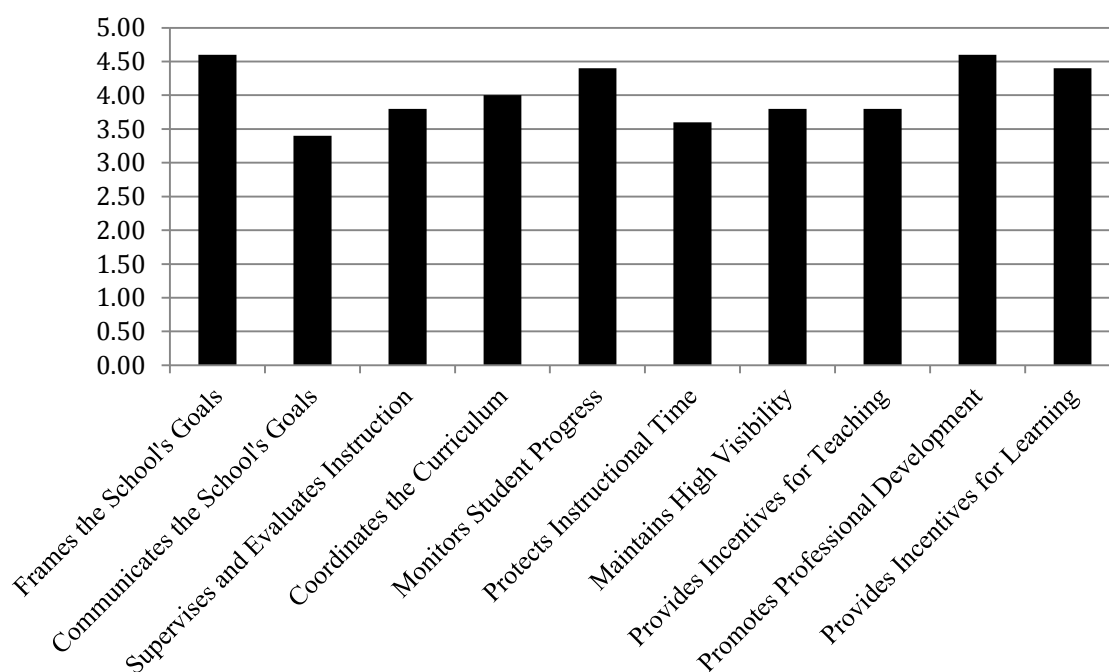


Figure 19. Average, self-rated scores on the PIMRS for Elementary Principal 3.

Results from analyses of responses to the PIMRS show Elementary Principal 4 (Figure 20) rating her/himself highest in the area of Maintains High Visibility (mean =

4.40). Another area for displaying instructional leadership behaviors rated by the principal as *frequently* was Promotes Professional Development (mean = 4.00). The areas for displaying job behaviors or practice identified by Elementary Principal 4 as *sometimes* included the job functions of Frames the School's Goals (mean = 3.40), Coordinates the Curriculum (mean = 3.40), Supervises and Evaluates Instruction (mean = 3.40), Protects Instructional Time (mean = 3.40) and Providing Incentives for Learning (mean = 3.60). Elementary Principal 4 had the lowest total mean subscale scores on Coordinates the Curriculum (mean = 2.60), Monitors Student Progress (mean = 2.60) and Provides Incentives for Learning (mean = 2.60), all in the *seldom* range in terms of displaying specific job functions associated with these categories. When asked, "What does your supervisor need to know and do in order to support principals in your district?" the response was, "It would be helpful if our (school) calendar included on half day per week for PLCs, RtI, and in-service."

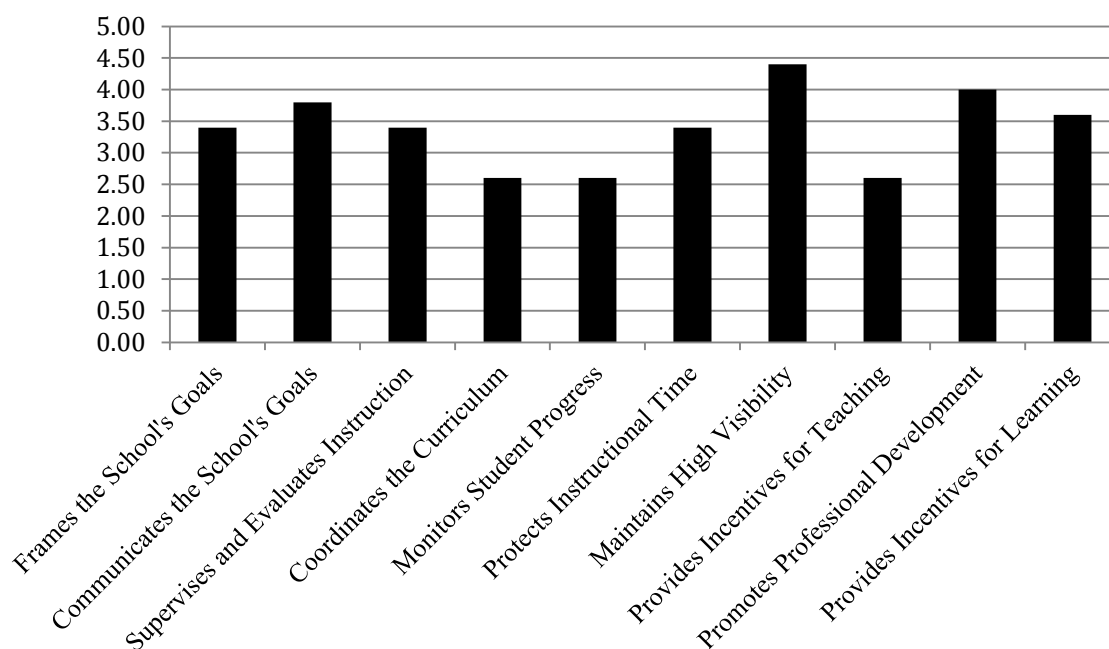


Figure 20. Average, self-rated scores on the PIMRS for Elementary Principal 4.

