

5-2015

Leadership Behaviors Used by Principals of Large High Schools Compared to Principals of Small High Schools: A Comparative Multiple-Case Study

Kimberly Lynn Baker Garrett
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholarworks.uark.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Educational Leadership Commons](#), and the [Secondary Education and Teaching Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Baker Garrett, Kimberly Lynn, "Leadership Behaviors Used by Principals of Large High Schools Compared to Principals of Small High Schools: A Comparative Multiple-Case Study" (2015). *Theses and Dissertations*. 1099.
<http://scholarworks.uark.edu/etd/1099>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UARK. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UARK. For more information, please contact scholar@uark.edu, ccmiddle@uark.edu.

Leadership Behaviors Used by Principals of Large High Schools Compared to Principals of
Small High Schools: A Comparative Multiple-Case Study

Leadership Behaviors Used by Principals of Large High Schools Compared to Principals of
Small High Schools: A Comparative Multiple-Case Study

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

by

Kimberly Lynn Baker Garrett
Northeastern Oklahoma A&M College
Associate of Arts, 1984
Pittsburg State University
Bachelor of Science in Education, 1988
Missouri State University
Master of Science in Education, 2003

May 2015
University of Arkansas

This dissertation is approved for recommendation to the Graduate Council.

Dr. Ed Bengtson, Dissertation Chair

Dr. John Pijanowski
Committee Member

Dr. Kara Lasater
Committee Member

Abstract

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there may be a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. This purpose was achieved through a qualitative inquiry of principal interviews, principal survey, observation of a principals' leadership team meeting, focus group interview with the principals' leadership team, and analysis of the extant texts: principals' time log for one week, organizational chart, and agenda for a leadership team meeting. The data were reduced through two cycles of coding which then further analyzed resulting in the identification of five major themes. Finding one: All four principals appeared to have six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to be different based on the size of the school. Finding two: All four principals appeared to have six leadership behaviors that looked differently based on the size of the school. Finding three: While all four principals demonstrated their understanding of the need for "being visible with students," "being visible with teachers," "knowing your students," and "knowing your staff," they all recognized that these skills would be easier to develop and execute in a small school compared to a large school. Finding four: The additional behaviors that were present in the leadership behavior of "organizing" in the principals of large schools may have supported additional leadership behaviors in "communicating with students," "communicating with staff," and "developing leaders" in the principals of the large schools. Finding five: The two leadership behaviors of "seeking input" and "setting direction/limits" appeared to counter-balance each other depending on the size of the school. Synthesis of the findings suggest that while there are common leadership behaviors among these four principals, there were also differences in their leadership behaviors that indicated that there may have been a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. The descriptions of the

leadership behaviors of the four participants in this study lend credibility to the argument that leadership does not take place in a vacuum. How leadership is implemented is dependent upon many factors, including the size of the environment.

Acknowledgments

This dissertation reflects my life-long interest in leadership and would not have been possible without a strong faith in God who has richly blessed me all of my life and the support of many people. I have been fortunate to have been raised by two supportive parents who provided me with a great childhood, modeled values and a strong work ethic, and encouraged me to do and be whoever I wanted to be. Thank you, mom, Patricia Baker, who set an example for me of how to be a Christian woman, and dad, Larry Baker, who never quit encouraging me to reach for more. Thank you for providing a great spiritual, emotional, and academic foundation in my life. Thank you to my husband, Rex Garrett, who has been my biggest cheerleader for our almost 32 years of marriage. I can't imagine my life without you. Thank you to my children, Jordan Garrett and Bradley Garrett, for your patience and support during all my years of advanced degrees. You both have made me so proud as you've matured into young adults. Thank you to Adrian, for your patience with your new mom during these last six months of work. Thank you to my sisters, Lori Holland and Kristin White, for all of your encouragement – especially the kind text messages. I want to also thank the four incredible principals who allowed me to learn from them during this study. I learned so much from each of you that cannot be reflected in writing. Your dedication to your school, faculty, and students is why being an educator is the best job in the world! Finally, I would like to thank my doctoral committee and especially Dr. Bengtson for the many hours of support and encouragement that you've given me through this process. I cannot imagine undertaking this journey and accomplishing this goal without all of you – *Thank You!!*

Table of Contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Chapter One | 1 |
| Introduction to the Study | 1 |
| Background/Context of the Study | 1 |
| Statement of the Problem | 4 |
| Purpose of the Study | 6 |
| Research Questions | 6 |
| Overview of Methodology | 7 |
| Rationale and Significance | 8 |
| Role of the Researcher | 9 |
| Researcher Assumptions | 10 |
| Definition of Terms | 12 |
| Closing..... | 12 |
| Chapter Two: Review of the Literature..... | 13 |
| Definition of Leadership..... | 13 |
| Instructional Leadership..... | 14 |
| Transformational Leadership | 17 |
| Moral Leadership | 19 |
| Change Leadership..... | 20 |
| Learning-Centered Leadership..... | 22 |
| Balanced Leadership | 24 |
| Context | 27 |
| Context: Policy..... | 28 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Context: Poverty and Minority Levels..... | 33 |
| Context: Elementary or Secondary | 35 |
| Context: Challenging | 35 |
| Context: Academic High Achieving..... | 36 |
| Context: Size..... | 37 |
| Summary..... | 40 |
| Chapter Three- Methodology | 42 |
| Research Questions..... | 42 |
| Theoretical Framework..... | 43 |
| Epistemology: Constructionism..... | 44 |
| Theoretical Perspective: Pragmatism..... | 44 |
| Methodology: Case Study..... | 45 |
| Research Sample | 45 |
| Overview of Information Needed | 48 |
| Contextual Information..... | 48 |
| Demographic Information..... | 49 |
| Theoretical Information | 50 |
| Research Design | 51 |
| Data Collection | 54 |
| OEP Website..... | 54 |
| Interviews..... | 55 |
| Extant Texts: Organizational Charts and Leadership Team Meeting Agendas | 56 |
| Observations | 56 |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| Focus Groups | 57 |
| Elicited Texts: Time Logs..... | 57 |
| Final Interview | 58 |
| Data Analysis and Synthesis | 59 |
| Ethical Considerations..... | 62 |
| Limitations..... | 65 |
| Timeline | 66 |
| Summary..... | 67 |
| Chapter Four – Findings and Analysis | 69 |
| Introduction..... | 69 |
| Description of Researcher’s Background | 70 |
| Participant Descriptions..... | 71 |
| Jim, Taylor High School Principal, small high school case #1 | 72 |
| Tom, Paxton High School Principal, small high school case #2 | 74 |
| Gary, Milton High School Principal, large high school case #3..... | 76 |
| Scott, Grady High School Principal, large high school case #4 | 78 |
| Findings..... | 79 |
| Finding One: All four principals appeared to have six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to be different based on the size of the school. | 81 |
| Finding Two: All four principals appeared to have six leadership behaviors that looked differently based on the size of the school..... | 95 |
| Finding Three: While all four principals demonstrated their understanding of the need for “being visible with students,” “being visible with teachers,” “knowing your students,” and “knowing your staff,” they all recognized that these leadership behaviors would be easier to develop and execute in a small school compared to a large school..... | 111 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Finding Four: The additional behaviors that were present in the leadership behavior of “organizing” in the principals of large schools may have supported additional leadership behaviors in “communicating with students,” “communicating with staff,” and “developing leaders” in the principals of the large schools. | 113 |
| Finding Five: The two leadership behaviors of “seeking input” and “setting direction/limits” appeared to counter-balance each other depending on the size of the school. | 114 |
| Summary..... | 119 |
| Chapter Five – Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusions | 121 |
| Balanced Leadership | 122 |
| Instructional Leadership..... | 133 |
| Transformational Leadership..... | 136 |
| Moral Leadership..... | 139 |
| Change Leadership | 141 |
| Learning-Centered Leadership | 144 |
| Outliers..... | 144 |
| Significance..... | 147 |
| Recommendations for Practice..... | 148 |
| Principals..... | 148 |
| Central Office Personnel..... | 150 |
| University Programs of Study..... | 151 |
| Recommendations for Research | 152 |
| People Skills..... | 152 |
| Previous Experience..... | 152 |
| Outlier Behaviors | 153 |
| Leadership Models..... | 153 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| Conclusions..... | 154 |
| References | 156 |
| Appendix A – IRB Approval Form | 161 |
| Appendix B – Superintendent Consent Form | 162 |
| Appendix C – Principal Consent Form..... | 164 |
| Appendix D- Survey Protocol for Principal | 167 |
| Appendix E – Principal Interview Protocol..... | 168 |
| Appendix F- Leadership Team Consent Form | 170 |
| Appendix G – Leadership Team Protocol | 173 |
| Appendix H – Definition of Codes..... | 174 |

Chapter One

Introduction to the Study

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there may be a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. While current research has highlighted the importance of building leadership, there has been little research in building a deep understanding of what effective leadership looks like and even less research in how contextual influences, such as size of school, may be related to leadership behaviors. Developing a deeper knowledge of effective leadership behaviors within the specific context of size may enable practitioners to be more effective leaders.

Background/Context of the Study

Being a principal is a very complex, stressful job with pressures from many different sources (Bass, 2006; Williamson & Campbell, 1987). One only has to turn on the television to hear about the turmoil in the economy and how business leaders feel that education is the key to boosting our economy while keeping Americans competitive with a global market. This pressure from the business community for schools to improve has increased the pressure on school administrators as Lyons (1990) explained, “Concerned that America is losing its competitive edge in world markets, chambers of commerce and business groups have pressed for improvements in the schools” (p. 46). With Americans still competing with international companies for market share and in response to the expectation that schools should cure all of society’s problems and keep America competitive, building administrators have been forced to juggle such a variety of roles that being a successful principal is almost an impossible task (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, & Orr, 2007).

One reason that being a successful principal has become so difficult is the current political climate that was exacerbated with the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act. When the NCLB Act was implemented in 2005, the expectations were created that all students, except only the most severely disabled, would meet or exceed their state's standards in reading and mathematics by 2013-2014 (United States Department of Education, 2005). This rigid focus on increasing student achievement has placed an exorbitant amount of stress on building level administrators to increase student achievement as demonstrated by growth on yearly criterion referenced tests (CRTs). Principals can find themselves without a job if their school does not make the required growth scores on a single state standardized test even if their scores have increased each year (United States Department of Education, 2005). Lyons and Algozzine (2006) found that principal perceptions of the accountability system of NCLB are that "the arbitrary, unyielding nature of the index and its reliance on simplistic, single-measure notions of performance with varying technical adequacy create disillusionment, discomfort, and dilemmas that are difficult to overcome" (p. 11).

The principalship has also become very difficult because the current accountability environment created from NCLB has defined a quality education as one that can be measured solely through standardized tests (Medina & Riconscente, 2006). While principals understand that preparing a child for the future requires much more than just the performance on one standardized test, they are held captive to increasing test scores at all costs. In their paper about school accountability policies, Medina and Riconscente (2006) explain, "In practice, this approach mandates goals that effectively supplant the school community's educational ideal with an ideal that can be measured by test scores" (p. 4). Principals find themselves torn between

preparing students to be critical and creative thinkers who will be prepared to solve the future's complex challenges to preparing students to correctly answer standardized test questions.

The complexity and difficulty of the principalship has continued to increase in the twenty-first century. Schools have become larger with increased class sizes but with fewer teachers and other resources (NASSP, 2007). While principals have dealt with each of these issues before, they have not had as many challenges as they have today. High school administrators describe the demanding job of the high school administrator as requiring an average of a 60-80 hour work week, a workload that includes unending evening activities, high expectations of many stakeholders, policy mandates that include monumental amounts of paperwork, and the increased social problems of a complex society (Yerkes & Guaglianone, 1998).

The proof of how stressful this environment has become is that more teachers are losing interest in applying for administrative positions. Hewitt, Denny and Pijanowski (2011) concluded that “teachers are choosing not to enter school administration because of the stress, time demands, and pressure of the job” (p. 20). Howley, Andrianaivo, and Perry (2005) found that many teachers do not view the rewards or benefits associated with being a principal as being greater than the cost or difficulties which may be causing a large number of teachers to not aspire to the principalship.

If a principal is going to survive in this current political and difficult context, he or she must understand how to lead at a level never required before (NASSP, 2007). Administrators “must manage and lead differently while addressing issues and problems that are relatively new, complex in nature and scope, paradoxical and dilemma-filled, and unknown to schools” (NASSP, 2007, p. 2). This new era of accountability requires that administrators must develop a

deep level of data literacy so that they can create effective strategies to address student learning deficiencies, they must think strategically and innovatively to leverage a variety of partnerships, and they must make decisions that improve teaching and learning for all students – learning disabled students, English language learners, disengaged students, gifted students, and average students (NASSP, 2007). Paul Houston, the executive director of the American Association of School Administrators said:

The high school principal needs an array of talents to be successful: intelligence, strong academic background, public relations skills, the ability to engage with people, presence, respect, management skills and an understanding of civil as well as school law. In short the high school principal must be a hero! (Yerkes & Guaglianone, 1998, p. 11)

The ability of principals to fulfill these heroic expectations has been questioned by some researchers (Hallinger, 2005) and has caused many researchers to study the principalship in order to identify effective leadership behaviors. As far back as the early 80's, Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan and Lee (1982) developed a leadership framework for examining principal behaviors that focused on how the principal supported instruction, how the principal created a school climate to support learning, and how the principal directed, influenced, or persuaded others. Hallinger and Murphy (1987) reported in their article about supporting principal growth that the principal's role includes three generalized behaviors: moving the school community forward in achieving the school mission, managing the instructional program from development of curriculum to monitoring student progress, and creating a learning climate.

Statement of the Problem

Schools do not operate in vacuums. They operate within a complex environment with multiple contextual features; therefore, it is critical to better understand if there may be perceived

relationships between contextual factors and the leadership behaviors that a principal uses to create a successful school. By better understanding how effective school leaders are using leadership strategies within the context of their specific schools, a richer, deeper understanding of leadership behaviors will be developed. Instead of the majority of the current research community's one-size-fits-all recommendation of leadership behaviors, principals will better understand what effective leadership behaviors look like within the specific context of the size of their environment.

When leaders make decisions about what to do, they also must make those decisions within the context of their environment. Bossert et al. (1982) explain this gap in research by saying that “no single style of management seems appropriate for all schools...reviews of successful schools literature suggest that principals must find the style and structures most suited to their own local situation” (p. 38). Hallinger and Heck (1996) support this gap by saying “that no universal paradigm or theory exists for examining organizational behavior that is valid in all contexts” (p. 7). If there is not a leadership theory or leadership framework that is valid in all the contexts of an organization, then leadership behaviors must be studied within context to examine if the context affects those leadership behaviors. Hallinger (2005) reported in his assessment of the principal's role over the past twenty-five years that “contextual variables of interest to principals include student background, community type, organizational structure, school culture, teacher experience and competence, fiscal resources, school size, and bureaucratic and labor features of the school organization” (p. 14). The principal of a school must understand how the limitations, resources, and opportunities of the context of his/her school impact how he needs to behave in order to be effective (Hallinger, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there may be a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. There is a great deal of research about the many different types of building leadership behaviors but there appear to be few studies that seek a deeper understanding of what principals leadership behaviors look like within the context of the size of the school. This study focused on the specific context of size with four high school principals. It was anticipated that by better understanding how the context of size may be related to specific leadership behaviors, principals would become more inquisitive about how their specific contexts may be related to their leadership behaviors and more research studies will analyze contextual factors instead of supporting one-size-fits-all educational leadership models. By studying all educational leadership models within specific contexts, researchers and higher education institutions may be able to develop richer, deeper studies and programs that support more practical applications for principals. It was the goal that by deepening the knowledge of what successful leadership behaviors looked like within specific contexts, practitioners would be better able to increase their effectiveness as leaders.

Research Questions

Given the lack of literature of how the context of school size may impact principal leadership, the following three research questions guided the study:

1. What leadership behaviors do principals use and what do they look like within two large and two small high schools in a small southern state?
2. How are these leadership behaviors different depending on the size of the school?

3. What is the perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals?

The first question was the foundation of the study and interview questions were asked of principals and key leadership people to discover the leadership behaviors that the principal used. Those questions were used to gather rich descriptions about what leadership behaviors the principal and other stakeholders perceived that the principal used to lead the school. The second question was intended to analyze if differences existed in the behaviors used by the principals. The third question was designed to analyze if the perceptions and observations of the participants support a relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals.

Overview of Methodology

The research design of this study supported a qualitative multiple-case study that examined the perceptions of how the context of school size may be related to the leadership behaviors of four high school principals. Purposeful sampling was used to identify principals who had been a high school principal for at least three years to insure that the principals were more knowledgeable and established in understanding what they did to lead their schools. Only male principals were studied so that differences in gender were not a factor. Purposeful sampling was also used to identify only schools in Arkansas, to isolate the context of the state where other state policies could have influenced principal practices. Schools that were similar in school achievement and socio-economic status were studied so that the context of size could be better examined. While maximum variation was used, small high schools of less than 500 students were not used in this study because the job responsibilities of the high school principals differ too much when an assistant principal is not on staff.

Multiple means of data collection occurred to support this qualitative study. Data collection included interviews with the principals and the leadership teams, a survey with the principals, data from the Office of Educational Policy (OEP) website, and each school's organizational charts and leadership team agendas. Additionally, each principal was asked to keep a time log of how he spent his time during one week of school and each principal was observed leading a leadership team meeting.

The Atlas.ti program was used to organize the data and a log was kept documenting the dates of field work, locations, data collection type, purpose of the data and dates of coding cycles entered and completed. In vivo, process, and initial coding were part of the first cycle coding. Axial and theoretical coding was part of second cycle coding. Throughout the process of data analysis, flexibility and analytic memo writing were used to support both validity and making deep connections for theory development. Multiple forms of data, triangulation of data, member checks, rich narrative descriptions and researcher bias acknowledgement increased validity and trustworthiness of findings.

Rationale and Significance

While there are many leadership studies, there are few that differentiate how context may be related to leadership behaviors. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) made recommendations for future research in which they stated that "studies of instructional management should incorporate qualitative methodologies to generate richer descriptive reports about how principals manage curriculum and instruction. Particular attention should be paid to the contextual factors that influence principal behavior" (p. 238). This study focused on the leadership behaviors that principals of large and small high schools exhibit within the context of their school.

This study targeted the audience of administrators who are interested in developing their ability to be more effective by deepening their knowledge of how context may be related to their leadership behaviors. This study also targeted researchers who are interested in better understanding what effective leadership looks like within the context of specific school environments. By developing a deeper understanding of how context may be related to leadership behaviors, more research studies can be created that support practical application. The recommendations from this study also can inform institutions of higher education where administrative training takes place. Programs of study can be tailored to deepen principals' leadership understanding within contexts. This can include the adjustment of course content and modifications to the internship process to provide more specific activities in different contexts while maintaining the focus on Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership for Principals, Superintendents, Curriculum Directors, and Supervisors (ELCC, 2002). The recommendations from this study can also inform superintendents and other district personnel in seeking candidates with the best skill set for their contextual environment.

Role of the Researcher

At the time of this study, the researcher was employed as an associate superintendent for grades six through twelve in a mid-sized school district in Northwest Arkansas. The researcher also served three years as a junior high principal and four years as a high school principal. The junior high ranged in size from 800 to almost 1,000 students and the high school ranged in size from 3,300 to approximately 3,900 students.

The researcher recognized that this practical experience could create bias that would have to be guarded against. While this bias was acknowledged, the researcher also committed to employ validation and credibility precautions such as member checking and a research diary to

help analyze if biases were impeding the validation of the study. Additionally, the triangulation of data sources, triangulation of methods, and memo writing were used to add credibility to the study.

Researcher Assumptions

This study supported epistemological constructivism because the understanding of the leadership skills of four principals, two in small schools and two in large schools, were constructed by description and analysis of the principals' and leadership teams' beliefs and perceptions and the researcher's analysis of observations, interviews, time-logs, and extant documents. The theoretical perspective of this study supported pragmatism because the researcher is a practicing educator who utilizes research to find solutions to problems.

Additionally, since the focus of this study is based on a specific contextual feature such as size, the pragmatism approach should offer findings that others in the specific context of large or small may find useful.

Based on the researcher's perspectives, background, and experiences, three assumptions were made. First, the context of size would impact the principals' leadership behaviors. Principals moving from a small school to a large school or from a large school to a small school mostly likely have to employ different leadership behaviors in order to successfully accomplish their goals. This assumption was based on the background of the researcher who was a principal in both large and small school contexts. While the two schools were different levels, both schools were high achieving schools and the researcher posited that the experiences of leading both schools were very different primarily because of the number of staff members, students, and parents. For example, at the junior high, there were approximately eight groups of professional learning communities of teachers of the same curriculum or focus, but the high school had over

70 of these teams of teachers. While it was possible for the principal to physically participate in those team meetings when there were only eight teams, it was not possible with 70 teams. Instead this work had to be divided among the high school assistant principals and that involved training others to lead this work. It appeared to the researcher that leading a large school required a broader set of distributed leadership behaviors to create a focused and consistent leadership team than the curriculum skills needed to work specifically with teams of teachers.

A second assumption was that while there are styles of leadership, such as transformational leaders, change leaders, and instructional leaders, there are specific behaviors that leaders use to positively impact their buildings within their chosen style. While it is important for leaders to have a broad array of behaviors to use, all principals use some behaviors more often than others. For example, while the principal with a small faculty must build distributive leadership, he/she may only use this behavior occasionally; whereas, the principal with a large faculty must rely on it and use it regularly. And while the principal with a large faculty should be knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction in order to set vision with the leadership, the principal with a large faculty may not use the behaviors of working hand-in-hand with a teacher team.

A third assumption was that principals and leadership team members involved in this study could find it difficult to accurately describe the effective leadership behaviors that they or their principals use. Sometimes, this happens because behaviors are so engrained in practices that people have difficulty reflecting about the specific choice that they made or how or what they did that affected someone else. Sometimes people in a study give the answers that they believe others want them to give or they give answers to make others think more highly of them

than what the truth may reveal. It will be important that multiple points of data are analyzed to support conclusions drawn wholly from interview data.

Definition of Terms

Large high school: high schools over 2,000 students. This definition is being used because the 2012-2013 school year in the state of Arkansas only 6% of the high schools had over 2,000 students as found on the University of Arkansas's Office for Education Policy website.

Small high school: Schools between 800 and 500 students. This definition is being used because the Arkansas Department of Education requires at least a part-time assistant principal to be hired when a school has at least 500 students (Arkansas Department of Education, 2009, p. 20). Not having an assistant principal causes the job description of the principal to change too much to be able to compare it to a principal's job who does have an assistant principal. Schools with fewer than 850 students are being used to keep the maximum variance principle as much as possible for contrasting the different sizes.

Successful high school: A school with at least a 2.5 GPA as determined by the University of Arkansas's Office for Education Policy website based on standardized test scores.

Closing

Chapter two follows with a comprehensive review of the literature including a definition of leadership, different types of leadership styles, the importance of context, different types of contextual variables, methodology used to study leadership, and gaps and limitations in research and practical and scholarly significance. Chapter three describes the methodology including the research questions, theoretical framework, overview of information needed, research design, and data analysis and synthesis. Chapter four explains the findings and analysis. Chapter five provides the discussion, recommendations, and conclusions.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there may be a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. In this review of the literature, the researcher summarized the literature by providing a definition of leadership, reviewing different types of leadership styles, and summarizing successful leadership behaviors that are common in different leadership styles. Literature was then reviewed in how context and specifically size were related to leadership and the methodology used in studying leadership behavior. The researcher concluded by analyzing the gaps in literature and providing the practical significance and the scholarly significance of the research problem.

Definition of Leadership

Sean Cottrell in the Forward of Fullan's (2006) "Quality Leadership – Quality Learning" states that his favorite definition of leadership is "the art of getting a group of people to do something as a team because they individually believe that it is the right thing to do" (p. vii). That is similar to what Jack Jennings, president of the Center on Educational Policy in Washington, D.C. states: "Leadership only succeeds if the leader brings other people along into the same vision, and they are all able to work together and trust one another" (The Wallace Foundation, 2012, p. 4). Murphy, Goldring, Cravens, Elliott and Porter (2011) describe leadership by stating that:

First, we note that leadership is a process; it is not a personal trait or characteristic of an individual. Second, leadership involves influence; it requires interactions and relationships among people. Third, leadership involves purpose; it helps organizations and the people affiliated with them, in our case schools, move toward reaching desired goals. This definition of leadership highlights the fact that leadership can be shared

amongst multiple actors and relies on complex, organic interrelationships between leaders, helpers, and followers. (p. 2)

All of these leadership definitions support the idea that leadership involves multiple people working together for a common purpose. The role of the building principal is a great example of leadership because of his bringing multiple people: teachers, staff members, parents, and students together for the common purpose of education. However, there are many different types of leadership styles that leaders employ. Instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, change leadership, learning leadership, and balanced leadership are just a few.

Instructional Leadership

In the context of school leadership, there are many different leadership styles and the instructional leadership model is a very popular one. Bossert et al. (1982) propose that the instructional leader influences others through his/her work in the instructional organization and with school climate. These principals work “directly with a teacher in order to analyze classroom problems and prescribe specific changes in features of the instructional organization that will improve student learning” (Bossert et al., 1982, p. 41). According to Bossert et al. (1982), a primary role of the instructional leader is to create a school culture that supports student learning. Bossert et al. (1982) uses the term “instructional manager” which demonstrates the transition from just managing school to being involved with the teaching and learning aspect of the school.