Elementary Principal 5 rated the frequency of her/his instructional leadership behaviors as *frequently or almost always* on 8 out of 10 job functions and displaying instructional leadership behaviors *sometimes* on Supervises and Evaluates Instruction, (mean = 3.40), and Monitors Student Progress (mean = 3.40) (Figure 21). When asked “What does your supervisor need to know and do in order to support principals in your district?” the response was, “with all the new initiatives, requirements, it is going to take a new principal, like myself, some time to get full “on board” with each one. As we focus on one (PARCC, Teacher Evaluations, Accreditation...) it seems as though others get neglected and fall through the cracks.”

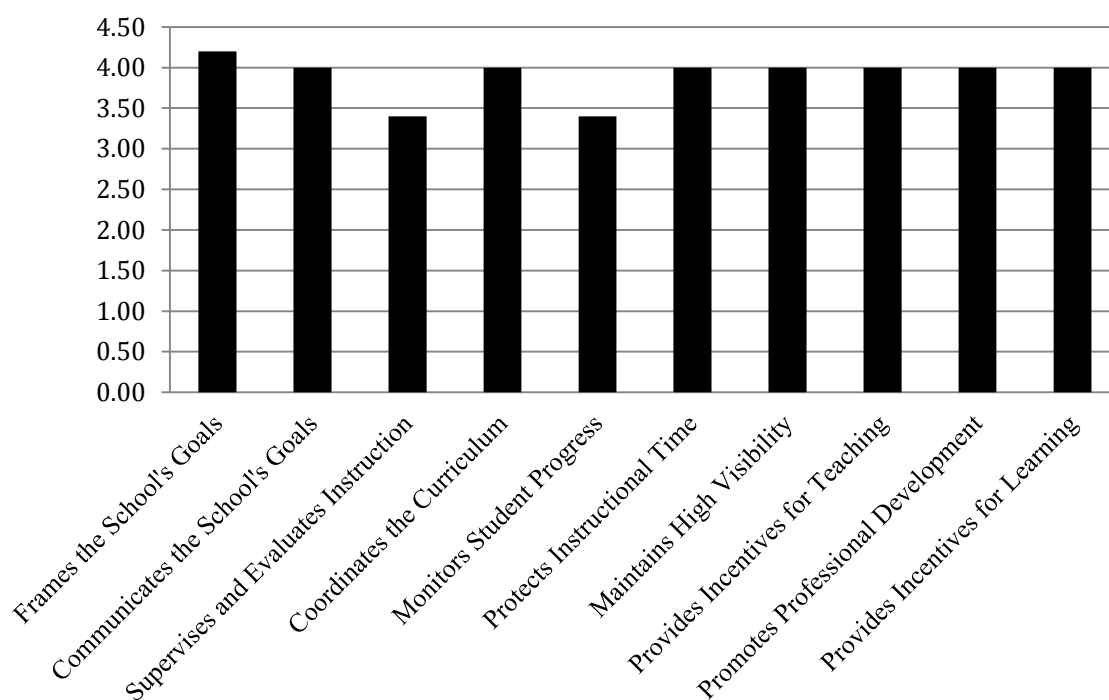


Figure 21. Average, self-rated scores on the PIMRS for Elementary Principal 5.

Table 9 shows the average teacher rating and the average principal self-rating on each of the PIMRS subscales for the elementary teachers and principals. The results of the study show there is a consistent difference at the elementary level in the perceptions

of teachers and principals concerning the level of instructional leadership exercised by the principals.

Table 9

Average Elementary Teacher Ratings and Elementary Principal Self-Ratings on Each of the PIMRS Subscales

PIMRS Scale	Teachers	Principals	Difference
Frames the School's Goals	3.69	3.92	0.23
Communicates the School's Goals	3.61	3.80	0.19
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	3.48	3.64	0.16
Coordinates the Curriculum	3.44	3.48	0.04
Monitors Student Progress	3.40	3.36	-0.04
Protects Instructional Time	3.53	3.84	0.31
Maintains High Visibility	3.36	3.96	0.60
Provides Incentives for Teachers	3.06	3.68	0.62
Promotes Professional Development	3.82	4.00	0.18
Provides Incentives for Learning	3.19	3.72	0.53

Principals, on average, rated themselves higher on nine of the ten subscales, with the difference ranging from 0.04 points to 0.62 points. This finding of differences between the perceptions of teachers and principals is consistent with prior research (e.g., Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The biggest differences were on Provides Incentives for Teachers, with teachers rating principals on average with a 3.06 (Sometimes Range) and principals rating themselves on average with a 3.68 (Sometimes/Frequently range); Maintains High Visibility, with teachers rating principals on average with a 3.36 (Sometimes Range) and principals rating themselves on average with a 3.96 (Sometimes/Frequently range); and, Provides Incentives for Learning with teachers rating principals, on average, at a 3.19 (Sometimes range) and principals rating themselves, on average, at a 3.72 (Sometime/Frequently range).

Looking at the teachers' ratings, seven of the subscale means fell between 3.0 and 3.6: Supervises and Evaluates Instruction, Coordinates the Curriculum, Monitors Student Progress, Protects Instructional Time, Maintains High Visibility, Provides Incentives for Teachers, and Provides Incentives for Learning. Two subscales fell between 3.6 and 3.7: Frames the School's Goals and Communicates the School's Goals. The highest aggregate score achieved among the principals on a subscale was a mean of 3.82 on the function, Promotes Professional Development.

According to the teachers, when analyzed in terms of the three instructional leadership dimensions (Hallinger, 1985), the highest average ratings across the subscales were on the principals' behaviors under *Defining the School's Mission*. For the dimensions of *Developing the School Learning Climate* and *Managing the Instructional Program* the average rating across the subscales was 3.4 (in the sometimes range).