In their study to describe the instructional behaviors of principals, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) report that defining the mission was a critical activity of the instructional manager. They further explained that a principal functions within three dimensions of defining the mission,

managing the instructional program, and creating a positive school climate. Within each of these three dimensions are specific functions. Within defining the mission are framing and communicating goals. Within managing the instructional program are supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, and monitoring student progress (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Creating a positive school climate includes: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, and promoting incentives for learning. Figure 2.1 demonstrates the work of the instructional manager (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985)

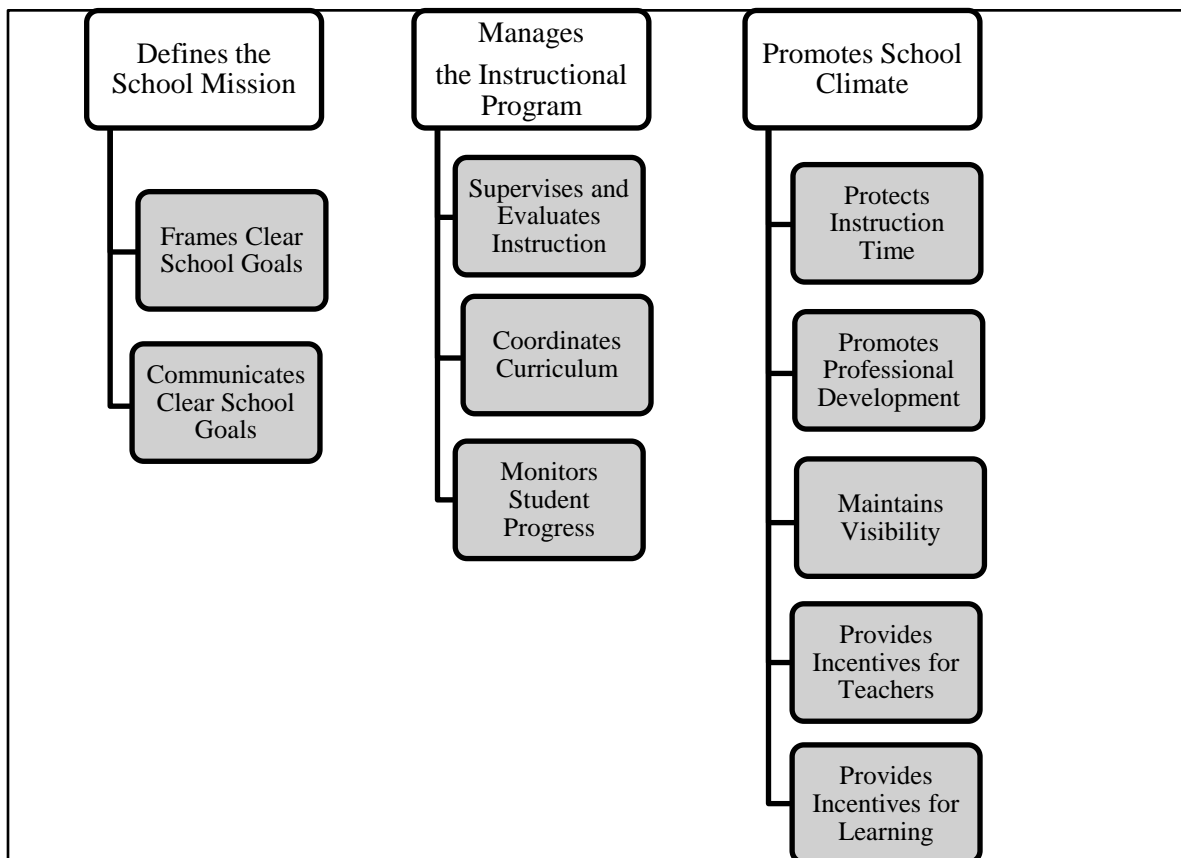


Figure 2.1. Instructional Management Framework (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985)

Then in 1987, Hallinger and Murphy again redefined the role of the principal using the words “instructional leadership,” (p. 55) instead of instructional manager, as they demonstrated the shift of principals moving from managing a school to leading the instructional program. While some of the behaviors remained consistent with their 1985 model, they again demonstrated the depth of instructional work that principals were being asked to do as they renamed the behavior of “manages the instructional program” to “manages curriculum and instruction” (p. 56). Continuing to deepen the principal’s instructional expectations is demonstrated by their model’s specificity of adding the components of “Knows C&I, Coordinates Curriculum, Supervises and Evaluates, Monitors Progress” (p. 56). Within the behavior of Promoting the School Culture, they also set specific behavioral expectations. Figure 2.2 provides the details of the Instructional Leadership Framework developed by Hallinger and Murphy (1987).

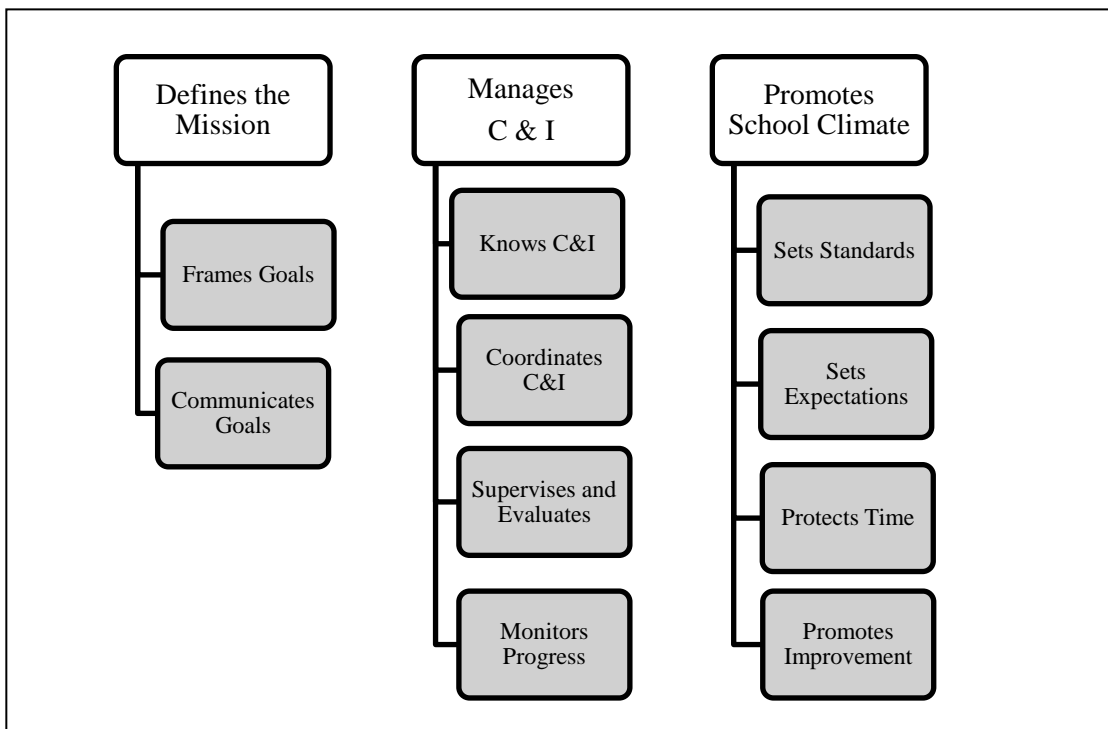


Figure 2.2. Instructional Leadership Framework (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987)

The instructional leadership model has continued to be a popular leadership model for principals. Demonstrating that the perception of the principal as an instructional leader continued to evolve, Hallinger (2005) includes the component of continuous improvement and developing staff members that are very similar to the 90's influence of transformational leadership.

Within the contextual environment of their school and community, principals must determine how to lead the instructional program in their school. As defined by Hallinger and Murphy (1985), instructional leadership will include the behaviors of defining the school mission, managing the instructional program, and promoting the school climate. This study was designed to analyze if the context of size influenced any of the instructional leadership behaviors of four high school principals.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership became popular in the 1990s as schools needed to make greater changes than in previous years and it focuses on building the capacity of the school to innovate (Hallinger, 2003). Transformational leadership behaviors can be described as “school-site management, increasing parents’ and teachers’ participation in decision making, and enhancing opportunities for the exercise of teacher leadership” (Leithwood, 1992, p. 8). Transformational leadership does not reside in a single individual but is distributed among group members (Hallinger, 2003). The distributive nature of many people being leaders causes transformational leadership to be flexible within different contexts instead of being confined to roles and status (Hallinger, 2003). Leithwood (1992) explains the reason for instructional leadership evolving to transformational behaviors by saying:

Instructional leadership is an idea that has served many schools well throughout the 1980s and the early 1990s. But in light of current restructuring initiatives designed to take schools into the 21st century, “instructional leadership” no longer appears to capture the heart of what school administration will have to become. (p. 8)

Leithwood (1992) explains that instructional leadership was not congruent with the school reforms and initiatives of the 21st century because it focuses administrators on the skills to improve first-order change but school reform in the 21st century requires improvement of second-order change. While first order changes are small and are the next steps that schools would naturally take, second-order changes are larger, more dramatic changes (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005), which are the kinds of deep changes needed in school reform.

Hallinger (2003) contrasts the difference in instructional leadership and transformational leadership by explaining that instructional leaders focus on the conditions that directly impact teaching and learning while transformational leaders focus on increasing the capacity of others so that they impact teaching and learning. Leithwood (1992) also contrasts the differences in instructional leadership and transformational leadership by describing the power structure differences. While the strong, directive leadership style of instructional leadership works to make small, incremental changes, in order to make second-order, major changes, the power structure has to change to the more facilitative power structure of transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood, 1992). These shifts in power structures include site-based management, teacher leadership, and parents and teachers participating in school decision-making processes. Leithwood (1992) asserts:

Facilitative power arises also as school staff members learn how to make the most of their collective capacities in solving school problems. This form of power is unlimited,

practically speaking, and substantially enhances the productivity of the school on behalf of its students. (p. 9)

Another difference between transformational and instructional leadership is in the relationship of the principal to staff. Hallinger (2003) explains that instructional leadership is described as managing and controlling others to move toward a set of known goals while transformational leadership is described as motivating others by linking in to their goals and aspirations. Leithwood's (1992) studies of schools demonstrate this focus on the staff members as he explained that transformational leaders have three basic goals: "1) helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; 2) fostering teacher development; and 3) helping them solve problems together more effectively" (p. 9). Hallinger (2003) supports this focus on staff members as he describes the two main characteristics of transformational leaders as distributive and capacity-building.

Because of society's current focus on school reform, all principals face the imperatives of change. How they work with their faculty and stakeholders as transformational leaders is influenced by many contextual factors. This study was designed to analyze if the context of size impacts the manner in which four high school principal worked with their faculty regarding change, involved stakeholders in collaborative decision-making, and built the capacity of staff members and stakeholders.

Moral Leadership

Sergiovanni (1992) argues that too much emphasis has been "on doing things right, at the expense of doing the right things" (p. 4). Sergiovanni (1992) supports the belief that if principals are authentic in what they value and how they connect to others, then others will want to join with them in creating something special. Moral leadership supports principals working with

others to create shared commitments which produce interdependence among all stakeholders that will transform schools (Sergiovanni, 1992).

Sergiovanni (1992) also includes servant leadership into his model. He explains that the most important focus of servant leadership is to serve the values and ideas of the collective community. Instead of working to connect people to what they believe is right, principals who support moral leadership work with others to create a shared sense of values and then rigorously pursue those values through service to others (Sergiovanni, 1992). He concludes by explaining that “with servant leadership as the model, moral authority should become the cornerstone of one’s overall leadership practice” (p. 139).

Within the current accountability climate, it is very easy for principals to focus on doing things right, instead of focusing on doing the right things. For example, principals must decide what the focus of their school will be and what values and beliefs will drive their school’s behaviors. Will they focus on just increasing state test scores or will they keep a comprehensive view of educating the whole child and educating children to support a continued democratic nation? This study attempted to analyze if the size of the school impacted the values and beliefs of the principal and/or if the manifestation of values and beliefs looked different based on the size of the school.

Change Leadership

Fullan (2002) introduces the idea of the change leader because the problems of society and schools are complex and demand leadership that “is not mobilizing others to solve problems we already know how to solve, but to help them confront problems that have never been successfully addressed” (p. 3). According to Fullan (2002), change leadership involves the

behaviors of understanding change, building relationships, creating and sharing knowledge, making coherence, and having a moral purpose.

Just as instructional leadership deepened the knowledge of principals in the curriculum and instruction program, change leadership calls for principals to deepen their knowledge of the change process. He encourages principals to “not make the mistake of assuming that the best ideas will carry the day” (p. 18). Instead principals must build good strategies within the framework of the change process. Fullan’s (2002) component of the behavior of relationship building involves understanding that effective relationships build a solid foundation for the future and are worth the investment. Another behavior of Fullan’s (2002) change model is the knowledge creation and sharing concept that the principal must be the “lead learner in the school and models lifelong learning by sharing what he or she has read lately, engaging in and encouraging action research, and implementing inquiry groups among the staff” (p. 18). If principals are going to create a culture of continual learning, then they must model and support a continual effort at gathering knowledge and sharing it.

With all of the many initiatives of the twenty-first century, it only makes sense that the school culture would become overwhelmingly difficult for all stakeholders. Fullan (2002) addressed this concern in his leadership model by asking principals to bring coherence back into their school culture. Again, principals are being asked to deepen their knowledge and this time it is in supporting effective cultures. Because of the complex nature of education, successful leaders must understand how to balance the need of coherence in a culture of change (Fullan, 2002). While “coherence is an essential component of complexity and yet can never be completely achieved,” principals must be careful to not begin too many innovations and changes (Fullan, 2002, p. 18). Fullan (2002) explains that principals must focus their school’s work on

passionately pursuing a small number of priorities to avoid initiative overload. Principals should keep student learning as their focus with changes but also understand “the tensions inherent in addressing hard-to-solve problems because that is where the greatest accomplishments lie” (Fullan, 2002, p. 19). The fifth behavior, moral purpose, in Fullan’s (2002) model supports Sergiovanni’s (1992) viewpoint of the importance of moral leadership. Fullan (2002) defines moral purpose as the “social responsibility to others and the environment. School leaders with moral purpose seek to make a difference in the lives of students” (p. 17). Additionally, the principal who exhibits moral purpose is not just concerned with making a difference in the lives of the children he serves, but is also concerned about all children and he keeps students learning as the focus. Fullan (2002) explains that all effective leadership should also possess the personal characteristics of energy, enthusiasm, and hopefulness because those qualities will support the five behaviors required in his model.

As previously acknowledged, all principals face the imperatives of change. The leadership model of change leadership supports a principal having a deep understanding of change. Principals cannot assume that good ideas will necessarily be implemented just because they are good ideas, but they must understand how the change process, including how building relationships that promote risk-taking and demonstrating lifelong learning, impacts their ability to implement initiatives and programs. The study supported an analysis of how the context of size may have impacted a principal’s change leadership behaviors.

Learning-Centered Leadership

Instead of just analyzing all types of leadership including both effective and ineffective principals, Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, and Porter (2007) claimed that it is important to analyze the leadership in high performing schools and districts and create a model from those principals.

While it is unknown if the sample of high performing schools in the Murphy et al. (2007) study were high performing because of additional resources and/or lack of diversity and challenges, they did find similar characteristics of the building leaders. Their leadership for learning model has eight major dimensions: “vision for learning, instructional program, curricular program, assessment program, communities of learning, resource acquisition and use, organizational culture, and advocacy” (Murphy, et al, 2007, p. 180).

The Murphy et al. (2007) model again deepens the expected knowledge of principals. While many behaviors remain consistent with instructional and transformational leadership, this model also supports deeper knowledge and skills in the areas of assessment, use of resources, organizational culture, and social advocacy of the school. In the area of assessment, principals should have a deeper knowledge of data literacy and assessment literacy (Murphy et al., 2007). Murphy et al. (2007) explain that learning centered leadership also requires that principals develop finesse in garnering and using resources to support students learning. Instead of just allocating a budget, principals are creative in finding and using resources. Learning centered leaders are also expected to deepen their knowledge and practice of organizational culture by making sure that all students are well known and individuals (Murphy et al., 2007). Instead of just focusing on the academic machinery of school, learning centered leaders understand how to create structures and processes to personalize their schools (Murphy et al., 2007). Finally, principals are expected to deepen their knowledge in the area of social advocacy of the school. Learning centered principals honor their moral compass by using the diversity of their school and environment to honor, support and strengthen their school (Murphy et al., 2007).

DuFour and Marzano (2009) also supported a learning leadership model by explaining that “if the fundamental purpose of schools is to ensure that all students learn at high levels, then

schools do not need instructional leaders – they need *learning leaders* who focus on evidence of learning” (p. 63). In the DuFour and Marzano (2009) model of focusing on learning, principals will create schedules to ensure that teams of teachers meet regularly, focus on the issues and questions that affect student learning, and have the training, support, resources, and tools to do this work. DuFour and Marzano (2009) also suggest that the principal meets quarterly with each team to analyze their work. This shift from individual supervision of teachers to capacity building of teams also requires that principals “provide teams with the time, structures, training, resources, and clarity of purpose to help them succeed” (p. 67). Again principals were asked to deepen their knowledge from working with teachers individually either through supervision or capacity building to not only working with teams of teachers but also teaching them how to work together to support student learning. Learning how to build the scheduling structures to support this type of work, to build professional development to develop effective team behaviors, and to provide the structures that support teachers focusing on the right behaviors to move student learning are all new leadership behaviors for principals.

Within the Learning-Centered model of leadership, principals must be willing to deepen their knowledge and skills in supporting the instructional program through the use of assessments, additional resources, and being an advocate for the school. The principal must also have a deeper knowledge of how the organizational culture, specifically in the area of focusing on learning, influences the success of the school. This study was designed to analyze if the size of the school impacted how the principal worked as a learning leader.

Balanced Leadership

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) introduced their leadership framework from their studies of leadership research of over 30 years. This framework describes 21 leadership

responsibilities that are “significantly associated with student achievement” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 2). They developed this leadership framework in order to provide principals with a “balanced” approach of knowledge and skills that principals need to successful impact student achievement. The 21 leadership behaviors are described in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 *Waters et al. (2003) Balanced Leadership Framework’s 21 Principal Responsibilities*

| <u>Responsibility</u> | <u>Description</u> |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Affirmation | Recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures |
| Change Agent | Is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo |
| Contingent Rewards | Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments |
| Communication | Establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students |
| Culture | Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation |
| Discipline | Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus |
| Flexibility | Adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent |
| Focus | Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention |
| Ideals/Beliefs | Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling |
| Input | Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies |
| Intellectual Stimulation | Ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the decision of these a regular aspect of the school’s culture |

| | |
|---|--|
| Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment | Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices |
| Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment | Is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices |
| Monitoring/Evaluating | Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning |
| Optimizer | Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations |
| Order | Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines |
| Outreach | Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders |
| Relationships | Demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff |
| Resources | Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs |
| Situational Awareness | Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems |
| Visibility | Has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students |

Waters et al. (2003) also discuss two variables that impact whether leadership behavior will have a positive or negative impact on student achievement. The first variable is whether principals focus their efforts on those actions that support improving the school and classroom and the second variable is whether they “understand the magnitude or ‘order’ of change they are leading” (p. 5). Waters et al. (2003) explain that whether a change is first-order or second-order is determined by the implications of change and can be different for different people. Principals must have a deep understanding of the change process and know and understand how each of their staff members will interpret the change. While one staff member may feel that a bell

schedule change is a minimal, first-order change, another staff member may feel that it is a major shift in philosophy, which would be a second order change. Because different strategies are required in responding to both individuals, principals must deepen their knowledge of change within the context of their school.

Because of the comprehensive nature of the 21 leadership responsibilities in the Balanced Leadership model, this study developed questions for each principal regarding these 21 principal responsibilities to gain a description of how that principal behaved in that specific responsibility. These descriptions were then be compared, contrasted, and analyzed to see if there are any differences, and if there were differences, if those differences could be attributed to the size of the school.

Context

Leadership does not operate in a vacuum so it is important to understand the context of where leadership happens. Instructional leaders must adapt their leadership strategies and skills to the requirements, opportunities and limitations of the school context (Hallinger, 2003). Hallinger (2003) asserts that “it is virtually meaningless to study principal leadership without reference to the school context. The context of the school is a source of constraints, resources, and opportunities that the principal must understand and address in order to lead” (p. 346). Day, Leithwood, and Sammons (2008) explain that principals do not use all of their leadership strategies equally but instead they prioritize different skills at different times depending on the current context. Hallinger (2005) explains that the best instructional leaders work with their stakeholders to shape their vision to fit the needs of their school and environment. Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Leithwood, and Kington (2008) explain that leadership models have general

formats that will be common for all principals but “highly adaptable and contingent in their specific enactment” (p. 11).

If principals want to effectively lead their schools, then they have to understand how the context of their school will impact the leadership skills that they use. They should not choose which skills to use without regard to the context of their school. Day et al. (2008) explains that internal antecedents, such as a principals’ training, experiences, and personality traits, and external antecedents, such as school size, location, and demographics, impact the independent variables such as leadership practices which then eventually impact the dependent variables of student outcomes. If principals do not understand the external antecedents, or external contexts of their environment, they are missing a fundamental piece of the equation of student learning.

Day, et al. (2008) explains that the “most influential external antecedents of successful headteacher practices are the policy and professional contexts in which they work” (p. 13). These professional contexts include whether the school is an elementary or secondary school, school size, urban or rural school, regular or specialty school and private, public, or religious school and have not been the focus of significant research studies.

Context: Policy

When the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act was implemented in 2005, the expectations were created that all students, except only the most severely disabled, would meet or exceed their state’s standards in reading and mathematics by 2013-2014 (United States Department of Education, 2005). This rigid focus on increasing student achievement has placed additional stress on building level administrators to increase student achievement as demonstrated by growth on yearly criterion referenced tests (CRTs). When schools do not meet their Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) status for multiple years, they move through school improvement year 1,

school improvement year 2, corrective action year 3, and restructuring year 4 which can include the replacement of the principal (United States Department of Education, 2005). The current assessment-based educational system has increased the accountability of educators (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003) and has created a more politically-driven environment than in most other previous times (O'Donnell & White, 2005). Leithwood and Riehl (2003) explain "that in these times of heightened concern for student learning, school leaders are being held accountable for how well teachers teach and how much students learn" (p. 2). In this new accountability environment, if principals do not rapidly improve student achievement, they will risk having their school taken over and lose their job (Ylimaki, Brunderman, Bennett, & Dugan, 2014; Chakrabarti & Schwartz, 2013). In their analysis about the consequences of federal and state education policies, Chakrabarti and Schwartz (2013) explain how the state and federal sanctions against schools who fail to meet goals on state standardized tests also cause schools negative publicity and a possible loss in revenue through the voucher system for those states that voucher policies. The context of this pressure from NCLB impacts how principals lead their schools.

In their study about efforts to improve low-performing schools, Timar and Chyu (2010) explain that because of the accountability culture that exists from NCLB, states are forced into creating policies to support their lowest-performing schools. California is providing state grants that require that schools must participate in "legislatively mandated professional development programs for teachers and principals, and purchasing state-adopted textbooks in reading/language arts and mathematics" (Timar & Chyu, 2010, p. 1902). Additionally, schools in California must use an external consultant to help created their school improvement plan that must include the following options:

common planning time for teachers, support staff, and administrators; mentoring for site administrators and peer assistance for teachers, particularly new teachers; professional development activities, particularly in mathematics and reading and literacy; and incentives to attract credentialed teachers and quality administrators. (Timar & Chyu, 2010, p. 1903)

California's policy in 2010 was very similar to the policy in Arkansas in 2014, which also influenced principals' behaviors. In the state of Arkansas, when schools were named "Priority Schools," the school district was required to work with an outside provider to support the school in improvement (Arkansas Department of Education, n.d.). Because of their low graduate rate, an alternative school in Arkansas was named a Priority School in the 2013-2014 school year. Generation Ready was the outside provider that was hired to support the school. While the consultants supported teaching and learning, they also supported the leadership of the school. To support school improvement, they required the following specific principal actions:

Instruction leaders commit to a schedule for Building Walk-Throughs (BWTs) and Classroom Coaching Observations (COs) with specific, meaningful, immediate feedback within 24 hours: Principals cover the entire school in BWT every day and conduct a minimum of two COs with feedback per day (10 per week). They will use observation tools (provided by Generation Ready) and record-keeping using Google Drive folder. (L. Sandusky, personal communication, June 16, 2014)

For those principals who worked in a priority school within the state of Arkansas and worked with a provider like Generation Ready, they were required to engage in specific leadership behaviors on a daily basis.

National policies can also influence a principal's leadership behaviors by reshaping a community's vision of education. Medina and Riconscente (2006) explain that our current accountability environment also impacts the educational environment by defining that a quality education is one that can be measured through standardized tests. In their paper about school accountability policies, Medina and Riconscente (2006) state: "In practice, this approach mandates goals that effectively supplant the school community's educational ideal with an ideal that can be measured by test scores" (p. 4). Therefore, even though principals may want to support the growth of the whole child through character education or through multiple fine art electives, principals may persuade their stakeholders to minimize all programs and activities not focused on increasing state test scores because their community defines quality through standardized test scores. This contextual feature of a community's vision may impact principals' leadership behaviors in negative ways.

Another example of how a community's vision impacted principal behaviors occurred in a school district in Arkansas. The division of instruction administrators created a memo that explained the district's expectations to building principals. The memo explained that because of the new accountability system and the number of schools in Focus status, the district expected building principals to "conduct thirty classroom walkthrough (CWTs) per month" (M. Jones, K. Morledge, & D. Love, personal communication, July 17, 2012). While this type of memo was not uncommon and the behaviors required may be considered good leadership behaviors, it demonstrates how the pressure of federal policy can influence a school district's local policy to directly prescribe the leadership behaviors of principals.

While the local expectations and policies of one district caused prescriptive actions, local expectations and policies of another may remove prescriptive restrictions. In their article about

the changing leadership role of principals, Glasman and Heck (1992) explain that Chicago Public Schools changed a policy so that principals were given local control of their schools through site-based management in order to increase educational accountability. Glasman and Heck (1992) explain that this change in the power structure created a change in the behaviors of principals who were previously more of a “middle manager who passes along demands of the district office” to having greater responsibilities and leadership (p. 14). This local increase of greater responsibilities created additional leadership behaviors for principals to use to lead their schools.

Outside of the NCLB accountability structure, state departments of education also impose policies on schools that impact principal behavior. In the state of Arkansas, these policies are called Standards of Assurance. School districts and schools are held accountable to follow the 186 standards set forth and provide documentation for an audit. Some of these standards that impact a principal behavior include: creating a homework policy and sharing with parents; following the state’s Smart Core policy, involving parents, staff, and students in the review of the policy and training in the staff about it; creating a parental involvement plan and notifying parents; creating improvement plans with staff and parents for students who do not score at least proficient on the state’s standardized exams; creating a policy that requires teachers to communicate with parents of struggling students; creating a professional development plan that provides teachers with sixty hours of professional development each year with some of the sixty hours in specific topics, among others (Arkansas Department of Education, 2013). In order for a principal to keep his school off probation status, he must adhere to these requirements, which require him to act in prescriptive ways which influences the behaviors that he uses to lead his school.

Because schools are influenced by many contextual features, only schools in Arkansas were chosen so that the political environment of the NCLB expectations would be more similar than comparing principals in different states with different accountability systems. Additionally, the schools that were chosen were not Arkansas identified priority schools which could have impacted the principals' leadership behaviors and have made the analysis of behaviors based on school size more difficult.

Context: Poverty and Minority Levels

In their study of how 65 principals spent their time in the Miami-Dade County Schools, Horng, Klasik, and Loeb. (2010) found that the school context may support principals behaving differently. In their study, they found differences in principal behavior depending on the school poverty level and minority level. In schools with high poverty and a high percentage of black students, principals spent between six and twelve percent, respectively, more time in administrative type behaviors that included but were not limited to managing the school schedule, managing student discipline and attendance, managing student services, and supervising students (Horng et al., 2010).

In their study of effective schools, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) also found that principals exhibited different leadership styles that seemed to be related to the poverty of their school. Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found three differences in the instructional leadership between low poverty schools and high poverty schools. First, the control of instruction was tighter in a high poverty school than in a low poverty school. In the high poverty schools, principals took a very active role in implementation of the curricular and instructional program and held their teachers accountable to their vision while principals in low poverty schools generally gave the teachers greater instructional autonomy and respected the teachers'

instructional decisions (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). This is consistent to what Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis (1996) found in their study of principals effects in reading achievement within specific contextual factors. They found that principals of higher poverty schools exercised “more active instructional leadership of the type measured in this study than their counterparts in schools serving students of lower SES” (Hallinger et al., 1996, p. 542).

Second, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found that principals displayed differences in how they communicated with their staff. The principals in the high poverty schools communicated more directly and forcefully instead of attempting to influence through motivation and relationships like the low poverty school principals did. Third, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) found that there was a difference between the low poverty schools and the high poverty schools in the way the principals involved the community in their schools. In the high poverty schools, the principal did not attempt to involve the community but rather protected the school against outside influences. In the low poverty schools, the principal was deeply engaged with the community and the community was deeply involved in all aspects of the school including decision-making. Hallinger, et al. (1996) explain that while these results do not describe the ways in which the community may shape the principal behaviors, they do support the belief that principal leadership is dependent upon some contextual features of a school. If a school has a high need of students with attendance and discipline problems, then those issues may impact the other leadership behaviors that a principal may want to use but may not have time to use.

Because this study is designed to focus only on the contextual feature of school size, each of the four high schools chosen has similar poverty and minority levels. By choosing schools with similar poverty and minority levels, if differences exist in leadership behaviors, those differences may be more likely attributable to the size of the school.

Context: Elementary or Secondary

Some studies have also found differences in leadership behaviors between principals in secondary schools and principals in elementary schools. In his study about principal instructional leadership, Heck (1992) found that “secondary school principals do not allocate the same amount of time to most of the instructional leadership tasks in the model” (p. 30) like elementary principals do. The instructional leadership tasks in Heck’s (1992) study that demonstrated differences in secondary school principal versus elementary school principal behaviors include “promotes discussion of instructional issues, emphasizes test results for program improvement, participates in discussion about how instruction affects student achievement, ensures systematic monitoring of student progress, and communicates instructional goals to others” (p. 26). Heck’s (1992) study does not attempt to explain why these differences existed but does state that these differences need to be studied. Because research has supported some differences in the leadership behaviors of principals of elementary and secondary schools, this study focused only on the leadership behaviors of high school principals in an effort to isolate the context of size.

Context: Challenging

Schools can be classified as having challenging contexts or non-challenging contexts and these contexts may impact principal behaviors. Goldring, Huff, May, and Camburn (2007) analyzed principal behaviors in a variety of contexts including where teachers set low expectations and were apathetic compared to teachers who set high expectations and were enthusiastic. Their study also analyzed each school by the percent of minority students and low socio-economics students, student absenteeism, level of parental support and drug and alcohol usage by students. In their analysis of how school context and principal practice are related,

Goldring et al. (2007) found in their results that “principals appear to prioritize and focus their actions under more challenging contextual conditions” (p. 332). Harris and Chapman’s (2002) research about effective leadership in challenging schools supports this finding because they found to remain effective in challenging circumstances, leaders must “constantly managing tensions and problems directly related to the particular circumstances and context of the school” (p. 2). Again, if a context has challenging elements in it, then a principal may be limited in what he has time to do and he may find that some challenging elements may demand the use of specific leadership behaviors so the design of this study was created to study only one type of school, a successful school.

Context: Academic High Achieving

The context of academic high achievement may also impact principal behaviors. In his review of research in high poverty schools that have also demonstrated high academic achievement, Reeves (2003) found there was a common set of behaviors from principals and teachers. This common set of behaviors included a focus on student achievement; a focus on the core subjects of reading, writing, and mathematics; use of frequent assessments with opportunities for improvement; a focus on writing in assessments; and use of scoring by someone other than the classroom teacher. Kannapel and Clements (2005) also studied high academic achieving elementary schools that were also high poverty schools. Kannapel and Clements (2005) found the following characteristics were present in the eight schools they studied:

Providing a safe and orderly environment; holding high expectations for students; teachers accepting their professional role in student success and failure; assigning staff according to their strengths; communicating regularly with families; caring about

students; valuing and celebrating student achievement; being committed to equity; and appreciating diversity. (p. 12)

Kannapel and Clements (2005) found that these schools did not have hero-type principals but were very “devoted individuals who cared deeply about the community and about establishing a culture of high expectations, high performance, collaboration, and mutual respect” (p. 27). In his study about high poverty and high performing schools, McGee (2003) also found several common characteristics of the leadership: resilient leadership with high expectations for all.

This study will include successful schools as perceived by the academic achievement of state standardized test scores. By making sure that all four schools were high performing schools, this contextual feature was a constant of the design so that if there were any differences, those differences could possibly be attributed to the size of the school. Additionally, the study only included successful schools instead of unsuccessful schools so that the leadership behaviors described in the study could be emulated by other interested practitioners.

Context: Size

The size of a school may impact a principal’s leadership behaviors, which was the focal point of this study. In their study about leadership in the context of small schools, Clarke and Wildy (2004) explain that a principal’s ability to succeed in a specific context is dependent upon the principal’s understanding of that context. In one small school, the principal had to adjust to the “complexity of small school leadership” (p. 564) by being a teacher part-time and a principal part-time and learning how to work with people in a small community. They “argue that this contextual complexity of the leadership role presents a strong rationale for research that enriches theoretical understanding and practice of leadership as it is played out in such a distinctive environment” (p. 570). In her study about the benefits of small schools, Meier (1996) states that

it is easier for a principal to lead when the principal and faculty can meet around the same table, when the principal can monitor all classrooms regularly, and because it is harder to hide problems in a small school. In his study about high poverty and high performing schools, McGee (2003), reports that several of the principals he studied reported their small size as the reason for their success. “Having a small school enables them to spend more time with staff and students, allows them to work with teachers to analyze data, and limits the number of distractions that take them away from their leadership role” (p. 23).

Large districts also present unique leadership situations that may impact principal behaviors. In their study about large districts, Hannaway and Kimball (1998) found that large districts present opportunities with “specialized positions that yield efficiencies to the extent that specialization promotes expertise in important areas” (p. 4). When principals have extra people with specific expertise, then they may change their leadership behaviors because others in the school fulfill a specific leadership need. For example, in some school districts, there is a data analysis director who will run data reports for principals so that principals do not have to spend the extra time involved in analyzing data and all schools are provided with instructional teacher-leaders who work directly with teachers regarding instructional needs. Additionally, Hannaway and Kimball (1998) found that large districts may also have “constraints in the form of significant numbers of students with social needs producing service units that detract attention from the core instructional focus of the district” (p. 5). Principals in large districts may find themselves spending more time working with parents and students of special needs and may struggle to be able to do the type of leadership that they would like to do.

Mulford and Silins (2003) also found differences in the leadership of large schools. In their study about leadership and organizational learning, Mulford and Silins (2003) found that

school size, particularly large urban schools of over 900 students, did not promote organizational learning. This suggests that the behavior of principals in large schools may look differently than the behavior of principals in smaller schools where principals can involve all teachers in making collective decisions and feeling “that their contributions are valued” (p. 180). While Mulford and Silins (2003) also found that students in larger schools had higher academic self-concepts, but lower student participation, and the principals were less likely to use high levels of distributive leadership. The decreased participation may also cause principals in large schools to work differently to increase faculty and student participation and engagement. It is important that teachers are engaged in organizational learning because “how the teachers are treated is reflected in how the students perceive the teachers’ work, which, in turn, is related to the outcomes of their schooling” (Mulford & Silins, 2003, p. 186). Schools are able to achieve more success when teachers and students are encouraged, trusted, and participate in making decisions. Mulford and Silins (2003) support that the context impacts leadership and this is important because the leadership impacts the school’s success.

In his study of small schools, Howley (2002) found that as size increases in schools with less-advantaged students, the difficulty of getting students to high levels of achievement also increases. Hallinger (2003) gives an example of how the time demands in a large school can impact a principal’s behaviors:

The principal in a small primary school can more easily spend substantial amounts of time in classrooms working on curriculum and instruction...However this type of direct involvement in teaming and learning is simply unrealistic in a larger school, be it elementary or secondary level. (p. 334)

While principals in large schools may want to spend a lot more time working with teachers regarding curriculum and instruction as the research in instructional leadership supports, the extent of competing factors of the large environment may inhibit their ability to do so. The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine the perceptions of how the context of school size may influence or affect the leadership behaviors of four high school principals.

Summary

School leadership is a very important responsibility and there are many different leadership behaviors that principals can use to lead their school. Instructional leadership has provided principals with behaviors that enable them to improve the instructional program in their school. Transformational leadership supports principals using more distributive skills to support their school. Moral leadership reminds principals that the values and beliefs behind the work that schools do are more important than the individual tasks and accomplishments. Change leadership is important because of the many changes required in today's societies and supports that principals are process thinkers. Reminding principals that resting on the skills and knowledge in the past will not be enough to overcome the challenges of the future is a foundation for learning-centered leadership. Finally, balanced-leadership supports the combination of 21 comprehensive leadership behaviors so that principals develop a wide variety of skills and knowledge to effectively use in their school setting.

However, it is important that just like school teachers must take the context of their classroom into consideration when choosing which skills to use, building principals must also analyze their local context in order to choose their specific skills and behaviors. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) state that "an administrator trying to be an instructional leader has had little direction in determining just what it means to do so" (p. 217). They explain that since it is likely

that some principal behaviors are more effective than other behaviors in different schools in different contexts, it is important that studying leadership behaviors in context is a major area for future research. Additionally, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) support qualitative methods that will create rich description of how principals lead instructionally. They continue their emphasis on contextual factors by saying, “The organizational factor most in need of explication in terms of its effects on instructional management is school size” (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, p. 239).

Arguing for a view of leadership that includes social and situational contexts, Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001) explain that research should not “develop, articulate, and disseminate a context-neutral, task-generic template for the moves that leaders should make,” (p. 27) but instead it should provide rich, practical description that is context-based and allows practitioners to reflect on their practice. Too much leadership research has been a one-size-fits-all model that has not helped building principals deeply understand how to affect student achievement within their specific environment. It was the goal of this study that by deepening the knowledge of what successful leadership behaviors looked like within specific contexts, practitioners would be better able to increase their effectiveness as leaders.

Chapter Three- Methodology

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if a relationship existed between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of four high school principals. There is a great deal of research about the many different types of educational leadership behaviors but there appear to be few studies that sought to understand how the context of the size of a high school may be related to the behaviors used by the building principal. The goal of this study was that by deepening the knowledge of what successful leadership behaviors looked like within specific contexts, practitioners would be better able to increase their effectiveness as leaders. If practitioners are able to better understand which leadership behaviors may be more effective in the context of the specific size of their school, then they should be able to increase student achievement. Additionally, if there is a relationship between the size of the school and leadership behaviors, then higher education institutions should be able to better support principal candidates to develop effective leadership behaviors within their specific contexts.

Research Questions

Given the lack of literature about how the context of school size may be related to principal leadership, the following three research questions guided the study:

1. What leadership behaviors do principals use within two large and two small high schools in a small southern state?
2. How are these leadership behaviors different depending on the size of the school?
3. What is the perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals?

The first question was the foundation of the study and interview questions were asked of principals and key leadership people to discover the leadership behaviors that the principal used

to lead. These questions were used to gather rich descriptions about what behaviors the principal and other stakeholders perceive that the principal used to lead the school. The second question was intended to analyze if differences existed in the behaviors used by the principals. The third question was designed to analyze if the perceptions and observations of the participants supported a relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals.

Theoretical Framework

This multi-case study was used to compare two similar sites and contrast two different sites to analyze if there were differences in the leadership behaviors of high school principals based on the size of the school. These descriptions were investigated through the lens of pragmatism and conclusions were drawn from a constructionism perspective. The data in this study was provided through multiple sources as described in Figure 3.1.

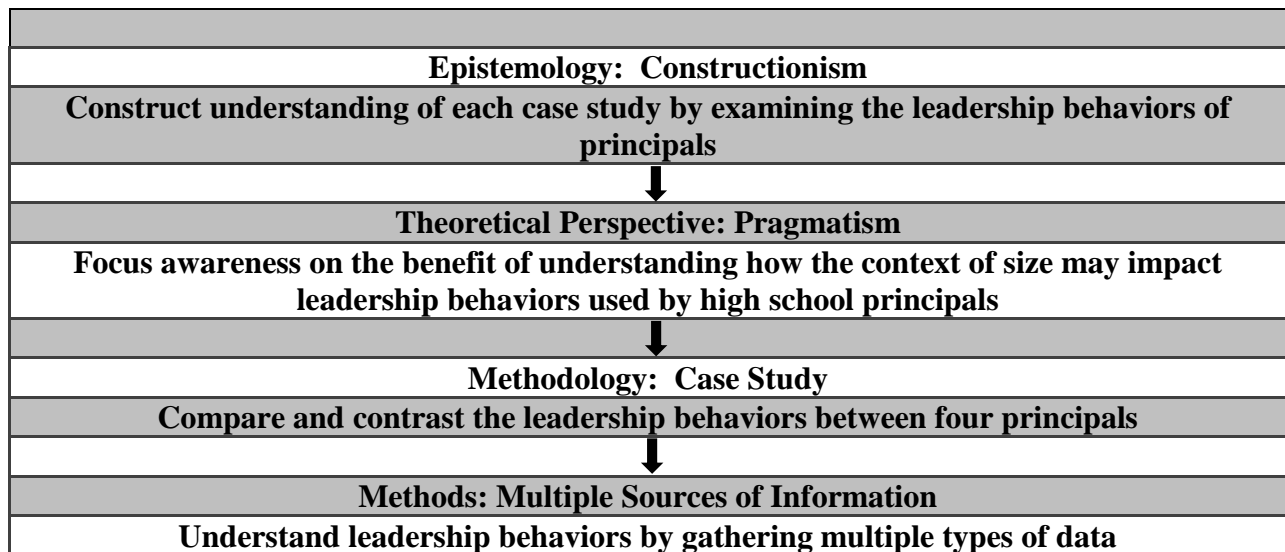


Figure 3.1. Theoretical Framework

Epistemology: Constructionism

Maxwell (2013) describes epistemological constructionism as the viewpoint that everyone creates their perception of reality based on assumptions and experiences and no one can claim that their perception is better than another's perception. While this study examined the leadership behaviors of four high school principals, the understanding gained was constructed from the author's, leadership teams', and principals' beliefs and perceptions of their leadership behaviors. These interpretations were gained through observations, interviews, and surveys.

Theoretical Perspective: Pragmatism

The goals of this study supported a pragmatic perspective described by Patton (1990) as “‘what works’ – and solutions to problems” (as cited in Creswell, 2007, p. 22). While there is an abundance of information about leadership behaviors, there is minimal information that addresses how the context of size may impact leadership behaviors. With the pressure on high school principals to improve student achievement, principals need to better understand how the size of their school may impact which leadership behaviors are more effective. Because of the overwhelming time involved with leading a high school, school administrators respond best to literature that they can use and implement. This study attempted to provide descriptions of leadership practices relative to the size of the school population so that principals could reflect on their specific leadership behaviors within the specific context of the size of their school. Pragmatism supports that “research always occurs in social, historical, political, and other contexts” (Creswell, 2007, p. 23). The “contexts” of practice, specifically the context of leading small and large high schools, was the focus of this study. While there are many contexts that may impact the leadership behaviors of high school principals, this study attempted to isolate the context of the size of the high school.

Methodology: Case Study

The methodology of this study used a comparative multiple-case study approach. Creswell (2007) states that “a case study is a good approach when the inquirer has clearly identifiable cases with boundaries and seeks to provide an in-depth understanding of the cases or a comparison of several cases” (p. 74). Two principals from small high schools and two principals from large high schools were chosen to compare and contrast their leadership behaviors. In order to isolate the context of size, the case studies were chosen from high schools in Arkansas with similar student demographics and with similar achievement levels. In order to provide a detailed description of each case, multiple sources of data was collected including individual interviews, focus group interviews, surveys, leadership agendas, time logs, and observations.

Research Sample

Purposeful sampling was used in this study. Maxwell (2013) describes that “in this strategy, particular settings, persons, or activities are selected deliberately to provide information that is particularly relevant to your questions and goals, and that can’t be gotten as well from other choices” (p. 97). To deeply understand the leadership behaviors of the building principal, homogenous sampling, a specific type of purposeful sampling, was used. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) explain that homogenous sampling is used with sites or individuals with similar situations or experiences. This particular method was applied to find multiple sites with similar student achievement, demographics, and sizes in order to better identify the leadership behaviors that the principals were effectively using to support increased student achievement. If schools were chosen with widely different demographics, especially in regard to the free/reduced lunch student population, principals could have exhibited different leadership behaviors because of the

context of their student culture. Additionally, it was important to analyze the leadership behaviors that successful principals used; thus, high schools that were similar in successful school achievement were selected. In the state of Arkansas, the Office for Education Policy (OEP) collected data on all Arkansas schools and rated them with Grade Point Averages (GPAs) according to school achievement. Arkansas high schools received GPAs for their scores on their standardized state Algebra End of Course Exam, Geometry End of Course Exam, and Eleventh Grade Literacy Exam. By using GPAs provided by the OEP, finding appropriate homogenous research sites was possible.

For the purpose of studying principal behavior, it was important to find principals who had been building-level administrators for at least three years. Using the researcher's experience as a building leader and working with teachers, the researcher believed that it took at least three years to become comfortable with the leadership behaviors necessary to be a building level administrator who can adequately reflect and explain the behaviors used to effectively lead. Additionally, it was important to choose same gender principals so that gender was not a factor that led to possible variations in leadership behaviors.

The leadership team was also interviewed to analyze the data received from the principals. While it was important to hear what the principals believed their leadership behaviors were, it was also important to compare that data to what leadership behaviors the leadership team members believed their principals had.

Additionally, in order to attempt to isolate the size of the high school as the determining factor for the different leadership behaviors used by high school principals, a measure of maximum variation was used in this study. Creswell (2007) explains that "this approach consists of determining in advance some criteria that differentiate the sites or participants, and then

selecting sites or participants that are quite different on the criteria” (p. 126). Because this study will contrast the different leadership behaviors of principals in large high schools and small high schools, it was important that the criteria of size differentiated the different schools studied in order to “increase the likelihood that the findings will reflect differences or different perspectives” (Creswell, 2007, p. 126).

Last, four sites were chosen to study: two small high schools and two large high schools. Creswell (2007) explains that case study research “is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a *case*) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving *multiple sources of information*” (p. 73). Using more than four case studies would have made it much more difficult to provide the “detailed, in-depth data collection” (Creswell, 2007, p. 73) required in case studies.

In the state of Arkansas, there were 150 high schools that range in size from 42 to 3900 students (University of Arkansas, 2013). There were 36 high schools between the sizes of 500 and 850. A school with 500 students was the minimum number used because when a school reaches 500 students, the Arkansas Department of Education (2009) required at least a part-time assistant principal to be hired which impacts the responsibilities of the principal. There were eight high schools over 1900 students. Using the purposeful sampling as described, two small high schools were chosen with approximately 700 students and two large high schools with approximately 2000 students. All four schools had male principals who had been at the same high school for at least three years. All four schools had a free/reduced lunch population of approximately 30% and received a score of 3.0 GPA (University of Arkansas, 2013).

Overview of Information Needed

Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) state, “Four areas of information are typically needed for most qualitative studies: contextual, perceptual, demographic, and theoretical” (p. 105). This study used data from all four types as illustrated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Overview of Information Needed

| Type of Information | What the Researcher Requires | Method |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Contextual | Access to principals of large high schools; access to principals of small high schools; access to achievement data of all schools; access to organizational data; description of high schools; size and grade levels | Interviews Surveys OEP website Organizational charts |
| Demographic | Description of principals: who they were, how long they had been principals, educational level; Description of schools: percent of minorities and poverty students | Surveys OEP website |
| Perceptual | Descriptions from principals of how they lead; descriptions from leadership team members about how the principal led; description of leadership meetings, and description of principals’ daily work | Interviews Focus groups Surveys Leadership agendas Time logs Observations |
| Theoretical | Behaviors that principals uses to lead | Review of the literature Data analysis |

Contextual Information

Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) describe contextual information as “information that describes the culture and environment of the setting” (p. 105). In this study, it was important to

describe each of the four schools being studied. Because this was a comparative case study, two small schools and two large schools were studied. Excluding the differences in size, it was important that the cultures of all four schools were similar so that if differences in leadership behaviors were identified, they could be attributed to the difference in sizes of the schools. This information, including the size of the schools, was gathered through interviews and a survey with the principal and using the OEP website.

Additionally, because this study focused on the successful leadership behaviors used by the principal in each of the buildings, it was important that these schools were moderate to high-achieving schools; therefore, achievement data was gathered about each school from the OEP website. Organizational data, such as leadership team structure, was gathered from the principal to better understand the culture that the principal had created in each school. To ensure that the schools were as similar as possible, schools with similar grade configurations of either 9-12 or 10-12 were chosen too.

Demographic Information

This study also contained demographic information. “Relevant demographic information is needed to help explain what may be underlying an individual’s perceptions, as well as the similarities and differences in perceptions among participants” (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2013, p. 105). It was important to gather demographic information about all principals, such as how long they had been in education, how long they had been a principal, their education level, gender, etc. This was gathered through a survey administered at the beginning of the study.

Demographic information about each school was also important to better understand the culture of the school. Large numbers of minorities or students from poverty could have impacted

the work of the principal so it was important to find schools with similar demographics.

Perceptual Information

Perceptual information was gathered in this study. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) state that “perception information is the most critical of the kinds of information needed” (p. 106). In order to describe the behaviors used by principals in each of the four schools, two interviews with the principal took place. Focus group interviews with the leadership team were used to describe the principals’ behaviors. In order to build rich descriptions, observations of leadership meetings took place by the researcher. These observations included memos by the researcher. The principal was also asked to keep a log of his time for a week to build the description of the principal’s behaviors.

Theoretical Information

Finally, this study included theoretical information that “includes information researched and collected from the various literature sources to assess what is already known” about leadership (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012, p. 106). Table 3.2 explains the three research questions in this study, how that information was gathered, and the methods used.