Relationships between demographic factors and subscale scores

Table 10 presents a partial estimated correlation matrix in which I tested bivariate relationships between the teachers' demographic variables and their scores on the PIMRS subscales.

Table 10

*Partial Estimated Correlation Matrix of PIMRS and Demographic Variables**(Spearman's rho, n = 160)*

	LEVEL Grade Level	YEARCUR Years worked with current principal	YEAREXP Years of experience as teacher	GENDER Gender of principal
YEARCUR Years worked with current principal	.236**			
YEARSEXP Years of experience as teacher	-0.048	0.042		
GENDER Gender of principal	0.055	-0.092	0.059	
Scale1Score	0.071	.252**	0.216	-0.094
Scale2Score	0.051	.288**	0.09	-0.065
Scale3Score	-0.019	.157*	0.153	0.059
Scale4Score	0.07	.238**	.215**	-0.033
Scale5Score	0.056	.264**	.180*	-0.075
Scale6Score	.210**	0.151	0.144	-0.087
Scale7Score	0.138	.282**	0.03	0.025
Scale8Score	0.087	.195*	.172*	-0.049
Scale9Score	.166*	.275**	0.126	-0.04
Scale10Score	0.084	.353**	.197*	-0.129

* p < .05, ** p < .001

There was a positive, weak statistically significant correlation ($r = .236, p = .003$) between the number of years the teacher has worked with the principal and the level at which the teacher is teaching (elementary or secondary), indicating that teachers who work at the elementary level tend to have worked with their principal for a longer period of time than those working at the secondary level. There was also a positive, weak statistically significant correlation ($r = .210, p = .008$) between the level at which the teacher is teaching and the Scale6Score (Protects Instructional Time), indicating that teachers who work at the elementary level tend to score their principal higher on the extent to which they protect the teachers' instructional time. Finally, there is a positive, weak statistically significant correlation ($r = .166, p = .036$) between whether the teacher

works at the elementary or secondary level and Scale9Score (Promotes Professional Development), indicating that teachers who work at the elementary level tend to perceive their principal as more frequently supporting teachers' efforts to improve instruction.

The results indicate that there are positive, statistically significant relationships between all subscale scores and the number of years teachers indicated they have worked with their current principal.

The number of years of teaching experience is related to Scale4Score (Coordinates the Curriculum, $r = .215$, $p = .006$), Scale5Score (Monitors Student Progress, $r = .180$, $p = .023$), Scale8Score (Provides Incentives for Teachers, $r = .172$, $p = .030$) and Scale10Score (Provides Incentives for Learning, $r = .098$, $p = .013$).

There are positive, statistically significant relationships between working at the elementary level and the frequency with which principals supervise and evaluate instruction ($r = .153$, $p = .054$), coordinate curriculum ($r = .215$, $p = .006$), monitor student progress ($r = .180$, $p = .023$), provide incentives for teachers ($r = .172$, $p = .030$) and provide incentives for learning ($r = .191$, $p = .013$).

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha

The second research question asked: does the internal consistency of the instrument match that of previous research attempts? The Null Hypothesis (H_0) states: there is no difference in the measures of internal consistency yielded from this study when compared with the measures yielded from previous research.

In order to determine the internal consistency of the PIMRS when tested with a sample of rural teachers, I estimated Cronbach's alpha of reliability coefficient and compared it to Hallinger's (1983) original findings. I also examined an estimated correlation matrix of the relationship between the PIMRS and demographic variables.

The estimated Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for all ten subscales were greater than .80, estimates that fall in the acceptable category (George & Mallery, 2003). The reliability of the entire PIMRS was quite high with an estimated Cronbach's alpha of .985. The estimates of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for the PIMRS subscales based on this study are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Comparison of Estimates of Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for the 10 Subscales on the PIMRS from Hallinger (1983) and Sisneros (2015)

Subscale	Northern New Mexico Sample*	# of Items	Hallinger's (1983) Original Study
Frames the School's Goals	0.99	5	0.89
Communicates the School's Goals	0.94	5	0.89
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	0.91	5	0.90
Coordinate the Curriculum	0.94	5	0.90
Monitors Student Progress	0.91	5	0.90
Protects Instructional Time	0.86	5	0.84
Maintains High Visibility	0.88	5	0.81
Provides Incentives for Teachers	0.91	5	0.78
Promotes Professional Development	0.93	5	0.86
Provides Incentives for Learning	0.93	5	0.87

*Reliability estimates are Cronbach's Alpha coefficients

Validity

Construct validity and instrument validation must be examined to ensure the instrument is actually measuring the constructs that it intends to measure (Vogt, 2007). I used a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the ability of the PIMRS to differentiate among the teachers' perceptions of the instructional leadership behavior of the principals being rated. I compared the variance in teacher ratings of principals within schools with the variance in teacher ratings across schools on each of the subscales. Table 12 presents the results from these analyses.

Table 12

PIMRS Construct Validity: Analysis of Variance by Subscale

Subscale	<i>F</i> value	Significance
Frames the School's Goals	6.25***	0.000
Communicates the School's Goals	5.69***	0.000
Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	3.14***	0.002
Coordinates the Curriculum	3.48***	0.001
Monitors Student Progress	4.07***	0.000
Protects Instructional Time	2.50**	0.011
Maintains High Visibility	6.40***	0.000
Provides Incentives for Teachers	3.75***	0.000
Promotes Professional Development	3.82***	0.000
Provides Incentives for Learning	5.87***	0.000

The results indicate a significantly higher variation in the ratings by teachers between schools than within schools. Statistical significance exceeds the standard of .01 ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$ for nine of the 10 subscales and the standard of .05 for the tenth. This suggests that the PIMRS possesses a high degree of construct validity.

Another way to test construct validity is to compare the “intercorrelation between pairs of subscales with each subscale's reliability coefficient. When the intercorrelation between subscales is lower than the subscale reliability coefficients, it suggests that the subscales are measuring distinguishable constructs” (Hallinger, 1994, p. 18).