Table 3.2

Overview of Theoretical Information

| Research Questions | Information Needed/What the Researcher Wanted to Know | Method |
|---|---|---|
| 1. What leadership behaviors do principals use within two large and two small high schools in a small southern state? | What were the behaviors that principals used to lead their schools? | Interviews Observations Focus Group Interviews Organizational Charts Leadership agendas Time log |

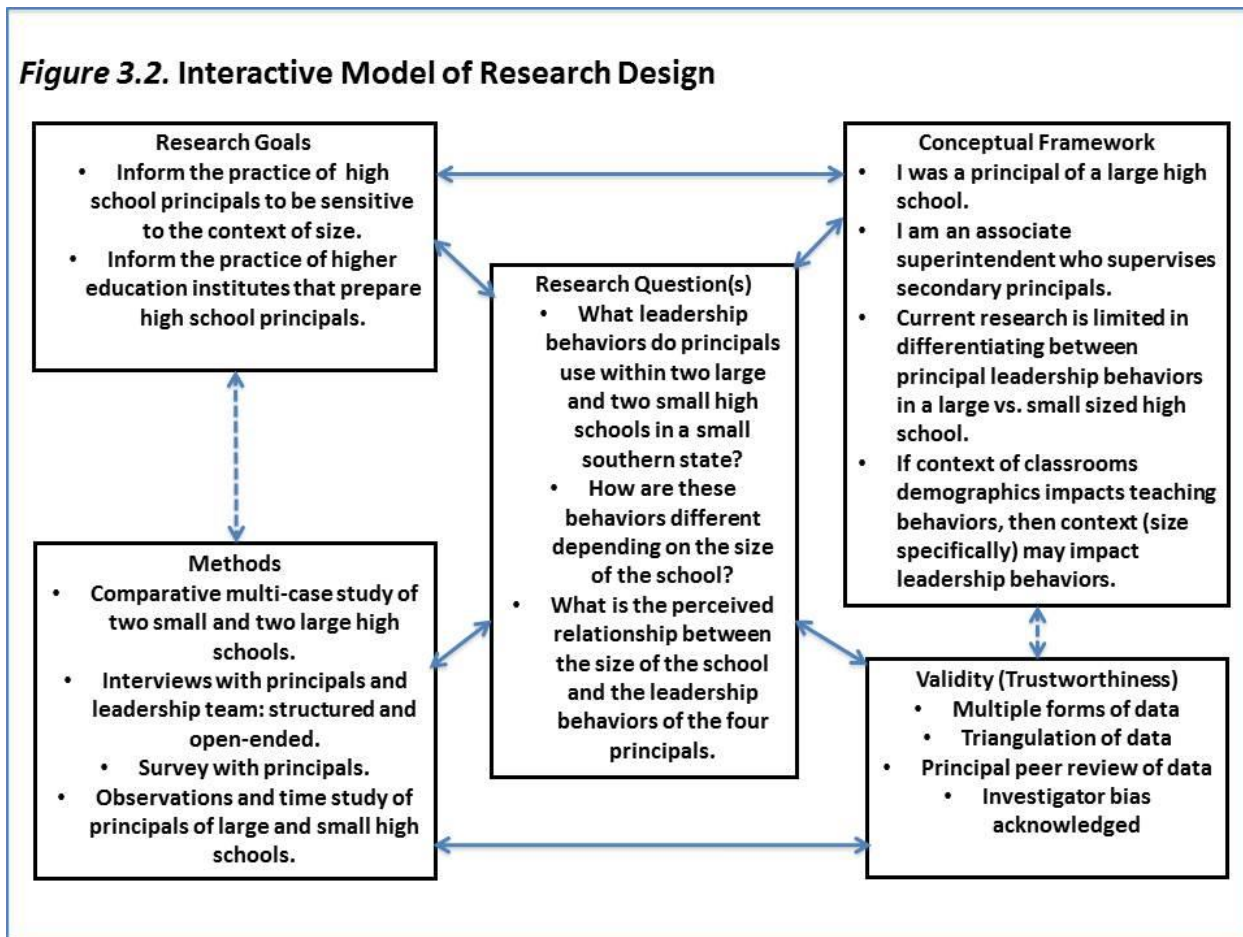
| | | |
|---|--|---------------|
| 2. How are these behaviors different depending on the size of the school? | What was different in the behaviors of principals of large high schools versus small high schools? | Data analysis |
| 3. What is the perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals? | If there were differences, could those be related to the context of the size of the school? | Data analysis |

Research currently describes the leadership behaviors of principals who are able to positively impact their school’s achievement, but little is understood about the differences in behaviors that are needed to successfully lead a large school compared to the behaviors needed to successfully lead a small school. This study added to the knowledge about how context, specifically size, was related to four principals’ leadership behaviors.

Research Design

Maxwell’s (2013) Interactive model of Research Design was used to describe the design of this research study in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2. Interactive Model of Research Design



Creswell (2007) defines qualitative research, “as an approach to inquiry that begins with assumptions, worldviews, possibly a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems exploring the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 50-51). This study began with the researcher’s perspective of experiencing leadership as a principal in a junior high of approximately 900 students and in a high school of over 3500 students. Because teachers are taught to consider the demographics of the students that they teach and adjust accordingly, it seemed intuitive that administrators should also consider the demographics of their school and make adjustments in their leadership behaviors. While there are many different demographics of high schools, this study only focused on the context of size.

To fully “explore the meaning” (Creswell, 2007, p. 51) of the behaviors that different principals use, a qualitative comparison/contrast case study was chosen as the best method to answer the research questions. A comparison/contrast multiple-case study was used with principals in two large and two small high schools to develop “an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases” (Creswell, 2007, p. 78). This method allowed the deep analysis of the leadership behaviors of principals in both large and small high schools and then the comparison and contrast of behaviors between the two sets of principals. Purposeful sampling was used to establish the best four sites to be studied in this research study, with alternates selected in case permission was not granted from the top choices.

This study began with an investigation of the large body of leadership literature. The review of literature focused on the different leadership theories and how specific contexts had impacted leadership behaviors. It was important to analyze if there had been studies about leadership behaviors of principals of large high schools and leadership behaviors of principals of small high schools. Following the approval of the University of Arkansas’ Institutional Review Board (IRB) and the dissertation committee, the superintendents of each district will be contacted and their consent received so that their employees can participate in this research study (see Appendices A and B). Then the four principals selected to be studied were contacted, asked to participate in the study, and their consent forms signed (see Appendix C).

In order to answer the research questions, rigorous data collection and analysis took place (Creswell, 2007); thus, multiple means of data collection occurred. Each principal was studied through the process of individual and focus group interviews, individual surveys, observations of each principal conducting a leadership meeting, and by analysis of a time log and leadership meeting agendas. A member-checking exercise with each principal was done to support the

validity of the data collected. Data analysis took place as data collection was being done and involved both first cycle and second cycle coding in order to answer the research questions. Memos were kept throughout the process to create the high level analysis that is required in qualitative research.

The conclusions and findings were validated by the attention to detail of data collection, the various data collection methods, the depth and triangulation of the data analysis, and rich narrative descriptions.

Data Collection

The purpose of this study was to provide an in-depth description and understanding of the behaviors of principals in large high schools compared to principals in small high schools. Because principals are all unique individuals, it could be difficult to discern if the difference in the size of the school was related to the leadership behaviors of the principal; therefore, multiple methods of data collection were used. Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) explain “that the use of multiple methods of data collection to achieve triangulation is important to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study” (p. 108). The multiple methods included: gathering data from the OEP website, a survey of the principal, interviewing the principal, analyzing the extant texts of the school’s organizational charts and leadership meeting agendas, observing leadership meetings, interviewing focus groups with the principal’s leadership team members, analyzing elicited texts of the principal’s time logs, and finishing with a final principal interview.

OEP Website

The OEP website was used to gather contextual information about each school. Because this study attempted to discern the leadership behaviors of successful principals, it was important

to analyze achievement data of each school. The OEP website also used to understand the demographics of each school so that similar schools, with the exception of size, could be found.

Elicited texts: Surveys

A survey with the principals was used at the beginning stage of the study (see Appendix D). Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) explain that surveys provide demographic, contextual, and perceptual information. The survey was used to build upon and clarify the demographic data found on the OEP website for the school and to learn about each principal. Additionally, several open-ended questions were created to assist the researcher in looking for “initial ideas to pursue” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 16).

Interviews

After the principal completed the survey, in-depth interviews occurred. Charmaz (2006) explains that “intensive interviewing has long been a useful data-gathering method in various types of qualitative research” (p. 25). In order to gain the benefit that could be found in intensive interviewing, it was important to develop rapport with the principal so that the principal understood that he was not being evaluated by the researcher. Additionally, if the researcher was able to help the principal learn more about his/her strengths and how those strengths were utilized, the principal should be able to build upon those strengths and experience additional benefits in his/her career. According to Tolman and Brydon-Miller (2001) “qualitative research should be participatory in the sense of working collaboratively with research participants to generate knowledge that is useful to the participants as well as to the researcher, contributing to personal and social transformation” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 92).

The interview protocol was developed using a review of the literature of high-performing principals and selecting the Waters et al. (2003) list of 21 leadership responsibilities because of

the comprehensive nature of the list and since it was developed based on the studies of leadership research of over 30 years (see Appendix E). Additionally, Waters et al. (2003) provided a description of each behavior that could be used for consistency of description. Survey questions corresponded to Waters et al. (2003) 21 leadership responsibilities.

Extant Texts: Organizational Charts and Leadership Team Meeting Agendas

Charmaz (2006) defines extant texts as those that are created without any intended or unintended influence by the researcher and can complement interview data. In this study, the researcher used two different extant texts: organizational charts and agendas for leadership team meetings. Analyzing organizational charts was done to support the sensitizing concepts identified in the interviews of the principals. Besides looking for supporting evidence of leadership behaviors identified by the principals, a study of the organizational charts of each school ensured that staff members who were most likely to witness the leadership behaviors used by their building principals were part of the focus groups. The agendas for leadership team meetings were analyzed to build foundational knowledge of the leadership team meetings. Charmaz (2006) suggests, “Exploring the purposes and objectives of records allows placing them into perspective” (p. 37), which will provide background knowledge that assisted in the observations of the leadership team meetings. The agendas for leadership team meetings also reflected some of the leadership behaviors of the principals.

Observations

Marshall and Rossman (2011) stated that “observation is central to qualitative research” (p. 139). This study included the researcher’s observations of the principal during leadership team meeting(s). How a principal conducts leadership meetings and how his staff react to the leader and to each other is reflective of a leader’s behaviors. Marshall and Rossman (2011) state,

“Through a more open-ended entry, the researcher is able to discover the recurring patterns of behavior and relationships” (p. 139). Because this study was attempting to identify similar leadership behaviors used by principals in similar contexts, it was important to observe the principal in the action of working with his leadership team and not just rely on self-reported data or the descriptions of the principals from other people. This type of focused observation used later in the study enabled the researcher to triangulate analytic themes.

Focus Groups

At each of the four schools, focus groups of leadership team members were asked to participate in a focus group interview and their consent forms were signed (see Appendix F). Marshall and Rossman (2011) explain that with focus groups, the “interviewer creates a supportive environment, asking focused questions to encourage discussion and the expression of differing opinions and points of view” (p. 149). These focus groups took place without the principal so that the members of the leadership team felt comfortable discussing the leadership behaviors of the principal. The protocols for the focus groups contained open-ended questions to stimulate thinking and discussion (see Appendix G). “People often listen to others’ opinions and understandings in forming their own” (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 149). This structure supported the reflection needed by the leadership team members who may not have considered the leadership behaviors used by their principal.

Elicited Texts: Time Logs

Charmaz (2006) states that “elicited texts involve research participants in writing the data” (p. 36). How a principal spends his time will demonstrate what he values and how he demonstrates that. By analyzing a principal’s time log for one week, the researcher plans to support identified themes.

Final Interview

This study will finish with a final interview with the principal. This will help maintain the support of the principal throughout the study because the principal will know that the researcher will speak with him about the leadership behaviors identified. This final interview will be done in the format of member checking which “involves taking data, analysis, interpretations, and conclusions back to the participants so that they can judge the accuracy and credibility of the account” (Creswell, 2007, p. 208). Participating in member-checking will allow the researcher to validate the findings and may provide a benefit to the principal.

It was important for the researcher to create a timeline for data the process of data collection. Table 3.3 explains the timeline for the data collection process.

Table 3.3 *Timeline for Data Collection Process*

| Type of Data | Source of Data | Timeline |
|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Demographics, grade configuration, Achievement data, size of schools | OEP Website | May 2014 |
| Interviews | Principals | August 2014 |
| Survey | Principals | August 2014 |
| Organizational chart | Principals | August 2014 |
| Agendas of Leadership meetings | Principals | September/October 2014 |
| Observations of Leadership meetings | Principals and Leadership team | September/October 2014 |
| Time log | Principals | September/December 2014 |
| Focus Group Interview | Leadership team | December/January 2014 |

The resources needed to carry out the data collection process included: internet access to the OEP website, appointments with principals, and access and time in each building. It was important that each principal grants access to his building to observe both faculty and leadership meetings. Access to video equipment for the focus group interviews and observations of faculty and leadership meetings and audio equipment for the principal interviews was critical for the author. The principal supplied agendas for the leadership meeting. The principal also kept a time log for one week of his professional activities and filled out a survey.

Data Analysis and Synthesis

Marshall and Rossman (2011) explain that “when beginning analysis, it is important that the researcher should spend some time organizing the data” (p. 210). Since this study was a comparative case study, it was critical to have an effective data management system that would not only organize the data, but also allow easy accessibility of the data. The Atlas.ti program was used to organize the text, audio, and visual data files, along with codes, memos, and findings (Creswell, 2007).

Throughout the study, a log was kept of the date, location, data collection type, participants, and purpose of the data as described by Marshall and Rossman (2011). Additionally, this log contained columns to document when the data was transcribed, when it was entered into Atlas.ti, when first cycle coding was completed, and when second cycle coding was completed. This data log ensured that the researcher “begins data analysis immediately after finishing the first interview or observation, and continues to analyze the data as long as he or she is working on the research, stopping briefly to write reports and papers” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 104).

The researcher used Creswell's (2007) research design template for coding a case study using a multiple case approach. The codes that Creswell (2007) speaks of in the case contexts and case descriptions were chosen by the researcher to reflect the type of high schools desired: two small schools and two large schools that were both considered high performing within the state of Arkansas. To find the codes within and across the case studies, several first and second cycle coding methods were used.

To begin first cycle coding and to remain focused in the right direction, Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) recommend to "write down your research concern and your theoretical framework on a piece of paper. Your research concern is what you want to learn about and why" (p. 44). For this study, the research concern was to understand the different leadership behaviors used by two large high school principals compared to two small high school principals. In vivo, process, initial, focused, axial, and theoretical coding were used.

In vivo coding is recommended "for beginning qualitative researchers learning how to code data, and studies that prioritize the honor the participant's voice" (Saldana, 2013, p. 91). Besides this researcher being a beginning researcher, in vivo coding highlighted the participants' exact words and unique vocabulary that aligned with the perspective that this was the principals' and leadership teams' description of leadership behaviors. Saldana (2013) explains that "Process Coding happens simultaneously with Initial Coding, Focused Coding, and Axial Coding" (p. 96). Charmaz (2006) explains that process coding is focusing on the use of actions. Because leadership behaviors were most likely actions, process coding assisted the researcher in highlighting their actionable behaviors.

Initial coding was also part of the first cycle coding process. Charmaz (2006) describes that the logic of initial coding is to "remain open to exploring whatever theoretical possibilities

we can discern in the data” (p. 47). It was important to this study to be flexible with what direction the coding directed instead of analyzing with the intent on finding specific topics and themes. Charmaz (2006) illustrates the strength of Glaser’s and Strauss’s (1967) description of using comparative methods in initial coding “to establish analytic distinctions – and thus make comparisons at each level of analytic work” (p. 54). At the beginning of the study, the data about the high school principal’s behaviors as viewed by himself, his leadership team, and observations of his actions and time were compared. As the study progressed, the data across case studies about principals in similar-sized high schools and then eventually with principals in different-sized high schools were compared.

Both axial and theoretical coding were part of second cycle coding and “are advanced ways of reorganizing and reanalyzing data coded through First Cycle methods” (Saldana, 2013, p. 207). Saldana (2013) also explains that axial coding works well in a study with a wide variety of types of data which is the case in this study with interview, survey, observation, and extant text data. Charmaz (2006) delineates that “axial coding relates categories to subcategories, specifies the properties and dimensions of a category, and reassembles the data you have fractured during initial coding to give coherence to the emerging analysis” (p. 60). In this study, all of the different categories and pieces from reducing the data in first cycle coding were analyzed to identify similarities and differences. The second part of second cycle coding was theoretical coding to see if the codes “tell an analytic story that has coherence” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 63). The similarities of the leadership behaviors of the high school principals in settings of similar size contrasted against the similarities of the leadership behaviors of the high school principals in settings of a different size to present insights about leadership behavior in context.

Throughout the process of data analysis, two areas were critical: flexibility and analytic memo writing. First, throughout the process, the researcher demonstrated flexibility to additional methods of data analysis. Charmaz (2006) states:

Coding is part work but it is also part play. We play with the ideas we gain from the data. We become involved with our data and learn from them...Theoretical playfulness allows us to try out ideas and to see where they may lead. Coding gives us a preliminary set of ideas that we can explore and examine analytically by writing about them. Grounded theory coding is flexible; if we wish, we can return to the data and make a fresh coding. (pp. 70-71)

In this passage, Charmaz reminds researchers to “play,” “try out,” “explore,” “examine,” data and to remain “flexible” enough to “return to the data” if needed and begin again. This qualitative study borrowed from the perspective of the openness of grounded theory because this study contained a large amount of data and it was important not only to be immersed in it, but also to be willing to begin again with a different coding method when insights were not forthcoming.

Additionally, memo writing was very important throughout this study. Saldana (2013) explains that memo writing is a method for researchers to create codes and themes. In order to make the deep connections required for theory and pattern development, regular analytic memo writing was necessary.

Ethical Considerations

It is a researcher’s obligation to consider the ethical issues that can develop as a result of a research study and to plan accordingly to manage those issues in a way that protects all participants and bystanders of a research study. According to Bloomberg and Volpe (2012), “for

the most part, issues of ethics focus on establishing safeguards that will protect the rights of participants and include informed consent, protecting participants from harm, and ensuring confidentiality” (p. 111). Additionally, Bloomberg and Volpe (2012) explain that an ethical researcher must be cognizant of the roles, positions and norms that exist in a research study. In this study, the researcher followed the University of Arkansas protocol for informed consent, took precautions to protect participants from harm and to ensure confidentiality, and demonstrated reflexivity throughout the research process.

The building principal was the first person given the informed consent form that explains the purpose for the study, what exactly was involved by being a participant in the study including estimated time commitments and potential risks. The researcher did not foresee any type of risk to the principal or other participants because the study focus on principal leadership strengths, as opposed to weaknesses of the principal. The principal was given the opportunity to ask any questions and then additional time was scheduled to meet with the leadership team members and gain their agreement to be part of the focus groups. Only the leadership team members who signed the consent form participated in the focus group interview.

Creswell (2012) states that “giving back to participants for their time and efforts in our projects – reciprocity- is important, and we need to review how participants will gain from our studies” (p. 44). In this study, the benefit of professional growth existed for principals willing to give their time and access to their buildings. According to Buckingham and Clifton (2001), individuals excel by focusing on their strengths. Because this study will focus on identifying the specific leadership behaviors that the building principal used, principals were in a unique perspective to learn more about their leadership behaviors in their specific context with the added benefit of being able to further develop those behaviors. With this benefit of professional growth

in mind and with the benefit of an additional credibility measurement for this study, principals were invited to participate in member checks. Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingner, Pugach, and Richardson (2005) describe member checks as “having participants review and confirm the accuracy (or inaccuracy) of interview transcriptions or observational field notes” (p. 201). Because of the heavy workload of high school principals, principals were invited and not required to participate in first level member checks, described as sharing transcriptions prior to researcher analysis. (Brantlinger et al., 2005). It is believed that participating principals will be motivated to participate in member checks which will increase the credibility of the findings, and the professional growth opportunity may encourage participant consent.

Another ethical consideration is the right of each participant to ensure that his identity is kept confidential. Creswell (2007) explains that “a researcher protects the anonymity of the informants, for example, by assigning numbers or aliases to individuals” (p. 141). In this study, it was important to protect the school, principal, and participants and if the site was identified, then the identity of the principal would become apparent. The researcher used approximations of demographics to ensure that none of the participation sites could be identified. In this study, all consenting sites were identified with by an alias. Then, within that specific site, the principal was identified as the building principal and all leadership team members were simply identified as leadership team members.

Reflexivity was important in this study. Bott (2010) describes that “maintaining reflexivity is the need for researchers to constantly locate and relocate themselves within their work, and to remain in dialogue with research practice, participants and methodologies” (p. 160). Since the researcher had been a building principal, this researcher was aware that “what the informant says is always influenced by the interviewer and the interview situation” (Maxwell,

2013, p. 124). As a former building-level principal of a high school that was ranked in the top 1,000 high schools in the nation by *U.S. News & World Report* (Sheehy, 2013), the researcher was sensitive to how this could have potentially intimidated another building principal, impacted the way the researcher probed questions, or impacted the answers given by the interviewee. To demonstrate respect for the participants and equalize the possible power imbalance during interviews, the researcher attempted to remain sensitive to both self and interviewee's verbal and nonverbal language, listened attentively, and worked to build rapport with the participant. Charmaz (2006) explains that "we demonstrate our respect by making concerted efforts to learn about their views and actions and to try to understand their lives from their perspectives" (p. 19). The researcher was diligent to use focused listening with all participants to demonstrate respect.

To support an ethical study, the researcher kept a research diary to document the internal conversation of the researcher with perceptions, biases, and subjectivities that took place throughout the research process. A research diary causes researchers to "reflect on our decisions, make connections with ideas and concepts, and expose aspects of our thought processes" (Richards, 2006, p. 1). This research diary enabled the researcher to analyze if her own personal viewpoints about what successful leadership should look like were impeding the discovery of the leadership behaviors used by a particular building administrator and to remain vigilant about proper methodologies.

Limitations

While this study encompassed a variety of data collection methods and used triangulation of data, there were limitations. First, this study only focused on the leadership behaviors of four principals. This did not enable other researchers to generalize to a larger population or to empirically link principals' behaviors with improved student achievement. Next, this study

merely described a glimpse of a principal's leadership behaviors. The complexity of the position combined with the limited snapshot of time could not capture all of the leadership behaviors that a principal uses. Another limitation was that the researcher relied on principals to self-report their use of time. Horng, et al. (2010) explain that when principals self-report their time they may forget or not accurately remember their daily activities when using a log and there were many differences among the principals in the amount of details provided. An additional limitation of this study was the identification of successful schools from the one indicator of state standardized student achievement data from the OEP website. Schools are perceived as successful in many different ways but this study only focused on the indicator of student achievement data. Next, a limitation of this study occurred because the study included the viewpoints of the leadership team members. In their study of time management skills, Grissom, Loeb, and Mitani (2013) noted that the "subjective assessments of principal performance by others in the school may be colored by interpersonal relationships or the fact that APs and teachers cannot observe every dimension of their principal's work" (p. 22). Because the leadership team has a working relationship with the principal, they may give subjective descriptions of his leadership behavior and they will not know everything that he did as a leader.

Timeline

The study began in the spring of 2014 and finished in the spring of 2015 as described in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 *Timeline for Work*

| Work | Timeline |
|--|------------------------|
| Demographics, grade configuration, Achievement data, size of high schools | April 2014 |
| Submit IRB | June 2014 |
| Doctoral Comps | August 2014 |
| Obtain Consent Forms | August/September 2014 |
| Defend Proposal | August/September 2014 |
| Survey Principals | August/September 2014 |
| Obtain Organizational Chart | September/October 2014 |
| Obtain Agenda of Leadership Meeting | September/October 2014 |
| Interview Principals | August/September 2014 |
| Observations of Leadership Team Meetings | October/November 2014 |
| Focus Group Interviews | November/December 2014 |
| Member-Checking Interviews | January/February 2014 |
| Writing of Chapters 5 and 6 | January/February 2014 |
| Submit Dissertation | March/April 2015 |

Summary

The building level principal position is a very difficult job that continues to become more complex as the public's expectations increase for more rigorous instruction, 21st century skills for employability, and more relevant content to produce children that are guaranteed success in

their future chosen occupation. It is important that research continues to study the principalship with the goal of better understanding the specific leadership behaviors that successful principals use to effectively lead their schools. This comparative case study will attempt to paint a detailed picture of four principals: two in small high schools and two in large high schools, to better understand if the size of a high school is related to the leadership behaviors of the building level administrator similar to how the context in a classroom impacts the instructional behaviors that a classroom teacher chooses to use. As described in this chapter, the research samples were purposefully chosen to find two small high schools and two large high schools in Arkansas. In order to provide rich data from these four high schools, a variety of information was collected and strict procedures were followed to ensure the confidentiality of the participants and to ensure the integrity of the data. Best practices for data analysis for a qualitative study were followed to produce a study that was both ethical and trustworthy so that high school principals will have more knowledge about how the context of the size of their school may be related to their chosen leadership behaviors.

Chapter Four – Findings and Analysis

Introduction

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there may be a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. This study focused on the specific context of size with four high school principals and sought to answer three research questions:

1. What leadership behaviors do principals use and what do they look like within two large and two small high schools in a small southern state?
2. How are these leadership behaviors different depending on the size of the school?
3. What is the perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals?

The first section of this chapter provides a description of the researcher's background and interest in this study. Creswell (2007) recommends that researchers include information about their own experiences in qualitative studies.

The second section of this chapter provides a description of each of the four building principals and their school community. These descriptions will enable the reader to better understand the “contexts and settings that influenced how the participants experienced the phenomenon” (Creswell, 2007, p. 61).

The third section of this chapter describes the findings from this study as identified by the researcher. The data were reduced through two cycles of coding. The reduced data were then further analyzed resulting in the identification of five findings.

Description of Researcher's Background

Having spent eleven years as a classroom teacher in five different teaching assignments in three different cities, I learned that the context of the school and the background context of the students in my classes directly impacted how I should plan for instruction. Different teaching assignments spanned from traditional classrooms in a small, middle to high poverty Midwestern town and in an affluent southern small city to an inner city urban alternative school with a high minority population. Because of the great diversity of my teaching experiences, I learned that different students learned in different ways, different teaching strategies worked for different groups of students, and different parental expectations required different motivational and relational tactics. While good teaching will always have certain foundational skills to engage students, to guide the facilitation of learning, and to build relationships and establish boundaries, the context of each classroom created by the variety of students parent , and community backgrounds impact how these skills are used to support student learning. Excellent teaching is very similar to the orchestra director who must bring multiple skills together in a way that produces the remarkable event of learning.

Being an excellent principal is also comparable to this metaphor. A high school principal must bring about the composition of multiple teachers, counselors, custodians, cafeteria workers, instructional aides, and many other people to work in harmony so that consistent, high-levels of learning take place for all students in the building. This can be a difficult task to manage. When I found myself as the new principal of a junior high school of approximately 800 students in grades seven and eight, I learned that there were many skills needed to keep the entire building running effectively. The skills that were taught in my master's level administrative courses served me well in preparing professional development that would support professional growth in

teachers, working effectively with teachers and parents, supporting teachers through the teacher evaluation system, and understanding the importance of a clean building on student and teacher morale. I worked as the building principal for four years and attempted to continually grow as a leader so that I could support my staff members, students, and parents in creating an optimal learning environment that met the needs of all students.

Then I was selected as the principal for a high school in the same community that had 3,300 students in grades nine through twelve. Even though I entered with several advantages, such as having worked in the building for two years previously as an assistant principal, having strong organizational and people skills, and having four years of experience as a principal, I found my skills were sorely lacking. Preparing professional development for a group of 60 teachers compared to 180 teachers required a completely different design. Motivating staff through building relationships and building culture became problematic tasks. Even central office administrators did not know how to adapt district and state instructions to fit the size of our school. I was fortunate to be following an excellent principal, had an excellent staff, was creative enough to find solutions, and motivated enough to improve so that the school continued to increase in achievement as the school grew to almost 4,000 students before I left as principal. I felt like the context of size in a school of almost 4,000 students required different behaviors than those used in a school of 800 students. This study was designed to analyze if a relationship existed between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four high school principals.

Participant Descriptions

Four high school principals were chosen through purposeful sampling. High schools with similar achievement data, principals with at least three years of administrative experience,

and principals of the same gender were the identified criteria. Schools with student populations between 500-800 were selected as the small schools and schools with close to 2,000 or more students were selected as the large schools.

Of the four principals who participated, one in the large school category had his doctoral degree and one in the small school category was finishing his doctoral degree. Two were retiring at the end of the year: one in the small school category and one in the large school category. Both small high schools were located in communities outside of large cities. One large high school was located in a small city and another was located on the edge of a metropolitan city. The participant descriptions below provide a detailed portrayal of each principal. Pseudonyms were used for all principal, school, and city names.

Jim, Taylor High School Principal, small high school case #1

Jim started his teaching career by teaching science, health, and physical education and coaching football and track. His bachelor's degree was in physical education and science and he received his master's degree in secondary administration. He served as the assistant principal and then as the principal for 18 years at the same small high school, Taylor High School. During the term of his principalship, he watched his school grow from approximately 600 students to approximately 800 students as the only high school in Taylor. Located only 15 miles from one of the largest cities in the state of Arkansas, the city of Taylor saw growth from primarily white middle to lower class families. Their minority rates were below 14% minority and their school poverty rate was approximately 25%.

His leadership team explained that their school had high test scores because of rigorous courses, an excellent teaching staff, and a large percentage of their student body continued their

education past high school. One of the administrators explained, “You don’t have to post jobs in Taylor on the state websites. You, if you did, you’d be in trouble. People look for jobs here.”

Jim had a strength in knowing himself and he used his understanding about his weaknesses to hire the right people to complement his strengths and weaknesses, and that created an exceptional leadership team and teaching staff. In the focus group interview, one of his leadership team members explained:

There’s a reason why people are in the jobs they are in. Because he knows they’re the expert in that position because he knows he can’t. And you can’t as a high school principal be a master evaluator or a master whatever or a master of this because you have so much stuff and he has people in places for reasons....

Jim used his background in coaching to analyze what support his teachers needed and then hired people who had that strength and it worked very well for his school.

Another strength of Jim’s was that he really liked kids. He said, “One of the reasons that I’m in this business, one of the biggest reasons is I’ve always liked being around children; I enjoy children.” This enjoyment of children was also evident in his enjoyment of life by the many hobbies that he has. In his final interview, Jim said:

I used to run and hike and do all of that and a bad knee has changed that but I hunt, I fish, I golf, I’m a photographer. I played tennis forever and that’s gone by the wayside. We travel. I love to travel, particularly to the west but, you know, I ski, any, pretty much anything that I can do outside, I’ve done it or will do it.

His enjoyment of children and of life was evident in his expressions, how relaxed he was in talking, and even in his office decor. Along with pictures of him, his family, hobbies, and plaques, his old, black Labrador retriever laid on a rug in his office during the final interview.

Jim even used his hobbies to persuade students who were interested in dropping out of school to stay in school or at least get their GED by explaining:

I try to explain to kids, “If you’ll look around the room, you see things that I do or that involve my life. They are not free and some of them are not cheap, but I couldn’t do it without a good career, a good education.

Students who were considering dropping out and parents who were not recognizing it did not get out the door without a meeting where he counseled students and parents.

His understanding and compassion for students was known well to his leadership team who described him as “emphatic with the students especially. He’s able to put himself in their shoes...and see things from their perspective” (leadership team member). One leadership team member explained how they were forty-five minutes into a meeting when a student who had graduated returned and Jim stopped the meeting “and he just talked to that kid for thirty minutes, and so it’s more about people than about agendas with him, and I think everybody knows that.” It was understandable why one of his leadership team members said in the focus group interview, “He has great soft skills. He’s not only the principal of Taylor High School but he’s also the face of the community.” As the 2014 Citizen of the Year for the Taylor Chamber of Commerce, Jim was the face of the community.

Tom, Paxton High School Principal, small high school case #2

Tom began his career in education by teaching math and coaching. He served as an assistant principal for one year in a smaller district before moving to Paxton High School where he was the assistant principal for five years and had been the principal for four years. Tom was working on his doctorate at the time of this study. His school had also grown from approximately 600 students to a little over 700 students as the only high school in Paxton.

Paxton was a small town of approximately 5,000 people that was located about thirty minutes outside of one of the largest cities in the state. The population was 95% white and the poverty level was approximately 30%. The leadership team of Paxton High School described in their focus group interview that Paxton was considered a successful high school because of their test scores, graduation rates, great staff members, and very good community support.

Tom modeled his belief in being a learner through his degree programs, and he also modeled it in how he worked with his faculty. One of his leadership team members explained how Tom supported the teachers during the implementation of the new teacher evaluation system from the state, “He’s never sat there and said, ‘Well, I understand this, you know, you do it this way.’ He’s very honest that he’s learning too.” Another leadership team member concurred about Tom’s goal of continual improvement by saying, “He tries to keep growing, you know as a professional and as an instructional leader and I think he looks at things and isn’t just satisfied with it, how it is. I think he tries to keep growing.”

Because of his involvement in a doctoral program and being husband, father, and principal, Tom did not belong to any community organizations outside of church. He also explained that his hobbies and interests were limited during this time of his life:

Now mainly it’s just them [kids], trying to spend time with them, you know. We jumped on the trampoline last night when I got home; that’s what we did. I’ve got a four and five year old so that’s pretty much it.

Making a difference with his children and the children at school was important to Tom. He explained, “To me, that would be a perfect day where everything went smooth and I had an opportunity to talk to a kid and help a kid. That would be what I consider perfect.” His leadership team understood his commitment to children and one leadership team member

explained, “I think Mr. Tom does come from a place of really caring about kids...and he’s concerned, he’s concerned with the well-being of our kids and wanting the best for them.”

The students in Paxton succeeded academically and benefited from the strong caring attitude that was modeled by Tom and the staff members of Paxton High School.

Gary, Milton High School Principal, large high school case #3

Gary began as a social studies teacher for four years. He then worked as a counselor, assistant principal, director of student services, and finally a principal having earned his master’s degree in administration in the late 1970’s. Gary had been the recipient of the Principal of the Year award multiple times. At the time of this study, he had been a building high school principal for 33 years with the last five of them being at Milton High School. Milton High School was located in Milton, one of the five largest cities in the state. Milton High School was the only public high school in the city and it had grown from around 1,800 students to almost 2,000 students. The poverty rate was approximately 35% with a minority population of approximately 25%. The leadership team members explained that Milton High School was considered a top school because of their excellent reputation, offering a lot of Advanced Placement (AP) courses, high test scores, and effective teachers.

Being supportive of the AP program had been a distinguishable trait of Gary’s. One of his leadership team members explained:

He believes very strongly in the AP program and so he comes to me. I mean since he’s been here, he’s come to me pretty frequently about ideas that he has, that he had at other schools that he sees places we should go...

A math teacher also commented during the leadership team meeting that Gary worked regularly with her team of teachers to improve their students' math scores.

This dedication to excellence at work caused him to limit his activities outside of his job responsibilities. He said that outside of the school day, he enjoyed spending time with his dog and family and serving as the president of one local athletic organization. His leadership team recognized his dedication and one member said, "I think when I look at Gary and talk with him, he has made this his life, not just his job."

Besides his focus on his job and supporting continual improvement, Gary was known for his professional demeanor. In the focus group interview, one of his leadership team members explained his professionalism by saying, "Gary has a very even temperament when faced with different scenarios and he's always calm, cool, and collected and is a voice of reason." This even temperament worked well with parents. One of the leadership team members commented, "One of the things that I've always noticed with him is he gives the parent or the student or the teacher a chance to be heard."

Along with his excellent people skills, Gary was also willing to demonstrate his love of what he does. Whether it was doing the Thriller Dance at a pep rally or just attending student activities, he let the students know that he cared. One leadership team member explained:

I remember the high school kids being so shocked that he came to a practice in a suit when it was 100 degrees outside, long sleeves. And just came to see what they were doing. They were really impressed and felt appreciated and valued.

Gary had been a long-standing principal because he had mastered the art of working effectively with students, parents, and teachers.

Scott, Grady High School Principal, large high school case #4

Scott began his career as a social studies teacher and coach before becoming an assistant principal and eventually a principal. At the time of this study, he was in his fifth year as a principal at Grady High School and had his doctorate. He was an assistant principal in another school before being chosen as the principal of Grady High School. Similar to the other three high schools in this study, Grady High School was also the only high school in the city of Grady. Grady was located just twenty miles outside one of the largest cities in Arkansas. Grady High School had grown from approximately 2400 students to approximately 2700 students during the time of Scott's tenure. The poverty rate was approximately 30% and the minority rate was less than 20%. The leadership team explained that high test scores, academic excellence, a variety of courses including their engineering program and "unique programs like Mobile App" (leadership team member), overall quality staff, and having a community that "really loves kids" (leadership team member) is what made their school successful.

Scott's philosophy about leadership was that he was "a firm believer in servant leadership and not being a top-down leader – being that resource." He used that belief of being a resource to support his teachers' professional learning through Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) where groups of teachers of common courses met together frequently to examine their instructional practices. Scott explained how he supported the excellence at his large school by keeping the focus of instruction on students, "The main thing that we try to focus in on at Grady High School are the common formative assessments – that snapshot every week, every two weeks of exactly where that child is located within the curriculum." It was important to Scott that each teacher was focused on the progress of each student.

Scott also understood that running a high-quality high school required quality relationships. He explained:

I have a son. He's eleven years old and I tell people, 'There's a reason why they call them sons – because he is the center of my universe.' As well as my wife and I do speak of Jordan and Drew frequently and I want others to be able to feel free to speak of their children and their lives and the great things that are going on with them.

His leadership team members noticed how he supported them professionally and personally. In the focus group interview, one leadership team member explained, "I like the fact that I think he knows me personally. I have elderly parents and when they are sick, I will get a text from him, 'How's your dad?'" Another commented, "I've never had the cellphone numbers of any of my previous administrators." One of his leadership team members summarized by saying,

I think with Scott, you see an incredible appreciation for where he is compared to places he has been in the past. And I think that he savors the fact that he has teachers that he can make a personal connection to....I think every day he probably shows up, even on a bad day, happy to be here compared to other places we could all be.

His appreciation for others and dedication supported his school being a great high school.

Findings

The goals of this study were to better understand the specific leadership behaviors of two principals of large high schools and two principals of small high schools, to analyze if the leadership behaviors of these four principals looked differently depending on the size of the school, and to analyze if there appeared to be a relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals.. These goals were accomplished by gathering

data from surveys, individual interviews, observations, focus group interviews, and analysis of extant texts. The analysis of the data led to five major findings:

1. All four principals appeared to have six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to be different based on the size of the school.
2. All four principals appeared to have six leadership behaviors that looked differently based on the size of the school.
3. While all four principals demonstrated their understanding of the need for “being visible with students,” “being visible with teachers,” “knowing your students,” and “knowing your staff,” they all recognized that these skills would be easier to develop and execute in a small school compared to a large school.
4. The additional behaviors that were present in the leadership behavior of “organizing” in the principals of large schools may have supported additional leadership behaviors in “communicating with students,” “communicating with staff,” and “developing leaders” in the principals of the large schools.
5. The two leadership behaviors of “seeking input” and “setting direction/limits” appeared to counter-balance each other depending on the size of the school.

The first finding answers the first research question of what do the leadership behaviors look like. The second finding answers the second research question of whether there are leadership behaviors that are different depending on the size of the school. The remaining findings answer the last research question of whether there may have been a relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. The findings are discussed below. Both principal and leadership team member quotations are used throughout the remainder of this chapter to support the five major findings.

Finding One: All four principals appeared to have six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to be different based on the size of the school.

While all principals had multiple leadership behaviors, there were six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to be different based on the size of the school. Table 4.1 shows each principal’s leadership behaviors that appeared to the researcher during the study. Just because a behavior did not appear on this list or was not checked for a specific principal did not mean that the behavior did not exist.

Table 4.1

Principals’ Leadership Behaviors

| Leadership Behaviors | Jim (Small HS) | Tom (Small HS) | Gary (Large HS) | Scott (Large HS) |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Affirming | X | | | X |
| Being a change agent | X | X | X | X |
| Being approachable | X | X | | X |
| Being flexible | X | X | X | X |
| Being visible with students | X | X | | |
| Being visible with staff | X | X | | X |
| Building relationships | X | X | X | X |
| Communicating with students | X | X | X | X |
| Communicating with staff | X | X | X | X |
| Developing leaders | X | | X | X |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Focusing on students | X | X | X | X |
| Holding strong beliefs | X | X | X | X |
| Knowing students | X | | | |
| Knowing your staff | X | X | X | X |
| Listening | X | X | X | X |
| Optimizing | X | | | X |
| Organizing | X | X | X | X |
| Problem-solving | X | X | X | X |
| Seeking input | X | X | X | X |
| Setting direction/limits | X | X | X | X |
| Showing situational awareness | X | X | X | X |
| Using/showing humor | X | | X | |

The six common leadership behaviors that did not appear to have differences based on the size of the school were “focusing on students,” “listening,” “building relationships,” “showing situational awareness,” “being a change agent,” and “being flexible.” The four principals showed a variety of other leadership behaviors that appeared to be based on differences in personalities. For example, the behavior of “affirming” was displayed by one of the principals of the small high schools and one of the principals of the large high schools.

Focusing on students. Amidst the many demands of running a building and all the demands in the classroom, it is important that building principals keep everyone focused on students. All four of these principals were known to have a real concern for students and for

student learning. Keeping the faculty focused on the business of supporting students and their learning is an important skill for principals (Marzano et al., 2005). Table 4.2 displays the data sources used to support this behavior in each principal.

Table 4.2
Data Sources for “Focusing on Students”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | X | | X | X |
| Organizational Chart | | | X | X |
| Principal Time Log | | | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.2 reveals that there was evidence of the focusing on students’ behavior with all four principals. Additionally, the two principals of large high schools demonstrated this behavior in all data sources considered. Focusing on students was a definite strength for each of these principals.

The principals of the small schools had a definite focus on students. Jim's focus on students probably stemmed from his coaching and his enjoyment of students. He explained, "One of the reasons that I'm in this business, one of the biggest reasons is I've always liked being around children. I enjoy children and so, at ballgames, they approach me, at events, they approach me." Tom also had a focus on all students. His school had a program that allowed all students, including special education students, to be exposed to ACT preparatory work. He worked with his staff to create a type of grading scale so that the special education students could participate in the ACT courses even though some of them were not academically prepared for the work.

The principals in the large schools also focused on students. One of Gary's beliefs that he worked with all staff members to implement was "to humanize and not dehumanize." His goal was that in every situation that involved a student, it was important to remember that they were talking about a human being, someone of worth. It was important to him that staff members did not get caught up in procedures, rules, and structures but stayed focused on the students. One of Scott's leadership team members explained Scott's focus on students by saying:

You know, I have to say, probably one of the characteristics and I've had another really great principal besides him in my work, but I think he's incredibly empathetic. And I think his first priority is what is best for kids. And that's really important to me as an educator and so I have a lot of respect for him because of that. And to me that's paramount.

Scott was so adamant about the importance of focusing on students, he said, "If it's for the students, if I know this decision is best for the student, I could care less for popularity."

Listening. While “listening” skills are not frequently cited as essential skills for principals, having effective communication skills is (Marzano et al., (2005). Listening is a key component of effective communication, and having effective communication skills with staff, students, and parents is essential to be an effective principal. All four principals were described by the leadership team members as having strong listening skills. Table 4.3 displays the data sources used to support this skill in each principal.

Table 4.3

Data Sources for “Listening”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | X | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | | |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | | | | |
| Principal Final Interview | | | X | X |

Table 4.3 illustrates that the primary sources of data for the behavior of listening came from the observation of the leadership team meeting and the focus group interview. One might expect that observations of each principal's interactions and the comments from the leadership team members would be the best measures of a leader's ability to listen.

As principals of small schools, listening was a strength for Jim and Tom. One of Jim's leadership group members said, "If you have an issue, you can go to his office, talk to him for as long as you need." Several leadership team members commented on how much time he spent out in the building just talking and listening to staff and students so that he knew what was going on. Another one said, "He won't prejudge. He'll just kind of listen and then try to help if he can." Tom gave an example of how important listening was to him. He explained that it was his first year as a principal and he was hearing that he may not have handled some situations in the best possible way. To correct the situation, he called a leadership team meeting and said, "Hey, I'm not going to do any talking. I'm going to do all listening." This meeting was very effective for him and he learned how to be a better leader.

Listening was also important for the principals in large schools. One of Gary's leadership team members explained the depth of his listening skills by saying, "I've always felt like he doesn't play favorites, that he listens to everybody equally and he is open to everybody's opinions. Whether he agrees or disagrees, he always appears to be open to listening." Another leadership team member explained how Gary used his listening skills not just with teachers but also with parents and students. She explained, "One of the things that I've always noticed with him is he gives the parent or student or the teacher a chance to be heard and that is extremely important." Scott's listening skills had really developed over the years as he has developed his skills of going to teachers and asking for their input. During his leadership meeting, he

continually asked for his teachers’ input to multiple agenda items. During the interview, he explained how their professional development was planned from listening to teachers and then designing what they needed. Even Scott’s PLC team meetings were designed to be with small groups of content-alike teachers so that the administrators who attended the meetings could hear the concerns and needs of the teachers to support student achievement.

Building relationships. Since all four principals had a strength in listening, it is not surprising that they also had a strength in building relationships. The behavior of building relationships “refers to the extent to which the school leader demonstrates an awareness of the personal lives of teachers and staff” (Marzano et al., 2005, p. 58). . Table 4.4 shows the data sources used to identify the principals’ strength of “building relationships.”

Table 4.4

Data Sources for “Building Relationships”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | X | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | | | | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | X | |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.4 demonstrates that the data sources for building relationships came from the principals' initial interviews, the leadership team focus group interviews and from the principals' time logs. The use of extant text to support themes was used throughout the study to support the analyses.

Being principals of small schools had enabled both principals to build strong relationships. One of Jim's leadership team members explained that he "knows every teacher at a personal level." This was not surprising since Jim explained in his interview that he once attended a hearing in court for three hours so that he could better understand the personal court case that involved two of his teachers. Jim was very pleased that his teachers ate lunch by departments because of the relationships that they were building and the ease that it gave him to see them and build relationships with them. He explained, "I eat lunch, or at least visit during lunch every day unless I'm in a meeting or gone..." Tom enjoyed building relationships with his staff members by celebrating their birthdays with them. As soon as he hired someone, he entered their birthday on his cellphone. Then he explained what he did on their birthday, "I always make a point to try to go by there or buzz their room in front of the kids and say, 'Happy Birthday, Mrs. So and So.'"

The principals of large schools also worked to build effective relationships. Gary's leadership team acknowledged that he worked to know them personally. One of them explained, "I think he's also very good like if you're going through something or have a situation personally, not just at school, that he's good to ask you about it." Another leadership team member added, "I think that's one of his greatest strengths." Scott's leadership team also

commented on how important it was to them that he inquired about them and their family members. One of them said:

I have elderly parents and when they are sick, I will get a get a text from him, ‘How’s your dad?’ I will go to a funeral and I’ll get a text from him, ‘Are you ok?’ I, and everybody, I’ll bet everybody in this room has gotten a text or call from him sometimes your child is sick, your parent is sick, you’re sick. He’s very diligent about that and for a faculty as large as we are, I don’t always know. I don’t know when your child is sick, but he does.

Scott explained the importance of building relationships with staff members by saying, “...I do speak of Jordan and Drew frequently and I want others to be able to feel free to speak of their children and their lives and the great things that are going on with them.”

Showing situational awareness. All the principals displayed situational awareness that enabled them to effectively run their schools and avoid potential problems. Marzano et al. (2005) explain that situational awareness is the ability of the principal to understand what was happening in their building and be able to adequately address those issues before they became big challenges. Over time principals learn to effectively predict problems because of their situational knowledge that they have developed. Each principal displayed the ability to either predict potential problems and/or address them quickly. Table 4.5 illustrates the data sources used to identify principals’ strength of “showing situational awareness.”

Table 4.5

Data Sources for “Showing Situational Awareness”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | | | X |
| Focus Group Interview | | | | |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | | | | |
| Principal Final Interview | | | X | |

Table 4.5 displays that the primary source of data for showing situational awareness arose from the initial interviews with the principals. Because situational awareness includes addressing potential problems, it was not surprising that the leadership team members did not identify this leadership behavior.

The principals of small schools used situational leadership on a regular basis. One occurrence for Jim happened with students. He explained that his school had a rule in their school that allowed students to bring water bottles from home. However, after several incidents of students bringing alcohol in those bottles, he wanted to get rid of the rule completely but he explained, “We were three years into it and we were not taking it away. It wasn’t going to happen.” He used this knowledge to make an adjustment to the policy and not attempt to

eliminate the rule completely. Tom used situational knowledge to help him work effectively with central office. Because a principal wants others to take his concerns seriously, “You don’t want to come across as being the one that is always digging in your heels, always balking or bucking the system,” he said. He explained that each principal has to advocate for his or her building, but each has to do it very careful.

Both large school principals also benefited from using situational knowledge. Gary realized that dissent was part of the culture of every building and he explained in his interview, “Dissent doesn’t bother me because I’ve realized that if I’m making 100 percent of the people happy all the time then I’m not doing something right.” Gary applied situational knowledge to help him support his teachers during times of change while Scott used it to maintain a safe school. In his interview Scott explained, “If you’re not out and about, things can happen very quickly, but having administrators out and about deters a lot of negative behaviors that could arise.”

Being a change agent. All the principals displayed the ability to work with their teachers to implement new programs or make changes to better support student learning. “Being a change agent” requires principals to be willing to challenge the status quo and support new ideas that will improve their school. While schools are places of immense change for students, the staff who work in those buildings are frequently very opposed to changes. Table 4.6 illustrates the data sources for each of the four principals in the strength of “being a change agent.”

Table 4.6

Data Sources for “Being a Change Agent”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | | | | |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.6 demonstrates that the data for being a change agent was obtained from multiple sources. The data sources were very consistent with the exception of the initial principal interview with Gary. This consistency of data sources also supports that all four principals were undergoing a lot of changes.

Being a change agent was a strength for the principals of small schools. In the initial interview, Jim’s pride at submitting an innovative proposal to the state was very apparent. He had worked with his staff to create an effective committee of students, staff members, and community members to create this proposal for an innovative testing plan. His passion was clear as he explained how their proposal supported more instructional time for students, “We just think that would be such a better, more valuable and logical use of our time.” Tom explained about the resistance that he encountered when he first created a plan for his teachers to be part of an

Open House program before school started. He said, “I had to push and explain to them and it was a slow process.” However, he kept pushing, got the program started and the teachers loved it and the students benefitted from it.

The principals of large schools were also change agents. When Gary was hired as the building principal of his current high school, he found that many changes were needed. In his interview, he explained that the implementation of small learning communities and the implementation of collaborative planning times for teachers were tough initiatives. He explained, “...getting faculty to understand what collaboration is all about and it has been, it has been a dog fight...” Scott has also led a lot of change as a building principal. He led the implementation of the Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) concept in his school. Scott explained how he worked with teachers who were struggling with change, “You’re going to have pockets of teachers who are not comfortable with change. My comment to that is always, ‘Why are you not comfortable with change?’” This approach worked well for him.

Being flexible. Waters et al. (2003) support that principals should be flexible in adapting their leadership behaviors to current situations and accepting dissent within their faculty. All four principals demonstrated a willingness to be flexible when working with their staff members and they each understood that dissent was part of leadership. Table 4.7 displays the data sources for each of the four principals in the strength of “being flexible.”

Table 4.7

Data Sources for “Being Flexible”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|-------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
|-------------|-----|-----|------|-------|

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Principal Survey | | | X | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | | | | |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.7 shows that the data for being flexible came from four sources for all four principals. In addition to the principals' comments about this behavior, it was supported through the observation of the leadership team meeting and the leadership teams' focus group interviews.

The principals at the small high schools understood how to be flexible. Jim's overall attitude with his staff supported a strong belief that his teachers knew how to do their job and they were working hard to do that. He explained, "I'm surrounded by excellent people." Because of this, he gave them a great deal of respect and leeway to do their jobs in the way that they believed was best. However, he was also very willing to adjust his leadership style of giving them leeway when they are not acting professionally. Being willing to adjust his leadership style to the situation was also something that Tom demonstrated. He explained that as a first year principal, he did a staff development workshop with his staff and he had a teacher who did not want to participate with the group. He realized that the situation could result in a very visible power-struggle with the teacher in front of all the other staff members. In order to

create a positive culture and engage the teacher, he explained, “I had to adapt my behavior to meet that situation.” In adjusting how he behaved compared to how he may have preferred to behave, the situation was handled with respect and dignity for everyone.

Being flexible in a large high school was also necessary. Gary’s leadership style was one that supported situational leadership. In his interview, he explained that he has developed this leadership style because:

We don’t put out a product, a canned food. We don’t put out a part to a car or an airplane part where we can measure to find out whether or not that is working because every kid and every parent that walks through that door is a situational type situation.