When comparing the intercorrelation for the subscales in this study (Table 13) we can see that these estimated correlations are lower than the estimated reliability coefficients in Table 12, thus providing additional evidence of the construct validity of the PIMRS with the data collected in this study.

Table 13

Estimated Correlation Matrix for 10 Subscales on the PIMRS (n = 160)

	Sub1	Sub2	Sub3	Sub4	Sub5	Sub6	Sub7	Sub8	Sub9	Sub10
Sub1	1									
Sub2	.865**	1								
Sub3	.752**	.774**	1							
Sub4	.796**	.814**	.831**	1						
Sub5	.790**	.831**	.848**	.882**	1					
Sub6	.682**	.683**	.621**	.662**	.697**	1				
Sub7	.721**	.787**	.708**	.747**	.804**	.718**	1			
Sub8	.643**	.730**	.690**	.737**	.764**	.677**	.728**	1		
Sub9	.764**	.761**	.680**	.773**	.742**	.709**	.736**	.725**	1	
Sub10	.734**	.742**	.669**	.767**	.789**	.656**	.764**	.765**	.758**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Other studies of the PIMRS' validity have tended to focus on establishing face, content and construct validity of the instrument and provide reliable data on instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2011).

Summary

In this section, I present each research question and a summary of the findings that helped me answer the questions.

Research Question 1

Based on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), how do teachers in the Española Public Schools perceive the instructional management of their principals?

Teachers rated the frequency of their principal's instructional leadership behaviors between *seldom* and *sometimes* on all of the PIMRS subscales, whereas principals self-rated between *sometimes* and *frequently*. The results of the study show there is a consistent difference in the perceptions of teachers and principals concerning the level of instructional leadership exercised by the principals. On nine of ten subscales, the principals perceived themselves as exercising more active instructional leadership than that perceived by their teachers. This finding of differences between the perceptions of teachers and principals is consistent with prior research (e.g., Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Research Question 2

To what extent is the PIMRS reliable and valid when administered to a sample of teachers and principals from a rural, northern New Mexico, predominantly Hispanic-serving school district?

I utilized estimates of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient to determine the reliability of the instrument and compared my findings to Hallinger's (1983) original findings. Based on the data from this study, the estimated Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for all ten subscales were greater than .80, estimates that fall in the acceptable category (George & Mallery, 2003). Also based on this study, the reliability of the entire PIMRS was quite high, with an estimated Cronbach's alpha of .985 and again similar to findings from previous studies.

I conducted a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if the PIMRS could differentiate among the teachers' perceptions of the instructional leadership behavior of the principals being rated. The results indicate a significantly higher variation in the ratings by teachers between schools than within schools. Statistical significance exceeds the standard of .01 for nine of the 10 subscales and the standard of .05 for the tenth. This suggests that the PIMRS possesses a high degree of construct validity.

Chapter 5

Conclusions and Recommendations

The purposes of this study were to 1) determine to what extent the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) is reliable and valid when administered to a sample of teachers and principals from a rural, northern New Mexico, predominantly Hispanic-service school district and 2) to look at teachers' perceptions of their principal's instructional management as it relates to the 10 subcategories on the PIMRS.

I begin with an explanation of the findings included in Chapter 4. I continue with a discussion of limitations, implications, directions for future research, a discussion of how to address the challenges of rural school principals and a summary of results.

Research Questions and Explanation of Findings

The first research question I sought to answer was: Based on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), how do teachers in the Española Public Schools perceive the instructional management of their principals? Based on the teachers' rating, they perceived their principal to display the leadership behaviors outlined on the PIMRS between *seldom* and *sometimes*. Even though, for the most part, principals rated themselves higher than the teachers, I was surprised that their self-ratings only fell in the *sometimes/frequently* range. This suggests to me that they may also see a need for better understanding of their roles and responsibilities. This in turn provides possible directions for professional development.

The second research question I sought to answer was: To what extent is the PIMRS reliable and valid when administered to a sample of teachers and principals from a rural, northern New Mexico, predominantly Hispanic-serving school district?

In this study, reliability was tested through estimates of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient and an estimated Spearman correlation matrix. Internal consistency

is a measure based on the correlations between different items on the same test; internal consistency was measured with Cronbach's alpha, calculated from the pairwise correlations between items (Knapp, 1991). George and Mallery (2003) present a commonly accepted rule-of-thumb for describing internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha where values greater than .9 are considered excellent, values of .7 up to .9 are considered good, values of .6 to .7 are considered acceptable, and values lower than of .5 to .6 are considered poor, and below .5 as unacceptable. The estimates of Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for eight of the 10 functional subscales can be considered *excellent* and two fall in the *good* range. The estimates ranged from a low of .86 for "Protects Instructional Time" to a high of .99 for "Frames the School's Goals" and were consistent with Hallinger's (1983) findings.

The original validation study found that the PIMRS met high standards of reliability (Hallinger, 1982). In this case, all ten subscales exceed .80 using Cronbach's test of internal consistency.

A statistically significant correlation was found between the number of years the teacher had worked with the current principal and the extent to which the principal: Frames the School's Goals ($r = .252, p < .001$), Communicates the School's Goals ($r = .288, p < .001$), Supervised and Evaluated Instruction ($r = .157, p < .05$), Coordinates the Curriculum ($r = .238, p < .001$), Monitors Student Progress ($r = .264, p < .001$), Maintains High Visibility ($r = .282, p < .001$), Provided Incentives for Teachers ($r = .194, p < .05$), Promotes Professional Development ($r = .275, p < .001$), and Provides Incentives for Learning ($r = .353, p < .001$).

The total years of experience as a teacher was shown to have a statistically significant relationship with Coordinates the Curriculum ($r = .215, p < .001$), Monitors

Student Progress ($r = .180, p < .05$), Provides Incentives for Teachers ($r = .172, p < .05$), and Providing Incentives for Learning ($r = .197, p < .05$).