Being flexible to meet the varying demands of leadership was not difficult for Scott either. Like Jim, Scott also valued the expertise of his staff members and encouraged them to step into leadership roles. In the focus group interview, one leadership team member commented about “his ability to delegate authority” and how she considered that “an outstanding trait”. However, he had someone in a leadership role that was struggling so he sat down with her and got very specific with how she needed to make some changes in order to be effective with the group that she was working with.

Finding Two: All four principals appeared to have six leadership behaviors that looked differently based on the size of the school.

While there were some leadership behaviors such as those mentioned in finding one that looked very similar in all four principals, there were some leadership behaviors that looked differently. There are many reasons for these differences with the primary reason being that principals have different personalities and different preferences for doing things. However, there were six leadership behaviors, “solving problems,” “organizing,” “communicating with staff

members,” “communicating with students,” “developing leaders,” and “holding strong beliefs” that looked differently and it appeared that these differences were related to the size of the school.

Solving problems. All four principals said that they spent the majority of their time “solving problems.” However, the principals in large schools demonstrated a different set of problem-solving skills compared to their counterparts in small schools. Table 4.8 displays the data sources for each of the principals in the strength of “solving problems.”

Table 4.8

Data Sources for “Solving Problems”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | X | X | X | X |
| Organizational Chart | | | X | X |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.8 demonstrates that the data for solving problems was found consistently among all the principals in multiple data sources. The two principals from large high schools demonstrated this behavior even in all of their extant sources which even aligns to the finding that they demonstrated additional problem-solving behaviors.

As a small school principal, Jim explained, “I spend a lot of time solving problems.” Then during his interview and the observation of his leadership team, he and his team referenced many challenges that they were working to solve. In his interview, Jim explained that they “had to make some adjustments” to a plan that they had created. During the leadership team meeting, Jim stated, “We’ll need to sit down and look at this as quickly as we can.” He also acknowledged using outside resources by saying, “We’ll be having discussions with other school districts asking them how they are meeting some of these obligations.” The other principal of a small high school also commented that he spent a lot of time solving problems. In his interview and leadership team meetings, he explained about the problems or challenges that they worked to solve. In his interview, he explained, “So we found a way to make it so that the kids that couldn’t get here early, they could take it at that time”. He also did not have a leadership team when he started, so he developed one.

Both of the principals of the large high schools said that they spent a lot of time engaged in problem-solving. In his interview and leadership team meeting, Gary was observed discussing their challenges that they had addressed. Regarding some teacher complaints about discipline, he replied, “We hit it head-on and created a plan of action.” His leadership team also shed light on his problem-solving skills. One of them said, “He’s a problem-solver. He gathers information; he doesn’t just listen to ‘Ok, I’m frustrated about this.’ He goes to whoever, wherever the problem is, gets the information and then it’s easier to find a solution.” During

Scott's leadership team observation and during his interview, he explained how he worked through the problems and challenges that came his way. In his leadership team meeting, his testing coordinator answered some questions about professional development forms and he explained at the end of the presentation, "So long story short, we tried to make a flow chart and make things very simple and very easy for our teachers..." He also explained in his interview how he led his school in the discussion about a new block schedule by saying, "the leadership team brought several proposals to us. From there, we developed pro's and con's and took it to the entire faculty."

All four principals solved problems, but their behaviors looked different based on the size of the school. The principals of small schools used problem-solving phrases like, "look at this, get ready, discussing, found a way to make it, worked it out, developed one" while the principals of large schools used problem-solving phrases like, "created a plan of action, gathers information, find a solution, make a flow chart, brought several proposals, developed pro's and con's." The problem-solving skills of the principals of the large schools appeared to use additional problem-solving behaviors compared to the principals of the small schools.

Organizing. Organizing was a consistent behavior for each of the principals. They each had their own way of being organized and felt that it was very important to effectively run their building. However, the analysis of the in vivo codes showed that the language about organizing demonstrated that the principals of large high schools used a wider range of organizing behaviors than the principals of small high schools. Table 4.9 shows the data sources for the four principals in the strength of "organizing."

Table 4.9

Data Sources for “Organizing”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | | | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | X | X | X | X |
| Organizational Chart | | | X | X |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.9 is also very similar to Table 4.8. The behavior of organizing was consistently found in all four principals and in many data sources. Additionally, the two principals of the large schools demonstrated this behavior in all sources of data collected that lends support to their strength in this area.

As a principal of a small school, Jim explained, “Organizing is very important to me.” He used a “Franklin Covey” calendar system and “color-codes everything” . He also used a to-do list that he created every evening at home. His goal was to come to school with a plan and he explained, “I mean that I may not, I may get home and I’ve checked off two items on a fifteen item list. That’s the nature of the business, but I come to school with a plan.” Tom also

explained how being organized as a principal of a small high school was critical to him. He used a folder system in his desk for every day of the month and every month that were rotated each month. He explained what he did when he finished a task, “When I got done with that, I put it in day 20 folder and I knew where it was. I didn’t have to worry about it anymore. It was out of my mind.”

Having spent 30 years as a principal of several large high schools, Gary also learned to be very organized. One of his leadership team members supported his strength by saying, “I think one of his strengths is his design, his ability to design and see the organizational structure and at the same time be able to delegate down through the organizational structure.” In the morning, Gary also developed, “a daily schedule that I post so everybody knows where I am during the day.” Also being in a large school, Scott valued organization and explained, “I think organization here is extremely important. Knowing exactly, what’s going on on a day to day basis ... and being able to allow certain individuals to know your schedule on a daily basis.” One leadership team member explained how Scott’s organizational skills helped them as a team. He stated:

I think you see that reflected a lot in his ability to prioritize things. In how, in these meetings and in other places, he has a clear, there are some things that we have to deal with now and then there are some things that we can deal with down the road and you see that sort of focus on what is the here and the now and the most important.

Scott’s ability to hire key people to work in capacities that kept everyone organized was also highlighted.

While organization was a strength for all four principals, the in vivo codes demonstrated the level of their organizational strengths. Jim used the organizational attributes such as:

creating a plan, having a pd schedule and calendar, color-coding everything in his Franklin Covey, using forms and using specific times of the day. Tom also used specific times of day to organize and he additionally used a rotation folder system and kept his desk organized. While Gary and Scott both use specific times of the day to focus on specific tasks to help them organize and use their time wisely, Gary and Scott also mentioned additional organizational behaviors such as: creating a weekly memo (Gary), delegating (Gary and Scott), posting their schedule to others (Gary and Scott), hiring to help with organizing (Scott), and prioritizing (Scott). These additional organizational behaviors displayed a wider variety of behaviors than the principals in smaller schools used.

Communicating with staff members. Another strength of the principals was that they all worked to communicate effectively with their staff members. Developing effective lines of communication with teachers is an important behavior for building principals (Marzano et al., 2005). However, just like the specific behaviors of problem-solving and organizing looked different based on the size of the principal’s school, how they communicated with their staff members also looked different based on the size of the school. Table 4.10 shows the data sources for each of the four principals in the strength of “communicating with staff members.”

Table 4.10

Data Sources for “Communicating with Staff Members”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | X | |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.10 demonstrates that the data to support communicating with staff members came from multiple sources. The principals’ time logs supported their efforts in working to communicate with their faculties.

Being in a small school, Jim communicated with his staff members in many informal ways. He explained that if a teacher wanted to get in touch with him, they could “call, come, text, email.” His teachers had lunches with their departments so they would ask if he would come by where a specific department was meeting. He explained that the lunch-time groupings supported effective communication because, “We can do that every day and so that makes a nice time that we can communicate on things as well.” Tom also communicated with his staff members in many informal ways in his small high school. He explained, “I like to do it before school, and after school, and during lunch and between classes, where I can go to them on duty or they can come to me when I’m out in the hallways and we can visit.” He explained that being on lunch duty every day supported effective communication because it let teachers know that, “if it’s a short easy question, they can get answers to pretty quickly, pretty easily.”

Gary's communication strategies appeared to be more formal in nature than informal. Because Gary's faculty was so large, he did not schedule faculty meetings before or after school but he met with them during their team time. He explained, "I choose to meet with them during their collaborative periods all day long where it's smaller groups and I go over the same thing all day long." He also discussed the many ways that he communicated with teachers such as administrative leadership meetings that were held weekly, leadership meetings of department chairs and others that were held monthly, and he met regularly with content-alike groups of teachers who taught in the state-tested areas. As another principal of a large school, Scott used informal means to communicate, and he also used an array of formal methods. Scott scheduled a variety of regular meetings to support the faculty of his large high school. He explained, "We have monthly leadership meetings. We have monthly faculty meetings. We have PLCs in which I'm in charge of the English department and I try to get to those meetings as much as possible." Because of the size of his campus, he explained that it was difficult for him to get across the entire campus all of the time so "Usually the communication is either via text message, phone call, or email."

While all four principals worked to communicate with their faculty through informal ways, the principals of the large high schools also had to rely on more formal means like meetings. The principals of large schools also used more impersonal ways to communicate like a weekly memo (Gary) and more texts, emails, and phone calls (Scott).

Communicating with students. Another strength that each principal had was that they all worked to build effective means of communicating with students. Just like developing effective means of communication for staff, being accessible and communicating with students is also an important behavior for principals (Marzano et al., 2005). However, the principals in the large high schools created more formal structures that ensured accessibility for their students. The data sources for all four principals in the area of “communicating with students” are displayed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Data Sources for “Communicating with Students”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | | | | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.11 demonstrates that the data for communicating with students was supported by four data sources for each principal. Scott was the anomaly with his fourth data source coming from the observation of the leadership meeting, where he discussed a meeting with students, instead of his leadership team's focus group interview. The remaining data sources were consistent among all four principals.

As a principal of a small high school, Jim worked very hard to be visible to his students before school, during lunch, after school and at extra-curricular events. He explained how he used his visibility to communicate with students, "At lunch, I will go around from table to table sometimes and just pick at the kids or converse with them." His leadership team members also agreed that he was very visible at their extra-curricular events. In the focus group interview, one of them said, "The kids just know that he's going to be there." At the other small school, Tom also worked very hard to be visible. He explained that the students knew that he would be out in the halls before and after school and they could just look for him. He also used the lunchtime to make it easy for students to come and ask him questions. This year, he created one formal structure for students like a principal advisory board. He explained, "...we met today for about 45 minutes and so we just talked and had different things that I was asking them to do."

As a principal of a large high school, Gary explained how they were "really working this year on developing lines of communication with students. We have an ambassador program that I'm attending once a month and those are the kids who really are the ambassadors for our school." He also met regularly with the Student Council, a school spirit group of students, and the newspaper staff. In order to talk informally with students, he explained, "I try to do that in the cafeteria at lunch." He also attended a lot of the extra-curricular activities so that students saw him and could visit with him. Visibility was also an important part of communicating with

students for Scott. Besides being visible, he also worked intentionally to create leadership groups of students. He explained, “We have several leadership groups. We have student senate that I bounce ideas off of. I have a club organization, kind of my student advisory group that we meet once a month and discuss issues.” At the leadership team meeting, he explained to teachers how he and the superintendent met with a group of students to talk about their district’s future.

While the principals of the small school predominately relied on communicating with students through informal means like seeing them in the halls, at lunch, and at games, the large school principals added more formal structures like specific groups of students where two-way communication could take place. While one principal in a small school had started a formal group that year, both principals in large schools used multiple groups regularly to engage in conversations with students.

Developing leaders. The behavior of developing leaders looked very different based on the size of the school although there was some overlap with one principal. In one small school, the principal focused primarily on developing his assistant principal to be a principal. In the other small school, the principal had spent the majority of his career focused on developing only his assistant principal but in the last five years, he had begun to develop more teacher leadership. Both principals of large schools developed their assistant principals and teacher leaders. Table 4.12 shows the data sources for each of the four principals in the strength of “developing leaders.”

Table 4.12

Data Sources for “Developing Leaders”

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
| Principal Survey | | | | X |
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | X | X | X | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Time Log | X | X | X | X |
| Principal Final Interview | X | X | X | X |

Table 4.12 shows that the behavior of developing leaders was strong for all four principals even though how the principals used this behavior differed.

Having served as a principal of a small school for the last five years, Tom focused his leadership development efforts on his assistant principal. He described how he briefly met with his assistant principal most mornings, and how he worked collaboratively with him to establish good work habits. He stated, “That’s kind of a goal between he and I. If one of us can get in every classroom once a day then I feel like we’ve done a really good job.” He explained in his interview, “I try to give him, give him at least knowledge or a piece of everything that I do.” However, Tom did not feel that he was doing an effective job in teacher leadership. He stated, “I don’t know that I do as good a job in developing his replacement if he were to leave.” In his early years as a principal of a small school, Jim explained that he did not focus on developing

leaders but he did have assistant principals move into principal positions. He said, “I guess I saw myself as a good leader most of the time but I wasn’t developing leaders.” Then his school began to grow and he began to see the need for developing leaders. He explained:

I think in the last five years, I think I have made a tremendous change, some can, others can evaluate whether it’s been good or bad but I’ve changed in the way that I deal with things. Our, our programs, our buildings, our numbers, our activities have just grown so much that there was no choice.

He explained that he worked to hire the best people that he could find. He then developed them “by offering opportunities to go and train.”

Having spent thirty years as a high school principal in several large high schools, developing leadership was a foundational belief for Gary. His vision of the perfect day was:

My services wouldn’t be needed. That there would be enough leadership on campus in each department and with each administrator that they would know how to answer all curriculum questions, that they would be able to collaborate with their teachers...

His leadership team echoed his strength in building leaders. One leadership team member explained how he worked with her to develop her leadership after she would tell him about her situation. She said that he would ask her, “Have you considered this?” She also explained that he would, “Just help walk through the ways to treat that situation without causing additional problems.” Scott’s leadership team also felt that he was very good at developing his teachers and assistant principals as leaders. His philosophy was “...to really create leadership capacity within our professional learning groups, and allow my assistant principals to take that paradigm shift from just being kind of a disciplinarian.” He supported leadership training for both teachers and assistant principals through the Arkansas Leadership Academy. Besides providing support

for his leaders, he also held them accountable and they appreciated that. One leadership team member said, "...I certainly don't want this to come off negative, but if I do something wrong, then he lets me know...but that's ok, I'd rather you know right to my face..."

One principal of a small high school appeared to focus primarily on developing his assistant principal. The other principal of a small high school spent the majority of his career focused on his assistant principals until the growth of his school and programs forced him to begin building leadership within this school. However, the two principals at large schools divided their focus between both their assistant principals and their leadership team members and used a variety of strategies to building their teams.

Holding strong beliefs. Marzano et al. (2005) explain that it is important that principals hold strong beliefs about school and are willing to share those beliefs with others and demonstrate behavior consistent with those beliefs. All four principals had beliefs that they felt strongly about and they were willing to hold others accountable to those beliefs; however there was a difference in their beliefs that appeared to be related to the size of the school. Table 4.13 shows where the data sources were for each of the four principals in the strength of "holding strong beliefs."

Table 4.13

Data Sources for "Holding Strong Beliefs"

| Data Source | Jim | Tom | Gary | Scott |
|-------------|-----|-----|------|-------|
|-------------|-----|-----|------|-------|

Principal Survey

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Principal Initial Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Meeting Observation | | | | X |
| Focus Group Interview | X | X | X | X |
| Leadership Agenda | | | | |
| Organizational Chart | | | | |
| Principal Time Log | | | | |
| Principal Final Interview | | | X | |

The primary source of data in Table 4.13 came from the principal but was supported by the comments from the leadership team.

Both principals of small schools held strong beliefs about caring for students. At the beginning of each school year, Jim worked with his faculty to set goals and one of the first things that he did was explain, “Number one, and, and always number one, I want 60 people who care. I need 60 people who care.” He continued to explain to his staff members that if they were great instructors and they cared, they will get even better but if they do not care, he told them, “We don’t need you.” Tom also supported a very similar philosophy to Jim’s philosophy about the importance of caring for students above other expectations. He explained it this way:

We can have the best curriculum, we can have the best instruction, we can have the best assessment but if we don’t care about kids, it really doesn’t matter. We can be the richest school in America but if we’ve got teachers who do not care about kids then those things don’t matter so my philosophy is that we’re gonna love the kid.

Caring for students appeared to be their primary concern for both principals of small schools.

As a principal of large schools for many years, Gary also had strong beliefs in how students would be treated. Gary emphasized how students would be treated in difficult situations but he also held a strong belief that change was inevitable. He stated:

Any good leader has to understand that change is inevitable. If you look at any business today, their success is based upon their willingness to change and become better. You can't be the same tomorrow that you are today or you are going to fall behind. Schools either improve or they fall behind.

This element of change supported a belief that the school would continually improve and student success would increase. Scott's philosophy was, "We're all a family; we're all here for the sole purpose that making sure that every child will succeed."

While all four principals supported the belief that students should be treated well and all four principals supported their schools being successful schools, the emphasis appeared differently based on the size of the school. The principals of the small schools spoke very passionately about caring for the students as the main priority while the principals of the large schools appeared to support dual priorities of caring for students and student success.

Finding Three: While all four principals demonstrated their understanding of the need for "being visible with students," "being visible with teachers," "knowing your students," and "knowing your staff," they all recognized that these leadership behaviors would be easier to develop and execute in a small school compared to a large school.

All four principals demonstrated their understanding of the importance of being visible and knowing students and staff; however, they and/or their leadership team acknowledged that being in a small school would enable a leader to develop these leadership behaviors more easily.

In the focus group interview in Jim's school, one person explained, "In a big school district...it may be almost impossible to know every teacher at that personal level. Jim knows every teacher at a personal level and at a small district like ours, I think that's the expectation." Another member of Jim's leadership team explained how she believed the size of a school could impact being visible and knowing staff members. She explained:

I would say that our staff and personnel consider this as an extension of their family...and I have not worked in a district larger than this but it seems like it would be more institutionalized and the personal element of it may not be there.

Tom also explained how he viewed the impact of size on these behaviors. He said:

I think the more teachers you have, probably the less opportunity you have to know all the teachers. You may still know a few of the teachers better than you do others, but to know all, I think it's going to be harder the more there are. Just like it is with students, the more students, I mean, you may know some pretty good but you can't know them all. There's just no way.

Scott explained some of the difficulties of knowing everyone in a large school. "You can't sit down with every one of them. There's just not enough time in the day, in the week..." One of Scott's leadership team members explained in the focus group interview how in a large school, additional strategies have to be employed to support communication with faculty. He said:

Well, a school this size is going to have to do a good job of developing leaders because you can't communicate with 200 or however many faculty all the time so you have to constantly develop people to keep the lines of communication open.

This faculty member's comment demonstrates that in a large school, additional leadership behaviors, like developing leaders, would need to be employed to be visible and to know both students and staff compared to a small school principal who could effectively navigate through the entire building on a daily basis.

Finding Four: The additional behaviors that were present in the leadership behavior of “organizing” in the principals of large schools may have supported additional leadership behaviors in “communicating with students,” “communicating with staff,” and “developing leaders” in the principals of the large schools.

As described in finding two, the leadership behaviors of “organizing,” “communicating with students,” “communicating with staff,” and “developing leaders” all appeared to support additional behaviors in the principals of large schools. Within those four leadership behaviors, the foundational behavior of organizing appears to support additional behaviors in these other three behaviors.

In the leadership behaviors of “communicating with students” and “communicating with staff,” the principals of large schools had added multiple structures to support communication. Both Gary and Scott had additional student groups that they met with to build communication. These student groups require more events to organize on a calendar and better time management techniques, also part of organizing, to be able to effectively lead the school but still have time for additional meetings.

With the leadership behavior of developing leaders, there were multiple behaviors exhibited by the principals of the large schools that would require organizational skills. Working with both teachers and assistant principals would require a principal to be more organized to effectively schedule more meetings or discussion. Additionally, while being able to delegate

additional responsibilities to more people, managing the different jobs and providing the proper amount of support would also require a more organized calendar and the time-management to be able to add more meetings to the calendar.

While evidence of all four leadership behaviors was found in all four principals, additional behaviors were found in the principals who worked in the large schools, and the behavior of organizing appeared to support the additional development of the other three behaviors. Without being able to maintain an effective calendar with multiple events and to organize effectively to accomplish the work that must be done, principals would not be able to add additional meetings with faculty and students to build relationships and to add additional meetings with teachers and assistant principals to develop their leadership abilities.

Finding Five: The two leadership behaviors of “seeking input” and “setting direction/limits” appeared to counter-balance each other depending on the size of the school.

All four principals displayed the leadership behaviors of “seeking input” and “setting direction/limits” but the behaviors were displayed differently based on the size of the school. The principals in the small schools appeared to use more “setting direction/limits” behaviors and fewer “seeking input” behaviors while the principals in the large schools appeared to use more “seeking input” behaviors and fewer “setting direction/limits” behaviors.

As a principal of a small school, Jim appeared to use more “setting limits” behaviors and fewer “seeking input” behaviors although both leadership behaviors were evident. During his leadership team meeting, he frequently set the direction or limit of the conversation. He said the following:

- I will run a bus. No, we’ve addressed that.

- We need our people there.
- I will talk with them and kind of address what we're, some of the things we're talking about.
- It's also time that we start getting at, at the district level, start getting answers to those questions.
- I would prefer to do it at the end of the year.
- We've got to sit down and start knocking those out.
- But that's what we have to do.
- Let us pursue that.

These were just a few of the many examples during the leadership meeting. Also during his interview, he gave multiple examples of how he directed the people in his building. During the focus group interview, one of his leadership members explained his leadership behaviors in this area. He explained,

You know the crazy thing is none of those things he tells us exactly, "I want to see this changed," but we all know what he's wanting because of the way he talks and the way he gives us direction. So we, everything we do kind of has that goal in mind, as we do it.

Not all of Jim's leadership behaviors fell into the area of "setting direction/limits." He did also "seek input." During his interview, he explained about the time when he put together a committee to pursue a unique opportunity and he said, "I really allowed staff to have a lot of input." In the leadership behavior of building leaders, he also worked to get people to give input as a leader because as he explained, "I have my experience to pull from but in the end, I have one opinion that I really don't like depending on all the time." During his faculty meeting, he provided an open time that anyone could get on the agenda and talk. He also explained that he

had grown in this area when he said, “I started really talking to some of my, my best teachers, trying to get their input” regarding how to balance academic and athletic activities.

As the principal of a small school, Tom also set many more directions/limits in his leadership meeting and when discussing his leadership behaviors in his interview than he exhibited in seeking input although he displayed both behaviors. In his leadership team meeting observation, he said:

- You might want to poll people because...
- We'll be in the cafeteria.
- Yea, wear faculty shirts.
- I chose to use some of the school money to pay for that for all the 10th graders.
- Grades are going to be due next Tuesday at ten.
- Don't give me a portfolio because I'm not going to look at it.
- Grin and bear it.

In his interview he said,

- So, we're not going to do that anymore.
- I used that and let them know before they ever saw the master schedule that was the direction that we were going.

While he used a lot of directives to set the direction or limits of his staff, he also looked for their input. When he was struggling as a new principal, he called in his leadership team and just listened to them about how he could improve. He also allowed his departments to select their representative for the leadership team. His leadership team said, “I think he seeks the input of teachers. It's not just dictating...” He explained to me in the interview, “I ultimately have to make the decision that I think is best but I try to listen to them on what they think.” And at the

leadership team meeting, the last agenda item was whether they would do a book study in the spring. He brought up the idea and then told the leadership team members to think about it and they would discuss it at the next meeting.

As a principal of a large high school, Gary also had to “set limits/directions” but overall his emphasis appeared to be more about “seeking input.” During the observation of his leadership team meeting, Gary only displayed a few directives. One occurred regarding the agenda and because time was running out, he said, “We are going to move down and pick up a couple of items so we can get these approved and moved on.” Another was after a presentation he said, “It’s an information item today. But hearing no concerns, it will be an action item but I think it’s safe for you to go ahead and proceed forward.” During his interview, he also explained how he gave a directive to a teacher who was in the middle of a divorce with another teacher on campus, “I’ll do the best that I can, but your interaction is between the two of you, and you are going to have to keep it off this campus.”

Gary’s leadership behaviors clearly focused on “seeking input” over directives. In the observation of his leadership team, he told everyone, “At our meeting next month, I’m going to be asking you to give some recommendations on just like Ms. Caver did about some steps that we can take.” His leadership team acknowledged that in meetings, “he works hard to try to find a consensus.” Finding a consensus is not necessary unless a leader is seeking input and trying to build a consensus from all of the input. During his interview, he displayed a letter that he had sent to his AP Department Chair to “lead a study of the AP program with AP teachers and make specific recommendations.” While he was being directive in that changes needed to take place, he was seeking the input of multiple people in making those changes. He also explained how several of his meetings involved multiple stakeholders. One meeting was about how to

effectively test all of their students in PARCC testing and he explained, “So we’ve tried to involve as many of the different stakeholders here on campus.” He also explained the reason that he sought the input of so many different stakeholders:

There’s not a way that we will make 100% of this faculty happy with that decision, but at least the decision that comes forth won’t be an arbitrary decision. It will be something that is thought-out by a number of people, a number of faculty members.

This belief supported his behavior of seeking the input of as many people as possible.

As a principal of a large school, Scott also demonstrated a higher number of “seeking input” behaviors compared to “setting direction/limits.” In the observation of his leadership team meeting, he outlined the steps that the administrative team was taking to help with PARCC testing. He was directive as he explained to his leadership team members that they needed to make sure that they were consistent with formative assessment grading practices.

However, while he did occasionally use directives, he encouraged a lot of input from his staff. When they set the norms for behavior in their leadership meetings, he explained that they all had an equal voice. This equality of voice encouraged everyone to give input because they were valued as equals. Throughout his leadership team meeting, he encouraged his staff by saying, “Again, tell me what you guys need and we’ll try to do everything we can.” He asked about what professional development needs they had. He asked his leadership team to “dissect” the plan presented to them about PARCC. He asked them to analyze the courses they were offering students to see if any new courses needed to be added. Additionally, his school supported the development of Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) and he explained that they did not put administrators or specialists in leadership roles but “allowed teachers to really come up with the strategies that we need to take, that need to take place as we move forward

with Common Core.” Like Gary, his beliefs about leadership really drove the balance of these behaviors. He explained, “I really feel that allowing others to be part of the decision making process; not really having that top-down authoritarian leadership style has been very beneficial.”

While all principals or their leadership teams could cite specific directions that the principals wanted their buildings to go and all could cite specific examples of when limits had been crossed and principals spoke with those individuals, the principals of small high schools appeared to set more specific directions and decisions with their faculties. However, the principals of large high schools sought more input from their leadership teams before decisions were made and directions were set.

Summary

The goals of this study were to develop a better understanding of the leadership behaviors of four effective high school principals, and then within that knowledge analyze if the leadership behaviors of the two principals of small high schools looked different than the leadership behaviors of the two principals of large high schools based on the size of the school, and within that knowledge of differences, analyze if a perceived relationship may have existed between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. All five findings answered the first research question because the findings provided insights into the specific leadership behaviors that these four practicing principals used to lead their schools. The second finding answered the second research question because that finding provided description about how the principals’ leadership behaviors appeared to be different depending on what size of school they led. The third, fourth, and fifth findings answered the third research question that analyzed if there was a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals.

The first finding demonstrated that these four high school principals displayed leadership behaviors in the areas of listening, building relationships, focusing on students, showing situational awareness, being a change agent, and being flexible. Their differences surfaced in the second finding that demonstrated that while they all engaged in being solving problems, organizing, communicating with staff members, communicating with students, developing leaders, and holding strong beliefs, these leadership behaviors appeared to look different based on whether the principal was leading a large school or a small school. The final three findings illustrated a possible relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. First, the leadership behaviors of being visible and knowing staff members appeared to be easier to execute in a smaller school compared to a larger school. Next, the size of the school appeared to be related to differences in the behaviors of organization, communication with students and staff, and developing leaders in the principals of large schools compared to the principals of small schools. Additionally the behavior of organization appeared to be a foundational behavior for the other three leadership behaviors. Finally, the leadership behaviors of seeking input and setting direction/limits appeared to counter-balance each other depending on the size of the principals' school. While all four principals demonstrated both types of behaviors, the large school principals appeared to favor more seeking input behaviors while the small school principals appeared to favor more setting direction/limits behaviors.

The next chapter provides the discussion of these five findings. Included are implications and recommendations.

Chapter Five – Discussion, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there was a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. There are few who would argue that the position of the building principal has become a very demanding job with a myriad of responsibilities (Bass, 2006), and the difficulty of the position continues to cause the stress of principals to also increase (Williamson & Campbell, 2014). However, for those school leaders intent upon learning how to effectively handle the demands and difficulty of the job, the specifics of effective school leadership appears to be that lost piece of notepaper picked up in the wind each time one attempts to stop its flight. Instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, change leadership, learning-centered leadership, and balanced leadership are just some of the major educational leadership models. However, within the abundance of knowledge of leadership theories, there are very few studies that situate and describe leadership within the context of the size of the school (Hallinger, 2005). The goal of this study was to provide a better understanding of what effective leadership looked like for four building principals within the context of the size of their school and to determine if the size of their school was related to their leadership behaviors and if so, how.

This chapter provides a discussion of the findings. Within this discussion, the leadership behaviors of the four principals and how the context of size impacted or did not impact the behaviors are analyzed within the leadership theory that they exist. There were leadership behaviors that were exhibited by the principals that are not discussed because those leadership behaviors appeared to be related to a context other than size. For example, the leadership behavior of affirming was evident in one of the principals of a small school and one of the principals of a large school. Since this behavior appeared to exist in the principal of one small

school and one large school while not in the remaining principals, this appeared to be a related to their personalities, which did not fall within the scope of this study and was not discussed.

Balanced Leadership

Marzano et al. (2005) included 21 leadership behaviors in their Balanced Leadership model. Because of the large list of behaviors, this model was used in this study. Each of the 21 leadership behaviors was turned into an interview question for the principal. However, because principals understand the work that they should be doing, the questions for the focus group interview were more generalized to see if the leadership team would support the answers that the principals had given in their initial interview. The final interview with the principal searched for clarification of identified behaviors from the interviews of the principal and the observation of the leadership team meetings. While this model was given the most focus by the researcher, only eight of the 21 behaviors were listed as consistent behaviors that all four principals used as described in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Principal Behaviors in Balanced Leadership Model

| Consistency of behaviors | Consistent | Inconsistent |
|--------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Affirmation | | X |
| Change Agent | X | |
| Communication | X | |
| Contingent Rewards | | X |
| Culture | | X |

| | | |
|--------------------------|---|---|
| Discipline | | X |
| Flexibility | X | |
| Focus | | X |
| Ideals/Beliefs | X | |
| Input | X | |
| Intellectual Stimulation | | X |
| Involvement in CIA | | X |
| Knowledge of CIA | | X |
| Monitoring/Evaluating | | X |
| Optimizer | | X |
| Order | | X |
| Outreach | | X |
| Relationships | X | |
| Resources | | X |
| Situational Awareness | X | |
| Visibility | X | |

The eight behaviors identified in this study of the four principals were change agent, relationships, visibility, communication, flexibility, ideals/beliefs, input, and situational awareness. In this study these behaviors were identified respectively as “being a change agent,” “building relationships,” “being visible with students” and “being visible with staff,” “communicating with students” and “communicating with staff,” “being flexible,” “holding

strong beliefs,” “seeking input,” and “showing situational awareness.” Also in this study, being visible and communicating were both broken into the separate categories of students or staff to see if there were differences in this type of work with the different stakeholders.

Four of the six behaviors identified in this study: being a change agent, building relationships, being flexible, and showing situational awareness were all identified in finding one which highlighted the common behaviors of the four principals where the context of the school did not appear to be related to their behaviors. A possible explanation for these four behaviors being strengths in all four principals is the current education climate is consistent for all four principals. The current climate of accountability that was introduced with NCLB in 2005 and continues in 2015 has forced principals to seek continual improvements or face the possibility of losing their job (United States Department of Education, 2005; Ylimaki et al., 2014; Chakrabarti & Schwartz, 2013). The context of this current political climate impacts how principals lead their schools and requires principals to understand how to initiate change in their school. Building relationships is key to being an effective leader, and effective principals understand they must build relationships to get people to follow them, especially through the many changes they face. However, within a climate of change, a leader must be flexible and adapt his leadership behavior to the current needs of the situation and the needs of the followers. Additionally, leaders must understand the informal structures in the school and know what is happening so that he can interject when needed to keep the ship on course. And last, a leader has to have a strong moral foundation because at the end of a tough, exhausting day, principals must know that the work is worth the effort. Knowledge about all of these behaviors is important to be an effective principal in the current educational climate so it is not surprising that these four principals all demonstrated these leadership behaviors.

The Balanced Leadership model behavior of communication was broken into two separate behaviors in this study: communicating with staff and communicating with students and they were addressed in finding two, which concluded that these skills appeared to look different based on the size of the school. In this study all four principals, regardless of size, communicated with their staff members and students in many ways. However, the principals of the large schools used more formal structures with staff members and students and their communication with staff members included more impersonal ways like a weekly memo. Day et al. (2008) support that leadership behaviors are contingent upon their contexts. The principals of the large schools had to adapt their communicating behaviors to include ways to ensure that communication was taking place instead of just walking down the halls and knowing that it would take place. This is important because principals who do not understand that the size of the school will require more complex communication strategies may not be able to effectively communicate with students, staff members, and the community. Because communication behaviors are key behaviors for success, principals in large schools must understand that communication in a large setting will not just happen. Communication must be planned for, organized, and structured as the two principals of large schools demonstrated in this study.

Visibility in the Balanced Leadership model was also broken down into two behaviors in this study: being visible with students and being visible with staff and were discussed in finding three. Finding three concluded that these skills, including knowing students, would be easier for a principal in a smaller school compared to a larger school. This finding is consistent with research of Lee and Loeb (2000). In their study of the effect of school size, Lee and Loeb (2000) concluded that relationships are more positive in small schools. This would support the finding that being visible in a smaller school would be easier to accomplish because having the

opportunities to see and visit with people is foundational for building positive relationships and would support the increased communication strategies that the principals in the large schools used.

The remaining leadership behavior from the Balanced Leadership model was input which was labeled “seeking input” in this study. Seeking input was identified in finding five and appeared to be used more by the principals of the large schools compared to the principals of the small schools. The principals in the small schools appeared to use fewer input strategies and more directives. Marzano et al. (2005) explain that it is easier to accomplish the multitude of responsibilities in a school if “the focus of school leadership shifts from a single individual to a team of individuals” (p. 99). The principals in the large schools demonstrated that they were using the input of more people to support their work compared to the principals of the small schools who may have felt capable of handling the work. This is important because a principal who has spent his time in a small school and suddenly moves to a large school may overwork himself trying to direct all of the work instead of seeking input and involving a larger group of individuals.

However, it is concerning that out of 21 balanced-leadership behaviors, only eight of them were identified in this study. Some of these behaviors, such as discipline, resources, order, culture, were most likely evident in the schools in this study because all of these schools appeared to have a positive culture which would have been unlikely if these were absent. A possible explanation for why these behaviors did not appear with these four principals is that effective discipline, order, teacher resources, and a positive culture were part of the culture of these low-poverty school systems and communities and the principals did not have to focus their behaviors in this area. As Hallinger and Murphy (1986) identified in their research about high

poverty and low poverty schools, the community and parents help set the expectation for the success of the school. These four principals would have benefited from this community support of high expectations for discipline, order, resources, and culture.

Out of the other 21 leadership behaviors, two focused on curriculum, instruction, and assessment and only one of the four principals appeared to have strengths in this area. In his study about principal behaviors, Heck (1992) found that secondary principals do not spend the same amount of time as elementary principals doing instructional tasks and this study supported that conclusion about secondary principals. One explanation may be that unlike their elementary counterparts, high school principals are involved with many athletic teams which include event supervision, parental disagreements, transcript requirements for athletes, and many other duties. In a typical high school, there are a multitude of clubs that often require a principal to be involved with travel details, fundraising, and student-sponsor relationships. Because graduation is part of the high school, parents and students are most concerned about grades, transcripts, and being prepared for college and demand a lot of attention. High school students also are at the age to assert their independence in a multitude of ways that result in discipline issues that include arrests, truancies, and drop-outs. Most high school principals find themselves too busy to sit in a classroom with a teacher or a group of teachers on a regular basis each week discussing curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

To help with this work, many principals will delegate this work and that was consistent in this study and with the research conducted by Day et al. (2008) which found “secondary heads are more likely to use indirect approaches to support the development of teaching and learning” (p. 92). One of the principals of the large high schools explained how he was developing his assistant principals to be leaders of curriculum and instruction; each with a different assigned

curriculum department while he worked with one department. While most principals will use their assistant principals to handle the discipline while they retain the instructional duties, many large high school principals are finding that their assistant principals must also share the instructional leadership work. While this may make the assistant principal position more difficult to manage for the assistant principals, it will better prepare assistant principals to be strong principals with instructional leadership skills. In this study, the principal who was doing this work with his assistant principals spoke about how he had been primarily a disciplinarian as an assistant principal and did not feel adequately prepared for the scope of the work when he was first hired as a building principal. This type of delegation will require principals to spend quality time training their assistant principals, monitoring their work, and resolving the problems that will naturally occur.

In the other large school, the principal said, “Over the last four years, there has been real effort on the part of the district to employ some people that are really content specific.” These content specific directors were leading the curriculum and instruction work with teachers. This principal’s work is consistent with the research of Hannaway and Kimball (1998) who explained that “larger organizations also tend to be more highly differentiated with more specialized positions” (p. 4). Additionally, most districts are now recognizing the need to provide instructional support in all their buildings, regardless of the level or size, by assigning instructional facilitators to buildings or grade levels. This district practice was evident in this study with one of the small high school principals that was provided with a math instructional facilitator and a literacy instructional facilitator for both the junior high and his building.

There are concerns with these specialized positions leading curriculum and instruction work. First, are these curriculum specialists administrators who the teachers will respect and

follow or are they teacher-leaders who some teachers will challenge and not follow? Many high school teachers are as independent as the students they teach and will not accept authority very well. Some teachers will also discount the advice of specialists regardless of their position because they do not currently work with students. There must be a consistent message from the building principal and the curriculum specialists to the teachers and this consistency requires work from the district and the principal. Additionally, these people must have excellent people skills to work with a variety of independent high school teachers in a variety of content areas. Finding the right people for this role is critical for the principal and district and often the principal and district are not in agreement of who is the best fit.

Another possible explanation for the majority of the principals in this study not demonstrating direct work in curriculum and instruction with teachers is that all of these schools were successful schools. One of the leadership team members of a small school explained how they did not have to post their teaching positions on state websites because so many teachers wanted to work there. When schools have a large applicant pool to choose from, better teachers will be hired and less work will be required from the principal to lead their work in curriculum, instruction, and assessments. In Hallinger and Murphy's (1986) research of effective principals in both low and high poverty schools, they found that in low poverty schools, teachers understood that "the children of professional parents should succeed in school. Teachers felt tangible pressure in this regard, noting that parents tended to be vociferous if their child's progress was not meeting their expectations" (p. 347). Because all four principals in this study led low-poverty schools, they may not have had to be as directly involved with curriculum and instruction because their teachers would have felt the pressure from their students' parents for their students to be academically successful and would have been willing to do extra work with

curriculum and instruction to make sure that students succeeded on state and national standardized tests. Heck (1992) also concluded that “the achievement context of the school may influence the leadership actions of new principals” (p. 31). While none of the four principals in this study were new, they did lead successful schools and it appears that their successful contexts may have influenced their leadership behaviors.

Monitoring and evaluating, affirmation, contingent rewards, outreach, intellectual stimulation, and focus are behaviors that did not emerge as consistent behaviors but this researcher would argue that many high school principals struggle in these areas. While research is very clear about the need for monitoring and evaluating progress, this researcher believes that the vastness of the high school curricular programs do not support this being done at a high level in most secondary schools. Because there were not consistent strengths in the area of curriculum, instruction, and assessment in this study as earlier discussed, it would also make sense that the four schools would not have apparent structures for monitoring and evaluating their curriculum and instruction.

In order to create opportunities to affirm students for positive academic gains, systems for monitoring and evaluating must be in place so it is consistent that all of these four principals would also not have displayed affirming behaviors. While celebrating the many individual accomplishments of high school students for extra-curricular activities is done very well in most high schools and while elementary schools typically have reward programs that recognize academic achievement, such as Accelerated Reader progress, most high school students no longer enjoy academic affirmation or recognition in front of their peers so many principals do not display these behaviors. Even many high school teachers reflect this desire to not be singled out among their peers. Additionally, the research studying effective elementary schools by

Hallinger and Murphy (1986) concluded that schools with lower numbers of low socio-economic students do not use tangible rewards like their counterparts in schools with high numbers of low socio-economic students. In this study, all four principals had low numbers of low socio-economic students so their behaviors would be consistent with the research of their elementary counterparts.

While the research is clear to use performance as an indicator for rewards as described in contingent rewards, most high schools still use seniority or popularity instead of performance as the primary criterion for staff choices. This study failed to differentiate if performance was the primary indicator for rewards instead of just an occasional indicator.

Outreach is typically seen more at the elementary level as many elementary principals serve as active advocates for their school for additional resources and support. This is supported by Hallinger and Murphy's (1986) research that found that elementary principals in schools with low numbers of socio-economic students acted "as the linking agent between the school and community" (p. 344). However, the finding in this study showed that all four principals were not consistently involved as advocates for their school to the community even though they were leaders of low poverty schools. One explanation for this inconsistency with research is that at the secondary level, the many extra-curricular activities, clubs, and programs serve as the link between the school and the community; therefore, many high school principals may not see a need for this leadership behavior.

Intellectual stimulation is another behavior in which the four principals in this study did not appear to have consistent strengths. While it makes sense that the building principal should stay informed about current research and lead those discussions among staff members, one possible explanation for why that may not be happening is the breadth of the faculty expertise in

a high school, especially in a large high school. Instead, many principals will delegate this to each department or teacher to lead as described in the research of Day et al. (2008) which found that many principals will use indirect approaches to support teaching and learning. Since intellectual stimulation is part of teaching and learning, relying on department chairs to lead the intellectual stimulation of their department makes sense.

Lastly, while each school had a clear focus on academic achievement, this behavior was not clearly evident in all four principals, especially in the area of continually keeping everyone's attention on the goals of the school. A possible explanation for why this behavior was not clearly evident in all four principals relates back to the low-poverty context of the school. As identified by Halliger and Murphy's (1986) study, parents and communities support high expectations for student success. This may allow principals of low-poverty schools to focus less on this because of the high degree of support that others exert in making sure the focus is on academic achievement.

Being an optimizer was a behavior in which there were two principals, one in a large school and one in a small school who had strengths in this area. However, the other two principals did not appear to exercise this behavior. This appeared to be a behavior that stemmed from the personality of the principals. Jim continually portrayed the great work that his staff was doing in front of them and also in the interview about them. However, Tom explained, "I'm not a cheerleader person" and he did not speak at great lengths about the strengths of his staff and their ability to do great things.

The Balanced Leadership model did not appear to be a model that provided great support for the four principals in this study since only eight of the 21 behaviors were consistent in all four principals.

Instructional Leadership

Within the instructional leadership model theory of Hallinger and Murphy (1987), there are ten specific behaviors. Two of these behaviors are related to defining the mission through creating and communicating goals, four of them are related to curriculum and instruction and four of them are related to the school culture (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). In this study, the principals displayed the behavior of setting standards and partially displayed the behavior of setting expectations. Both of these behaviors fall within the category of school culture in the Hallinger and Murphy (1987) instructional leadership model.

Hallinger and Murphy (1987) defined setting standards as “establishing clear, explicit standards that embody the school’s expectations of students” (p. 58). All four principals displayed this common leadership behavior setting standards as labeled in this study as “holding strong beliefs” in finding one. While it was evident that all four principals wanted their students to be successful as evidenced by all four schools’ high test scores, the principals of the large high schools appeared to add more emphasis to student success than the principals of the small high schools. Both Jim and Tom, principals of the two small high schools, appeared to set the expectation with their faculty that caring for students was held above all other standards or beliefs. However, both principals of large high schools appeared to set the expectations for caring for students and student success equally.

This higher placement of the expectation for student success by the principals of the large high schools was also evident in the expectations of the leadership teams of the large schools. In this study, all four leadership teams were asked why they thought their schools were considered successful schools. While the leadership teams of all the schools cited high test scores as one of their answers, the leadership teams of large schools either added “a lot of AP courses” (Gary’s

leadership team) or “unique programs,” and “large variety of offerings,” (Scott’s leadership team). Additional courses, programs, and courses offer students more opportunities at finding success. For example, in a large high school, the additional offerings of backstage theatre, computer science courses, and additional foreign languages provide students who may not succeed in traditional academics and athletic programs more places to find their success. The research of Hannaway and Kimball (1998) support that large-sized districts provide additional opportunities. The leadership teams of the large high schools appear to endorse that additional opportunities for students to be successful also supports their principals’ additional emphasis on student success.

Understanding the expectations that a community places on a school was also apparent in the research of Hallinger and Murphy (1986). In their analysis of the differences in effective high poverty and low poverty schools, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) concluded that the low poverty schools “seemed to derive their level of expectation from the community” (p. 346). This study supports that even within low poverty schools, there are differences within the community’s expectations that principals must understand. While all principals must understand that all parents want their children to succeed, it is important that principals in large schools understand that their community also supports additional opportunities for their children so that their children can be sure to find success. For example, a principal who focused primarily on caring for students and developing relationships with students may not be spending the time required by the community of a large school to develop and expand on the opportunities for students to demonstrate success. A principal who does not understand this additional responsibility could lead to the principal losing his job and the community of the large high school frustrated with lack of growth in opportunities for students.

The other instructional leadership behavior identified by Hallinger and Murphy (1987) is setting expectations which is “maintaining high visibility in order to communicate priorities and model expectations” (p. 58). In this study, all four principals also worked to maintain a high level of visibility; however finding three found that the four principals believed that being visible was easier in a smaller school. While this study did not clarify if that visibility resulted in the communication of priorities and the modeling of expectations, it is inferred that at least some of the visibility would have resulted in those two situations. When people are visible, communication and modeling occur.

While the four principals displayed a variety of the eight remaining instructional behaviors identified for instructional leaders by Hallinger and Murphy (1987), there was not a consistency with all four principals even though many policy makers and educational practitioners highly promote the model of instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2005). With the continued emphasis of accountability that was introduced in 2005 with the NCLB Act, principals still find themselves immersed with school improvement and accountability. Since this study focused on four successful principals, it would be expected that there would have been more consistency with all four principals demonstrating strong instructional leadership behaviors.

Within this concern is the significant area of curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Instructional leaders should work with staff to ensure the implementation of curriculum, monitor instruction, and monitor students’ progress in instruction (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Maranzo, 2005). In this study all four principals did not appear to be leading curriculum and instruction work within their buildings. Only one principal really spoke specifically about the curriculum work that he and his teachers were doing in moving to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS). This suggests that the instructional leadership model as defined by Hallinger and

Murphy (1987) may not be applicable to high school principals because three of these principals had successful, high-achieving schools without demonstrating hands-on work with teachers in the areas of curriculum and instruction and only demonstrated two of the ten instructional behaviors.

In his reflections about instructional leadership, Hallinger (2003) argues that the instructional leadership model of the 1980s was supported from primarily effective elementary school principal research. However, it appears that most educators and researchers have forgotten that elementary and secondary schools are quite different and just because a model works at one level does not mean that it will work effectively at another level. While the size of the school will magnify the challenges with this model, the sheer differences in elementary and secondary schools provide the foundation of the problem. Instead of frustrating the many secondary principals who are trying to use an elementary instructional model in a secondary building, more work is needed in understanding effective secondary instructional models including models that address the wide variety of sizes that occur in high schools.

Transformational Leadership

In 1992, Leithwood introduced the concept of transformational leadership because the many mandated changes in education required principals to use a different relationship structure. Within this model, Leithwood (1992) suggests three leadership behaviors: “1) helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; 2) fostering teacher development; and 3) helping them solve problems together more effectively” (p. 9-10). Leithwood (1992) explains that transformational problem-solving behavior includes a collaborative component where the principal supports the work of the group to solve the problem and uses a variety of skills including actively listening, clarifying, summarizing, and others. In

this study, one of the three major transformational leadership behaviors, problem-solving, was identified by all four principals and looked different based on the size of the school.

The principals of the large high schools displayed different problem-solving behaviors such as “creating a plan of action, making a flow chart, developed pro’s and con’s” within a collaborative culture that are similar to the problem-solving behaviors mentioned in transformational leadership. The principal of one small school demonstrated a collaborative problem-solving culture although not the different problem-solving behaviors displayed by the principals in large schools and his collaborative nature developed after his school grew by 25% and he was nearing the end of his tenure. The other principal of a small school did not demonstrate the collaborative culture of problem-solving and nor the differences in his problem-solving behaviors.

A possible explanation for why the principals of large high schools, and one high growth small school principal, demonstrated the transformational leadership behavior of collaborative, complex problem-solving while the same-sized small high school principal did not is that this type of leadership is required to be successful at a large school. In her study about small schools, Meier (1996) explains that the ideal size of a school should be determined by the faculty’s ability to all meet around one table. In this study, the principals of small schools talked about their ability to get around their campus to see all their teachers on a consistent basis. Also evident in this study was the finding that the principals in the small schools appeared to be more directive and decisive than the principals in the large schools. When a principal can talk to all teachers on a regular basis, it is also easy for him to go back and make a decision that he knows aligns with his faculty. Because principals in large schools cannot talk with all faculty members on a regular basis, they must create structures that allow for collaboration to exist and they must learn

behaviors that facilitate large groups of people working together to effectively accomplish their work. The findings in this study supported that the collaboration and complexity of the problem-solving behaviors in transformational leadership was related to the needs of the large high school principal.

Within the transformational model suggested by Leithwood (1992), two additional behaviors are mentioned: sustaining a collaborative culture and supporting professional learning. All of the principals in this study mentioned some work with collaboration within their school but the most detailed explanations came from one of the principals of the large schools, Scott. Scott explained that he had departmentalized his buildings and several times he mentioned the PLC model of teams of content-specific teachers working together. All of the other principals mentioned that at least some of their teachers were using common exams. While there was strong evidence for collaborative problem-solving, there was not strong evidence that all four principals had built collaborative structures for their teachers to work together. Supporting professional learning is another transformational behavior where teachers write their professional growth goals within a framework of their school mission (Leithwood, 1992). This depth of professional learning was not mentioned by any of the principals in this study.

A possible explanation for the behaviors of a collaborative teacher culture and a strong professional growth model not being present is again related to Hallinger and Murphy's (1986) research of low and high poverty schools. In low poverty schools, the community through parental expectations applies pressure on teachers to be sure that students succeed. That pressure may support teachers not needing formalized and collaborative structures to support their professional growth because the teachers understand that they must assist their students in being academically successful which means that they must seek additional learning if needed.

Working with good teachers who will take ownership for their growth and with parents who also apply pressure for student success will require less principal leadership. In this study, all four principals led low poverty schools where these factors most likely existed.

Transformational leadership best aligned with the work found in the principals who worked in large schools. While it would be advantageous for principals of large schools to investigate how the transformational leadership model could further support and develop their work, it is important to also understand how the poverty-status of the school is related to that work.

Moral Leadership

Sergiovanni (1992) supports a leadership model with a moral compass at the center of the work. While many schools demonstrate their values through mission and vision statements, they also demonstrate these through shared beliefs. In the interview, each principal was asked, “Please describe a time when you lead your staff in developing shared beliefs and/or a sense of community and cooperation.” While one principal of a small school explained the process for an innovative initiative, the other principal of a small school explained about setting norms for teacher professional development meetings. The principal of one large school said that he had created mission and vision statements four years previously upon his arrival at the school, and the principal of the other large school said that they had begun the work the previous year, had stopped because of a district situation, and were now working through the process again. None of the principals demonstrated a lot of work in the area of developing shared mission and vision statements.