The results of the study show there are consistent differences in the perceptions of teachers and principals concerning the level of instructional leadership exercised by the principals. On nine of the ten subscales, the principals perceived themselves as exercising more active instructional leadership than that perceived by their teachers. This finding of differences between the perceptions of teachers and principals is consistent with prior research (e.g., Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The PIMRS demonstrated attributes of predictive ability because its ability to predict more positive attitudes of teachers towards their principals leadership behaviors. Differences in perceptions may be attributed to a misunderstanding of what the principal's role is as a leader in the school. The role of the principal is ever changing. The principal is responsible for providing leadership and school reform within the school where he/she works. Principals are responsible for interacting with parents who serve on advisory boards, parent/teacher organizations, and booster clubs (Education Encyclopedia, 2015). Because the work of a school leader is ever evolving, principals and teachers may not have a clear understanding of what those roles and responsibilities are. It is quite possible that due to the amount of turnover in the district, the teachers have not formed positive attitudes toward the principal.

The school district can help principals become better leaders by addressing gaps in principals' instructional leadership behavior through professional development and clearly defining instructional leadership roles so that administrators and teachers clearly understand what is expected of the principal (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Limitations

As is the case with all research, this study has limitations. The first limitation is the inclusion of only one district in the study. The district is a small one, with 11

elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school. While the findings cannot be generalized to other geographic regions with similar demographic characteristics, the results are similar to other studies using the PIMRS to collect data.

Implications

This study supports the use of the PIMRS as a valid and reliable tool for measuring teachers' perceptions of principal leadership behaviors with rural schoolteachers. Probably the biggest implication from the substantiation of this tool as a valid and reliable instrument is the potential for its expanded use in other rural school districts. Prior to this current study, the instrument had been normed in urban school districts in the United States (Coltharp, 1989; Hallinger, 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Jones, 1987; Krug, 1986; Lehl, 1989). Hallinger, Taraseina, and Miller (1994) conducted a study in Thailand, and Saavadra (1985) conducted a study in Malaysia.

Ultimately, school principals and the decisions they make at the school level are critical to raising student achievement (Leithwood et al., 2004). Principals are accountable for student success and must have knowledge and skills that had not been required in the past (Hoachlander, Alt, & Beltranena, 2001). Principals need to have an understanding of instructional practices that contribute to student academic success and the capacity to work with school staff to implement these practices (Hoachlander, Alt, & Beltranena, 2001). The effectiveness of building principals as instructional leaders is based on a combination of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills (Hallinger, 2003). Rural school districts will be able to use data from the instrument to evaluate principals and design professional development for principals around leadership and instructional behaviors as they relate to school improvement.

Directions for Future Research

The findings from my study suggest additional areas to explore, including: 1) whether or not teachers would be willing to rate principals higher if they had worked with them longer; 2) how to differentiate rural culture vs. urban culture in research on principals; 3) a better understanding of the institutional supports and incentives that could contribute to principals wanting to become better instructional leaders; and, 4) whether or not there is a need to reconceptualize the correlates of effective leadership when thinking about rural principals.

Addressing the Challenges of Rural School Principals

If I were the superintendent of this district, I would use the results to work with principals on creating professional development plans, not only to address perceptions, but also to address the professional development principals need to be more effective administrators and as a basis for planning and evaluating the district professional development programs (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Examples of the professional development that would be required for all principals based on this study include the use of school and student data to inform decisions around goal setting, curriculum and instruction, teacher evaluation, and evaluation of programs. Principals need adequate learning supports if they are to use data to improve practice (Datnow, 2007; Ingram, Louis, & Schroeder, 2004; Supovitz & Klien, 2003). Based on the answers teachers gave on the open-ended questions, professional development for principals could focus on effective communication strategies, creating and communicating the school's vision, mission, goals and expectations for teachers and learning.

Principals will continue to need professional development in the use of technology as a communication tool, as a tool to analyze data, and as a tool to warehouse

information. Technology can also be used to address professional development needs for principals through on-line courses, video conferencing, and webinars (De Ruyck, 2005).

Working in a rural school district can be challenging for principals. Challenges include geographic and cultural isolation. It can be difficult to attain a position as a principal in a rural school district if candidates do not have some type of affiliation with the community (Preston et al., 2013). “Possessing personal and/or historic ties to the community impacts the principal’s ability to deal with tensions that may spill into the school from the community” (Preston et al., 2013, p. 3).

Challenges faced by rural school principals are unique to each district. They might include pressure from political groups, the need to become acquainted with the district and community, deciding who to trust, and a lack of people in whom to confide (Czaja, 1997, p. 2). Rural school principals must be aware of the politics that come into play, because of the likelihood of community members being related to one another (De Ruyck, 2005). It is also important for principals to form relationships within the community. Principals need to understand local knowledge, histories, key figures, and rituals (Murphy, 1996). Rural school principals often do not have the means to separate themselves from the political arena as administrators do in larger districts (De Ruyck, 2005).

Summary

Chapter 5 included an overview of the study, the conclusions, various implications, and recommendations based on the analysis of the collected data. The purpose of this quantitative research study was to determine the reliability and validity of the PIMRS when administered to teachers and principals in a rural school district in northern New Mexico and based on the PIMRS, how teachers in this district perceive the instructional management of principals.

The present study was the first attempt to examine in this school district the teachers' perceptions of principal leadership behaviors on the 10 instructional leadership functions outlined in the PIMRS. In addition, the study is one of the very few to look at principals' leadership behaviors using the PIMRS in a rural, poor, predominantly Hispanic school district. These results address gaps in the literature.

Findings from the study indicate that this tool is a valid and reliable tool to measure teachers' perceptions of principal leadership behaviors in a rural school district. The findings can assist districts in creating professional development for principals and assist in principal evaluation. For individual principals these data can be used to identify aspects of the instructional leadership role. Comparisons of principal self-assessment data with teacher perceptions can be used for goal-setting or problem solving (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987).

Principals need to understand their roles and responsibilities in order to lead effective schools. Using this instrument and others like it would help establish a baseline of principals' behaviors and start conversations around the kinds of professional development, support, and mentoring that both novice and veteran principals alike so rightly deserve.

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Appendix A

Correspondence with Dr. Hallinger



Christiana Valdez <csisneros723@gmail.com>

FW: [Junk released by Allowed List] Re: PIMRS

3 messages

Christiana Blea-Valdez <christiana.valdez@k12espanola.org>
 To: "csisneros723@gmail.com" <csisneros723@gmail.com>

Thu, Jun 19, 2014 at 8:40 AM

From: Philip Hallinger [hallinger@gmail.com]
 Sent: Thursday, November 21, 2013 3:21 PM
 To: Christiana Blea-Valdez
 Subject: [Junk released by Allowed List] Re: PIMRS

Christiana

Thank you for your interest in using the PIMRS in your research.

Choice of a validated instrument is an important step in your doctoral journey. To date it has been used successfully to collect data in over 250 Master and Doctoral dissertations as well as in other studies. The PIMRS is available to graduate student researchers for a reduced user fee of \$100.

For the fee I will send you:

- * permission to make copies of the instrument for your study,
- * master copies of the instrument,
- * a user manual and
- * related support materials.

I also require that registered users supply me with a copy of their data set and a soft file copy of their completed study for use in further instrument development.

If you wish to purchase the instrument for your study, please send a personal check in my name to me at:

Philip Hallinger
 3240 Lake Pointe Blvd. #202 <x-apple-data-detectors://7>
 Sarasota, FL, 34231 <x-apple-data-detectors://7>

Please inform me by email because I am not physically at that address. I will send the materials by email immediately by email, once you confirm your intent to purchase the right to use PIMRS.

I will follow up later with an email granting you permission to make copies of the instrument for your research once the check is received. Then I will send you a final letter granting you permission to reproduce the scale as an appendix in your dissertation once the data set and soft file copy of your completed study have been received.

I am attaching recent papers that will be of interest to you. I will send some more with the scale if you decide to use it.

Thanks for your interest and best regards.

Prof. Hallinger

Philip Hallinger
 Thai +668 1881 1667
 HK +852 6129 4624
 Viet +849 4729 7428

Sent from my iPhone pls forgive the typos

On Nov 22, 2013, at 1:36 AM, Christiana Blea-Valdez <christiana.valdez@k12espanola.org <mailto:christiana.valdez@k12espanola.org>> wrote:

I am working on my dissertation at the University of New Mexico. I am seeking permission to use the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale for my research. My research question What is the relationship between the variation in student performance and the leadership characteristic of the school principal?

I would like to utilize both the teacher and principal forms. Please tell me how to go about obtaining access to this tool. Will you need me to submit my approved IRB to you?

CONFIDENTIALITY NOTICE

This message, including all attachments, may contain privileged and confidential information intended only for the use of the addressee/s named above. Unauthorized use or disclosure of confidential student information is prohibited under the Federal Family Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA). If you are not the intended recipient of this message you are hereby notified that any use, distribution or reproduction of this message, partial or in its entirety, is prohibited. If you have received this message in error please notify the sender of this message immediately.

Please consider the environment before printing this email.

Christiana Blea-Valdez <christiana.valdez@k12espanola.org>
 To: "csisneros723@gmail.com" <csisneros723@gmail.com>

Thu, Jun 19, 2014 at 8:39 AM

Appendix B

UNM IRB Approval



DATE: November 26, 2014

REFERENCE #: 12414

PROJECT TITLE: [636335-1] Assessing instructional leadership in rural New Mexico: An exploration of the reliability and validity of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

PI OF RECORD: Allison Borden

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

BOARD DECISION: APPROVED

EFFECTIVE DATE: November 26, 2014

EXPIRATION DATE: November 25, 2015

REVIEW TYPE: Expedited Review

REVIEW CATEGORY: Expedited review category 7

SUBPART DECISION: Not Applicable

PROJECT STATUS: Active - Open to Enrollment

DOCUMENTS:

- Application Form - Revised Project Information Form (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Consent Form - Consent form for anonymous surveys (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Letter - Letter of permission to use instruments from Phillip Hallinger (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Letter - Letter of support for the project from school district (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Other - Raffle ticket to be added as a final page to the questionnaire (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Other - Survey administration script (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Other - Information sheet for project (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Other - Dissertation Committee Approval Form (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Other - Departmental Review Form (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Other - Project Team Form (UPDATED: 08/27/2014)
- Protocol - Protocol (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Questionnaire/Survey - PIMRS instrument for principals (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)
- Questionnaire/Survey - PIMRS instrument for teachers (UPDATED: 07/21/2014)

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The University of New Mexico (UNM) IRB Main Campus has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate

risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. This determination applies only to the activities described in the submission and does not apply should any changes be made to these documents. If changes are being considered, it is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to submit an amendment to this project for IRB review and receive IRB approval prior to implementing the changes. A change in the research may disqualify this research from the current review category.

The University of New Mexico (UNM) IRB Main Campus has determined the following:

Informed consent must be obtained and documentation of informed consent has been waived for this project. To obtain consent, use only approved consent document(s).

All reportable events must be promptly reported to the UNM IRB, including: UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to participants or others, SERIOUS adverse events, UNEXPECTED adverse events, NON-COMPLIANCE issues, and COMPLAINTS. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

The UNM IRB approved the project using Expedited procedures from November 26, 2014 to November 25, 2015 inclusive. A continuing review or closure submission is due no later than October 26, 2015. It is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to apply for continuing review and receive continuing approval for the duration of this project. If this project lapses past the expiration date, all research related activities must stop and further action may be required by the IRB.

Please use the appropriate reporting forms and procedures to request amendments, continuing review, closure, and reporting of events for this project.

Please note that all IRB records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the closure of this project.

The Office of the IRB can be contacted through: mail at MSC02 1665, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131-0001; phone at 505.277.2644; email at irbmaincampus@unm.edu; or in-person at 1805 Sigma Chi Rd. NE, Albuquerque, NM 87106. You can also visit our website at irb.unm.edu.

Sincerely,



J. Scott Tonigan, PhD
IRB Chair

Appendix C

PIMRS-Teacher Form

PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT

RATING SCALE

TEACHER FORM

Published by:

Dr. Philip Hallinger

7250 Golf Pointe Way

Sarasota, FL 34243

Leadingware.com

813-354-3543

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Teacher Form 2.0

**THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

PART I: Please provide the following information about yourself:

(A) School Name: _____

(B) Years, at the end of this school year, that you have worked with the current principal:

____1 ____5-9 ____more than 15

____2-4 ____10-15

(C) Years experience as a teacher at the end of this school year:

____1 ____5-9 ____more than 15

____2-4 ____10-15

PART II: This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal leadership. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principal job practices and behaviors. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your observations of the principal's leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice of this principal during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represent *Almost Always*

4 represents *Frequently*

3 represent *Sometimes*

2 represent *Seldom*

1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question. Thank you.

To what extent does your principal . . . ?

	ALMOST NEVER		ALMOST ALWAYS		
I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS					
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's 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
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISE & EVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER		ALMOST ALWAYS		
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5

14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

III. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM

16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	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
---	---	---	---	---	---

19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS

21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

	ALMOST NEVER		ALMOST ALWAYS		
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that in service activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in service training	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Professor Dr. Philip Hallinger, author of the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale* (PIMRS), received his doctorate in Administration and Policy Analysis from Stanford University.

He has worked as a teacher, administrator, and professor and as the director of several leadership development centers. He has been a consultant to education and healthcare organizations throughout the United States, Canada, Asia, and Australia. He is currently Professor and Executive Director of the College of Management, Mahidol University, in Thailand.

The *PIMRS* was developed with the cooperation of the Milpitas (California) Unified School District, Richard P. Mesa, Superintendent. As a research instrument, it meets professional standards of reliability and validity and has been used in over 150 studies of principal leadership in the United States, Canada, Australia, Europe, and Asia.

The scale is also used by school districts for evaluation and professional development purposes.

It surpasses legal standards for use as a personnel evaluation instrument and has been recommended by researchers interested in professional development and district improvement (see, for example, Edwin Bridges, *Managing the Incompetent Teacher*, ERIC, 1984). Articles on the development and use of the *PIMRS* have appeared in *The Elementary School Journal*, *Administrators Notebook*, *NASSP Bulletin*, and *Educational Leadership*.

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Appendix D

Information Sheet

Research Project: Assessing instructional leadership in rural New Mexico: An exploration of the reliability and validity of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS).

Student Investigator: Christiana M. Sisneros

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Allison Borden, Associate Professor of Education, University of New Mexico

You are being invited to take part in this research study because you are a teacher in the Española Public Schools and are over 18 years of age. This survey is being conducted by Christiana M. Sisneros in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of education in the Educational Leadership program at the University of New Mexico.

Why is this study being conducted?

This project focuses on teacher's perceptions of school principal leadership behaviors. This study examines the validity and reliability of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale developed by Dr. Phillip Hallinger. Information shared as part of this study will be used to inform practice and professional development around school and principal leadership.

How many people will take part in this study?

All current teachers in the Española Public Schools will be invited to participate in this study.

What is involved in this study?

Participation in this study will consist of completion of a 50-statement questionnaire that describes principal job practices and behaviors and your observation of the principal's leadership. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. The survey is completely anonymous. This study only involves the completion of the survey.

What are the risks and discomforts of the study?

There are no foreseeable risks associated with this study. Your involvement in the study will have no consequences, disciplinary or otherwise, for you or your school.

What are the benefits of participating in the study?

There may be no direct benefits to you for participating. Data gained from your survey will become the finding for the dissertation. These findings may add to the body of knowledge related to principal leadership and effective schools.

Are there any costs?

The only cost is your time to participate.

What is the compensation?

You will not receive any compensation for participating in the study. However, you will have an opportunity to submit your name to be included in a drawing for a Kindle Fire, gift certificate to a local restaurant, or a \$25 gift card to Walmart. When you finish the

questionnaire, you will complete and detach the bottom of the cover page and deposit it in a secured box. That will be your “entry” or “raffle” ticket.

Can you withdraw from the study?

Participation is voluntary and you may choose to terminate participation in the study any time prior to completion and submission of the survey. If you choose to withdraw, you should leave the room and not submit your survey. If you begin the survey and choose to withdraw before completion you should simply leave the room and discard the incomplete survey. There is no consequence for withdrawing from the study.

What about confidentiality

The information that you provide is anonymous and will be kept confidential. You will not be identified in any reports or papers. All surveys will be kept in a secure and locked cabinet outside the district. Only the student investigator and her advisor will have access to this information.

Contact Information

Should you have further questions or concerns about this research you may contact Christiana Sisneros or her advisor, Dr. Allison Borden, at the address and telephone number given below. If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in a research project or for more information on how to proceed should you believe that you have been injured as a result of your participation in this study, you should contact the UNM Office of the IRB at (505) 277-2644 or email at irbmaincampus@unm.edu.

Principal Investigator: Christiana M. Sisneros

Address: 4517 Camino San Juan

Santa Fe, NM 87507

Email: csisne02@unm.edu

Telephone: 505-980-7708

Name of Faculty Sponsor: Dr. Allison Borden

Address: University of New Mexico, 309 Hokona Hall, MSCOS 3040, College of Education, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131-1231

Email: allisonmborden@gmail.com

Telephone: 505-277-1285

Statement of consent

You have been given and have read or have had read to you a summary of this research study. Participation in this study is voluntary and you may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty or prejudice. Your decision whether or not to participate will not impact your past (or future) involvement in the Espanola Public School District.

Appendix E

Survey Administration Script

I'd like to inform you about an opportunity to participate in a research study about principal leadership behaviors, which will take about 10-15 minutes of your time. In order to encourage a high rate of return, the primary investigator of this study has offered to raffle a Kindle Fire, a gift certificate to a local restaurant, and a \$25 gift certificate to Walmart. If you wish to learn more about the study, please remain in the room. The choice is up to you to participate—it is entirely voluntary. If you do not wish to participate you may leave the room at any time without consequence.

Thank you for your time, my name is Myra Martinez, and I am assisting with the administration of this research project regarding teachers' perceptions about principal leadership behaviors. The information sheet I'm distributing gives some important information about the study.

Please follow along as I review this sheet with you.

- (Read the sheet word for word)

Does anyone have any questions? This form is for you to keep. Those who agree to complete the survey should remain in the room.

- (Allow time to leave)

This study is not a test, but rather a questionnaire on your observations of the principal's leadership practices and behaviors. There are not right or wrong answers. It is important for you to answer the survey with full honesty.

This study only involves completion of the survey. Let me assure you once again that your responses are anonymous.

If you choose to complete the survey please be sure to answer all questions and fill out all information requested at the top of the questionnaire. I ask that you place your completed questionnaires in the envelope provided, seal and place in the secured box provided. You will detach and complete the cover sheet and place that in the additional secured box provided, this will serve as your raffle ticket for the drawing that will be conducted at the completion of the data collection for this study.

Once I distribute the questionnaires I will need to leave the room. Does anyone have any final questions before I leave the room?

Thanks so much to everyone for participating.

Appendix F**Raffle Ticket**

To be eligible for the drawing for a Kindle Fire, a gift certificate to a local restaurant, or a \$25 gift certificate to Walmart, please complete this sheet.

You should detach this sheet from your questionnaire and deposit it in the secured box.

Name: _____

Phone number: _____

School: _____

Appendix G

IRB Approval- Amendment/Modification Principal Form



Office of the
Institutional Review Board

DATE: April 7, 2015

REFERENCE #: 12414

PROJECT TITLE: [636335-2] Assessing instructional leadership in rural New Mexico: An exploration of the reliability and validity of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

PI OF RECORD: Allison Borden

SUBMISSION TYPE: Amendment/Modification

BOARD DECISION: APPROVED

EFFECTIVE DATE: April 6, 2015

EXPIRATION DATE: November 25, 2015

REVIEW TYPE: Expedited Review

REVIEW CATEGORY: Expedited review category 7

SUBPART DECISION: Not Applicable

PROJECT STATUS: Active - Open to Enrollment

DOCUMENTS:

- Application Form - Amendment Application (UPDATED: 03/16/2015)
- Consent Form - Consent Principals (UPDATED: 03/16/2015)

Expedited review of this submission occurred on April 6, 2015 and requested modifications were reviewed using Expedited procedures on April 6, 2015.

Thank you for your submission of Amendment/Modification materials for this project. The University of New Mexico (UNM) IRB Main Campus has APPROVED your submission. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. This determination applies only to the activities described in the submission and does not apply should any changes be made to these documents. If changes are being considered, it is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to submit an amendment to this project for IRB review and receive IRB approval prior to implementing the changes. A change in the research may disqualify this research from the current review category.

The University of New Mexico (UNM) IRB Main Campus has determined the following:

Informed consent must be obtained and documentation of informed consent has been waived for this project. To obtain consent, use only approved consent document(s).

All reportable events must be promptly reported to the UNM IRB, including: UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to participants or others, SERIOUS adverse events, UNEXPECTED adverse events, NON-COMPLIANCE issues, and COMPLAINTS. All FDA and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

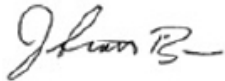
The UNM IRB approved the project using Expedited procedures from April 6, 2015 to November 25, 2015 inclusive. A continuing review or closure submission is due no later than October 26, 2015. It is the responsibility of the Principal Investigator to apply for continuing review and receive continuing approval for the duration of this project. If this project lapses past the expiration date, all research related activities must stop and further action may be required by the IRB.

Please use the appropriate reporting forms and procedures to request amendments, continuing review, closure, and reporting of events for this project.

Please note that all IRB records must be retained for a minimum of three years after the closure of this project.

The Office of the IRB can be contacted through: mail at MSC02 1665, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131-0001; phone at 505.277.2644; email at irbmaincampus@unm.edu; or in-person at 1805 Sigma Chi Rd. NE, Albuquerque, NM 87106. You can also visit our website at irb.unm.edu.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "J. Scott Tonigan". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a large initial "J" and a stylized "B" at the end.

J. Scott Tonigan, PhD
IRB Chair

Appendix H

PIMRS-Principal Form

**PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

Principal Form

Published by:

Dr. Philip Hallinger

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Bangkok, 10110 Thailand
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Hallinger@gmail.com

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Principal Form 2.1

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale

Part I: Please provide the following information about yourself:

(A) Elementary Secondary

(B) Number of years you have been a principal at this school:

1 5-9 more than 15

2-4 10-15

(C) Years experience as a principal at the end of this year:

1 5-9 more than 15

2-4 10-15

(D) Gender Male Female

Part II: This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal leaderships. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principal job practices and behaviors. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your observations of the principal's leadership.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice of this principal. For the response to each statement:

5 represents *Almost Always*

4 represents *Frequently*

3 represents *Sometimes*

2 represents *Seldom*

1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per questions. Try to answer every question. Thank you

To what extent do you . . . ?

	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS					
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's 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
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISE & EVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM					
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	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
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that inservice activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during inservice training	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher inservice activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Professor Dr. Philip Hallinger, author of the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale* (PIMRS), received his doctorate in Administration and Policy Analysis from Stanford University.

He has worked as a teacher, administrator, and professor and as the director of several leadership development centers. He has been a consultant to education and healthcare organizations throughout the United States, Canada, Asia, and Australia. He is currently Professor and Executive Director of the College of Management, Mahidol University, in Thailand.

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