One possible explanation for why none of the principals appeared to demonstrate strong behaviors in this area is that mission and vision work can be long, tedious work that is situated

within feelings, beliefs, and dreams. The only principal who was currently working on it was the principal who had attended the Master Principal Institute where this is directly taught. It could be that if this work is not directly taught, most principals will shy away from the ambiguity of this type of work. Because these schools were successful, it did not appear that this behavior was a high priority; however, if it is needed, then it may need to be directly taught.

Another possible reason that this behavior was not a strong leadership behavior for all four principals is the support that these principals would have received from the community in setting expectations. Again, the research of Hallinger and Murphy (1986) supports that communities of low-poverty schools create a high level of expectation for student success. Because all four schools in this study were low-poverty schools, these high expectations may have been inherently understood and the principals and teachers did not see the value of additional work in defining their mission and vision.

Sergiovanni's moral leadership model (1992) also supports servant leadership, and one of the large school principals, Scott, and one of the small school principals, Jim, listed servant leadership as their philosophy on their survey and supported by one of his leadership team members. However, the other two principals were described as very active principals who worked hard at their jobs. Being a high school principal requires that person to work many hours and this work ethic may be so embedded in the life of a high school principal that it just did not stand out as a separate behavior.

While it did not appear that the moral leadership model behaviors were strong, consistent strengths for these four principals, it may be that the context of these four low-poverty schools and the work ethic of being a high school principal had engrained the leadership behaviors in the moral leadership model to the extent that they were not conspicuous. It did not appear that there

was a relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors found in the moral leadership model.

Change Leadership

Fullan (2002) explains that change leadership requires principals who have a moral purpose, understand change, work to improve relationships, create and share knowledge, and must be coherence-makers. Out of these five behaviors, three of them were clearly evidenced in this study with one partially evidenced. The change behaviors mentioned by Fullan (2002) of moral purpose was identified in this study as “holding strong beliefs,” understanding change was identified as “being a change agent,” improving relationships was identified as “building relationships,” creating knowledge and sharing was identified as “communicating with staff members.” Finding one addressed the similarities of “being a change agent,” and “building relationships” while finding two addressed the differences found in the skills of “communicating with staff members” and “holding strong beliefs.”

Three of the behaviors that Fullan (2002) addressed in his article about change leadership were moral purpose, understanding change, and building relationships which all four principals in this study clearly demonstrated strengths. A possible explanation for the principals’ behaviors in this study aligning so closely to Fullan’s (2002) change leadership model is that change is so prevalent in our current educational culture as described in the section about change in the balanced leadership model. While moral purpose, identified as holding strong beliefs in this study, looked differently based on the element of success that was more prevalent with the principals in the large high schools, all four principals demonstrated that they operated from a moral purpose.

Within the change behavior of improving relationships, Fullan (2002) explains that “emotional intelligence is a must” (p. 18). Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as “the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feelings to motivate, plan, and achieve in one’s life” (p. 185). The four principals displayed a high degree of emotional intelligence as identified by their leadership team members during the focus group interviews, yet emotional intelligence is not frequently discussed in educational leadership research. However, if principals are to be effective in building relationships with students, parents, staff members, and community members, then emotional intelligence appears to be a foundational skill. Without having emotional intelligence, principals will not be able to build effective relationships and without effective relationships, can a person really lead? It is concerning to this researcher that emotional intelligence is not emphasized at the level of importance that it appears to hold for these four successful principals.

In this study, finding two addressed the differences found in the change behavior of “communicating with staff members.” Fullan (2002) explains, “Information, of which we have a glut, only becomes knowledge through a *social* process” (p. 18). In this study, all four principals appeared to understand the importance of using good communication strategies with their teachers. The behaviors of the principals of large schools included different communication strategies, like posting a daily schedule and scheduling formalized times for communication, which supports the contextual research of Hallinger (2003). Hallinger (2003) stated that “instructional leaders must adjust their performance of this role to the needs, opportunities and constraints imposed by the school context” (p. 334). The two principals of the large schools appeared to understand the constraints of effective communication strategies in a

large setting and so adjusted their behaviors. The importance of this was explained in the communication section of the balanced-leadership model.

Fullan (2002) identifies the behavior of knowledge creation and sharing, labeled “communicating with staff members” in this study to include “knowledge giving as well as knowledge seeking” (p. 18). In this study, finding five identified “seeking input” as a behavior that the large school principals demonstrated differently than the principals in smaller schools. The principals of the large schools were both called a “consensus builder” by their leadership teams and involved multiple stakeholders in gathering information. This finding also aligns with the contextual finding of Hallinger (2003) that principals must adjust their behaviors according to context. An explanation for this finding suggests that the principals of the large schools understood that the larger size of the building required the principals to use different behaviors because they do not have the ability to communicate with all of their teachers as easily as the principal who can visit all his teachers’ classrooms in one day as was explained in the Balanced Leadership model discussion.

Fullan (2002) additionally included the behavior of being the lead learner in the school within the behavior of communicating knowledge effectively. While all four principals demonstrated how they continued to learn, none of the leadership team members communicated that they viewed their principal as the lead learner of their school. Possible explanations for this include that this behavior is most associated with being an instructional leader, which was a leadership theory not as closely aligned to the behaviors of these four principals as other leadership theories. Additionally, as the research of Hallinger and Murphy (1986) explained about low-poverty schools, teachers and parents take ownership in making sure that their school is successful. Being principals in low-poverty schools could have enabled these principals to not

have to take such an active role in being the lead learner because the entire culture of the school and community supported learning.

The change behaviors of communication and seeking input looked different in the principals of the large schools which demonstrated a possible relationship between the size of the school and that leadership behavior. However, the majority of the behaviors in the change leadership model did not appear to be highly related to the size of the school because all four principals were strong in the majority of these behaviors. Because of the current educational context and the low-poverty contexts of these schools, other relationships may have existed but were not part of the scope of this study.

Learning-Centered Leadership

The learning-centered leadership models supported by both Murphy et al. (2007) and DuFour and Marzano (2009) both supported a leadership model that focused on the leadership behaviors of supporting teachers in focusing on student learning through work with curriculum, instruction, assessment. While there were individual strengths in the four principals in this study, these behaviors were not consistently found in all principals. Because this model is similar to the instructional leader model, the findings and discussion are very similar to those discussed in the instructional leadership section and will not be repeated.

Outliers

Four behaviors that appeared with all four principals were “listening,” “solving problems,” “organizing,” and “developing leaders” and these do not appear in the leadership models mentioned in this study. “Listening” is a behavior that would typically be referred to as a communication strategy. “Listening” was analyzed separately in this study because it was mentioned separately from communication behaviors by both principals and leadership team

members. Listening was a common behavior leadership behavior for all four principals as described in finding one. It is interesting that this behavior was emphasized by the leadership teams. Barth (1990) argues that relationships are very important to effective schools. The emphasis that listening received in this study supports the value of effective relationships that Barth addresses. This researcher has concerns that more emphasis and support are not given to soft-skills or people-skills when this study shows that these four successful principals were very strong in this area. It is important to know if more successful principals are also equally strong in listening so that those who want to be more successful could learn effective listening strategies.

Problem-solving and organizational behaviors were also apparent in the four principals in this study but not apparent in the major educational leadership theories found in this study. Hallinger (2003) supports that principals play many roles in their schools include managerial roles. If these behaviors are considered managerial-type behaviors then this study supports that principals also must engage in managerial behaviors in addition to leadership behaviors. Additionally, both of these behaviors appeared to be related to the size of the school. The principals of the large schools displayed different problem-solving and organizational behaviors than their counterparts in smaller schools. A possible explanation for this could be that the sheer numbers of parents, students, staff members, events, activities, and challenges must be organized and effectively handled. This would be consistent with Hallinger's (2003) conclusion that leaders must respond to their specific context. This is important information for principals to understand in order to be successful in a large setting. Being able to effectively solve-problems and organize the work load appear to be critical to being effective.

Collins (2001) explains that the very best leaders are those who make sure that their company will succeed when they are gone by developing strong leaders. This skill also looked different based on the size of the school. The principals of large schools, including the one principal of a small school who had seen a 25% growth of students in schools, worked to build more leadership capacity in their schools than the remaining principal of a small school. In his study of effective principals, Hallinger (2003) concluded that “effective leaders respond to the changing needs of their context” (p. 15). By building more leadership support within their school to help them manage the increased demands from the larger numbers of students, parents, and teachers, these three principals demonstrated that they were responsive to the needs of their context. However, in their study of Australian secondary schools, Mulford and Silins (2003) found that larger schools of over 900 students were less likely to support teacher distributive leadership which initially does not appear to be consistent with the findings in this study. However, in the Mulford and Silins (2003) study, they studied both effective and ineffective schools and they recognized that another research study in their country found significant levels of distributive leadership in eleven effective schools. Because all of the schools in this study were effective as measured by state standardized test results, the findings in this study are consistent with distributive leadership being an effective leadership behavior.

Three of the four outlier behaviors demonstrated by the four principals in this study were not emphasized in the well-known leadership models mentioned in this study. One possible explanation for listening not being listed as a leadership behavior is that most would consider it to be part of effective communication skills. A possible explanation for organizational behaviors, problem-solving behaviors, and developing leadership behaviors not being prominent in current educational leadership models do not focus on management behaviors.

Significance

The four principals in this study appeared to demonstrate leadership behaviors that did not match current leadership models. The leadership behaviors in both the Balanced leadership model and Instructional leadership model were minimally used by these four successful principals. There was more consistency with the Change leadership model. With the current emphasis on school improvement and accountability, one would expect that these four successful principals would have been strong instructional leaders following the models of current educational theory. Does this mean that there is a disconnect between current theories of best practice and practicing high school principals? Does this mean that current theories of best practice are no longer current and applicable?

Additionally, the four principals in this study appeared to delegate their instructional leadership. Hallinger (2006) explained that the bulk of the research for the instructional leadership model focused on elementary principals. Because elementary schools would be smaller than most high schools, is the instructional leadership model not applicable to some secondary principals because the size of their school does not allow the hands-on relationship with curriculum and instruction that is employed by elementary principals? Or do the many extra activities such as athletics, transcripts, and expanded curricular offerings support a principal in delegating this leadership to others?

The four principals in this study also appeared to display some behaviors that were not found in major educational leadership models. As stated above by Hallinger (2006), if most research for the instructional leadership model, which is also part of most other educational leadership models, was done in elementary schools, researchers may not have uncovered all the leadership behaviors that principals of large schools would use. Because some elementary

schools are considered small as compared to the size of some large high schools, the instructional leadership model may be an incomplete model. For example, in an elementary school, the amount of problems may be manageable and the principal has the ability to meet with all teachers regarding instructional work. Because the principal can manage his schedule, using additional organizational skills would not be necessary. Additionally, training teacher leaders may not be necessary for a principal of an elementary school who can handle all the work. If models are going to be proposed to work for principals in all schools, then the research behind those models should have taken place in many different contexts to ensure that the design of the model supported the different levels or different sizes of schools.

Last, there appeared to be a relationship between the size of the school and some of the leadership behaviors of these four principals because the leadership behaviors of the two sets of principals looked different based on the size of the school. However, it was not possible to completely isolate the contextual impact of size from the other contextual factors present at each school. Principals operate within the contextual opportunities and limitations of their school and community (Hallinger, 2003). It appeared that these four principals may have used different leadership behaviors based on their specific contexts, with size being one of those contexts.

Recommendations for Practice

Principals

Finding one, which discussed the principal behaviors that the four principals demonstrated in common, was most aligned to the behaviors in Fullan's (2002) change leadership. Today's educational climate of constant changes is very evident. Most states have moved to either CCSS or a higher level of curriculum standards. Many states have moved away from state created assessments and are using PARCC, Smarter Balance, or even started down

that path but have changed again to another type of assessment. School leaders are waiting to see if ACT testing takes a different focus than in previous years. Accountability systems have changed in many states to letter grades for schools or away from letter grades for school. Teacher evaluation systems have changed in many areas and many more are including data from student growth scores. Because of the ubiquitous changes in the educational culture, it only makes sense that principals should be sure that they are knowledgeable about the behaviors involved in change leadership.

Additionally, in this study, coherence-making was the only missing change behavior of the four principals. Fullan (2002) explains that principals with strengths in this area “realize that overload and fragmentation are natural tendencies of complex systems” (p. 19). It has been common in the last decade to hear teachers talk about burn-out and overload. If schools are going to keep their best teachers, it may be that principals need to devote more efforts into learning how to use the skills of coherence-making. While it may be that the four principals in this study understood coherence-making and it was just not apparent to this researcher, it bears mentioning that this type of behavior should receive more emphasis in the current change climate.

There were multiple transformational behaviors that appeared to be related to the work of the principals in the large high schools. It would be advantageous for principals in large high schools to analyze the transformational behaviors and how they may be able to support effective leadership behaviors. The outlier behaviors of problem-solving, organizing, and developing leaders were appeared to be related to the size of the school in this study. This would support principals of large high schools analyzing their behaviors in these areas to assess if further

development is needed. It is also important for principals to understand how the context of their school in regard to high poverty or low poverty may also be related to their work.

Central Office Personnel

Just like principals should be knowledgeable of change leadership behaviors, central office personnel who support principals should also incorporate more professional growth support to principals in the areas of change leadership since this model was best supported by all four principals in this study and more transformational leadership behaviors for principals in large schools. There are some districts that regularly hold trainings to support principal professional learning and it would serve districts well to analyze if the context of their community and school could be related to their principals' leadership effectiveness.

Central office personnel who are involved in the hiring of principals may also be able to increase their effectiveness of hiring by increasing their awareness of how the context of their school and community maybe related to the effectiveness of the principals of their schools. First, adding questions or scenarios to the interview process that will require the applicant to demonstrate his knowledge of the behaviors of change leadership will enable the central office personnel to analyze if the applicant's behaviors are aligned with the change culture of that specific community. Additionally, many personnel directors recognize the importance of "fit" between a community, organization, and employee. By recognizing that the size of the school and poverty status may be part of that "fit," district leaders may be able to successfully hire the best applicant.

Additionally, since delegation of the instructional program seemed to be a strategy that these high school principals used to lead, it would be important for district leaders to understand that effective delegation only happens with quality training, continual monitoring, and resolving

problems that occur. These behaviors can be reinforced through district training programs for principals and assistant principals. Districts should also support the training of any specialized positions and work with principals in effectively monitoring and supporting them.

University Programs of Study

Because the four principals in this study did not appear to be using leadership behaviors that matched current leadership models, university principal preparation programs might consider relying less heavily on current leadership models, like instructional leadership and transformational leadership, and focus more on leadership in specific contexts. Bringing in guest speakers who are practitioners and can speak about the actual leadership behaviors that they are using in their specific contexts could help bridge the gap between the reality of practice and theory. This could also be done by analyzing the courses required for principal certification and dividing them into elementary and secondary. These courses would then be taught by a practitioner with that level of knowledge. While some courses like *Ethical Leadership* and *School Law* would not need to be divided into the different levels, courses like *The School Principalship; Instructional Leadership, Planning and Supervision*; and *School Organization and Administration* could easily fit into this model. This structure would inherently support contextual discussions at a deeper level that would involve the size of the school.

In this study, all four principals stated that they spend a lot of their time solving problems and the principals of large schools used complex problem-solving strategies. It may be important for university programs that support principal licensure to analyze their current curricular offerings to see if they are discussing effective problem-solving strategies in one or more of their courses. If they are not, this would be an area that university programs could support that interested applicants understand and can use a variety of problem-solving strategies.

Recommendations for Research

People Skills

The leadership teams of all four principals ascribed more people skill descriptions to their principals than instructional leadership descriptions. The old adage, “People don’t care what you know until they know that you care” is discussed a lot in relation to teachers working with students. It may also be as equally important to principals working with teachers. In chapter two, the definition leadership used by the researcher states, “Leadership only succeeds if the leader brings other people along into the same vision, and they are all able to work together and trust one another” (Wallace Foundation, 2012, p. 4). This definition points to the necessity that leaders must be trusted by their followers and relationships are critical to trust. It could also be worthwhile to analyze if most school employees value working for a “good” boss who listens and cares about them more than they value academic improvements in instruction?

Previous Experience

While the two principals from small schools had been in schools that were smaller than the current size of their school, the principals in large schools had not been principals in small schools and the principals in the small schools had not been principals in large schools. Because they did not have this comparison work experience, their perspectives about the differences that could exist between the two sized schools were limited. It may be advantageous to find principals with this comparison experience and to analyze their knowledge of how size may have been related to their leadership behaviors. Because their insights would be created from experience, their conclusions could be more insightful.

It may also be worthwhile to know if there are very many principals who have served in both small and large schools. The lack of principals who have experienced both could lead to some interesting insights about why this has taken place. If there are limited numbers of administrators with both comparisons, is this because communities, superintendents, and principals intuitively understand that the skill sets are different? Or is this because the values of the communities and superintendents from the different sized schools are different which seeks a different type of leader? Having a better understanding of this could support a greater understanding of the behaviors needed by principals in different contexts.

Outlier Behaviors

This study revealed that problem-solving, developing leaders, and organizational behaviors were strong in all four principals in this study and in the principals of large schools even more complex than their counterparts. A review of the literature did not reveal that these three behaviors are being discussed as important behaviors for principals. It may be worthwhile to analyze additional successful principals at all levels and both male and female to see if these behaviors are more prevalent than current educational leadership research is indicating and if these skills are very important for principals in large schools.

Leadership Models

Hallinger (2003) states that principals of large schools are just not able to have the direct involvement in curriculum and instruction like their counterparts in small schools are able to have. More research is needed to analyze if the delegation of instructional leadership is effective and if so, what does it look like when it is effective? More research is also needed to better understand why there appears to be a disconnect between current theories of best practice and

practicing high school principals. Is the instructional leadership model an elementary model or a model for turning around under-performing schools and not a model for secondary schools?

More research is needed to analyze effective leadership within the context of the school: elementary versus secondary, small versus large, and low-poverty versus high-poverty.

Hallinger (2005) supports that in the search for tools to transform schools, there has been a lack of deep analysis of the context where the research has taken place. He states:

There were relatively few references to the obvious need for adaptation of the instructional leadership role in secondary school. Contextual differences were often glossed over in extrapolating the findings for policy and training purposes. In fact, the practice of instructional leadership requires substantial adaptation in secondary schools, which are often larger and more complex organizations. (p. 11)

This study demonstrates that while some behaviors were consistent among the four principals studied, there were differences between the principals of the large schools and the principals of the small schools. Instead of accepting leadership models as equally applicable for all contexts, elementary versus secondary and large versus small, we need more research to analyze if the differences that surfaced in this study were unique or significant.

Conclusions

The purpose of this multi-case study was to examine if there was a perceived relationship between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. The goals of this study were to develop a better understanding of the leadership behaviors of four effective high school principals, and then within that knowledge analyze if the leadership behaviors of the two principals of small high schools looked different than the leadership behaviors of the two principals of large high schools based on the size of the school, and within that knowledge of

differences, analyze if a perceived relationship existed between the size of the school and the leadership behaviors of the four principals. These goals were accomplished through a qualitative study that used the data gathered from individual principal interviews, observations, focus group interviews, and analysis of extant texts.

This analysis of data confirmed five findings. These five findings demonstrated a greater understanding of the common leadership behaviors of these four effective high school principals, a greater understanding of the differences of their leadership behaviors that appeared to be related to the size of the school, and a greater understanding of how the context of size was related to leadership behaviors of the four principals. The findings demonstrated that the four principals in this study used a variety of strategies to lead their schools: some in common and some different. However, the findings also provided some insights as to how the context of the size of the school was related to the behaviors of the four principals in this study. In their study of principals in small schools, Clark and Wildy (2004) argue for more research that focuses on better theoretical and practical understanding of knowledge in unique settings. With more leadership studies grounded within their unique contexts, hopefully more practitioners and those who support them can eventually grasp that ever-fleeting description of effective school leadership.

References

- Arkansas Department of Education. (2009). *Rules governing standards for accreditation of Arkansas public schools and school districts*. Retrieved from http://www.arkansased.org/public/userfiles/Legal/Legal-Current%20Rules/ade_282_standards_0709_current.pdf
- Auerbach, C. F., & Silverstein, L. B. (2003). *Qualitative data*. New York, NY: New York University Press.
- Bass, T. S. (2006). To be or not to be: Issues influencing educators' decisions to enter the principalship. *AASA Journal of Scholarships and Practice*, 2(4), 19-30.
- Barth, R. S. (1990). *Improving schools from within: Teachers, parents, and principals can make the difference*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bloomberg, L. D., & Volpe, M. (2008). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A roadmap from beginning to end* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bossert, S. T., Dwyer, D. C., Rowan, B., & Lee, G. V. (1982). The instructional management role of the principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18(3), 34-64.
- Bott, E. (2010). Favourites and others: Reflexivity and the shaping of subjectivities and data in qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 10(2), 159-173.
- Brantlinger, E., Jimenez, R., Klingner, J., Pugach, M., & Richardson, V. (2005). Qualitative studies in special education. *Council for Exceptional Children*, 71(2), 195-207.
- Buckingham, M., & Clifton, D. O. (2001). *Now, discover your strengths*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Chakrabarti, R., & Schwartz, N. (2013). Unintended consequences of school accountability policies: Evidence from Florida and implications for New York. *Economic Policy Review*, May, 19-43.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Clarke, S., & Wildy, H. (2004). Context counts: Viewing small school leadership from the inside out. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 42(5), 555-572.
- Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers, Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., and Orr, M.T. (2007). Preparing school leaders for a changing world: Executive summary. Stanford, CA: Stanford University, Stanford Educational Leadership Institute.
- Day, C., Leithwood, K., & Sammons, P. (2008). What we have learned, what we need to know more about. *School Leadership and Management*, 28(1), 83-96.
- Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., Leithwood, K., & Kington, A. (2008). Research into the impact of school leadership on pupil outcomes: policy and research contexts. *School Leadership and Management*, 28(1), 5-25.
- DuFour, R., & Marzano, R. J. (2009). High-leverage strategies for principal leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 66(5), 62-68.
- Fullan, M. (2002). The change leader. *Educational Leadership*, 59(8), 16-20.
- Fullan, M. (2006). *Quality Leadership – Quality Learning*. Paper prepared for the Irish Primary Principals' Network (IPPN). Retrieved from <http://michaelfullan.ca/media/13396069930.pdf>
- Glasman, N. S., & Heck, R. H. (1992). The changing leadership role of the principal: Implications for principal assessment. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 68(1), 5-24.
- Goldring, E., Huff, J., May, H., & Camburn, E. (2007). School context and individual characteristics: what influences principal practice? *Journal of Educational Administration*, 46(3), 332-352.
- Grissom, J. A., Loeb, S., & Mitani, H. (2013). *Principal time management skills: Explaining patterns in principals' time use and effectiveness*. Retrieved from: <http://cepa.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/time%20management.pdf.pdf>
- Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3), 329-351.
- Hallinger, P. (2005). Instructional leadership and the school principal: A passing fancy that refuses to fade away. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 4, 1-20.
- Hallinger, P., Bickman, L., & Davis, K. (1996). School context, principal leadership, and student reading achievement. *The Elementary School Journal*, 96(5), 527-549.
- Hallinger, P., & Heck, R. H. (1996). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980-1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5-44.
- Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. F. (1985). Assessing the instructional management behavior of principals. *The Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 217-247.

- Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. F. (1986). The social context of effective schools. *American Journal of Education*, 94(3), 328-355.
- Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. F. (1987). Assessing and developing principal instructional leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 45(1), 45-61.
- Hannaway, J., & Kimball, K. (1998). *Big isn't always bad: school district size, poverty, and standards-based reform*. Retrieved from: http://www.urban.org/UploadedPDF/409770_district.pdf
- Harris, A., & Chapman, C. (2002). *Effective leadership in schools facing challenging circumstances*. Retrieved from: <http://www.canterbury.ac.uk/education/protected/spss/docs/effective-leadership.pdf>
- Heck, R. H. (1992). Principals' instructional leadership and school performance: Implications for policy development. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 14(1), 21-34.
- Hewitt, P. M., Denny, G. S., & Pijanowski, J. C. (2011). Why teacher leaders don't want to be principals. *AASA Journal of Scholarship & Practice*, 8(1), 13-23.
- Hornig, E. L., Klasik, D., & Loeb, S., (2010). Principal's time use and school effectiveness. *American Journal of Education*, 116, 491-523.
- Howley, C. (2002). Small schools. In A. Molnar, *School reform proposals: The research evidence*. (pp. 49-77), Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- Howley, A., Andrianaivo, S., & Perry, J. (2005). The pain outweighs the gain: Why teachers don't want to become principals. *Teachers College Record*, 107(4), 757-782.
- Kannapel, P. J., & Clements, S. K. (2005). Inside the black box of high-performing high-poverty schools. *Report from the Prichard Committee for Academic Excellence*. Retrieved from: <http://people.uncw.edu/kozloffm/highperforminghighpoverty.pdf>
- Lee, V., & Loeb, S. (2000). School size in Chicago elementary schools: Effects on teachers' attitudes and students' achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(1), 3-31.
- Leithwood, K. (1992). The move toward transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 49(5), 8-12.
- Leithwood, K. A., & Riehl, C. (2003). *What we know about successful school leadership*. Philadelphia, PA: Laboratory for Student Success, Temple University.
- Lyons, J. E. (1990). Managing stress in the principalship. *NASSP Bulletin*, 74(44), 44-47. doi: 10.1177/019263659007452309

- Lyons, J. E., & Algozzine, B. (2006). Perceptions of the impact of accountability on the role of principals. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 14(16). Retrieved from <http://epaa.asu.edu/epaa/v14n16/>.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2011). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works*. Aurora, CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.
- McGee, G. W. (2003, April). *Closing Illinois' achievement gap: Lessons from the "golden spike" high poverty high performing schools*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Medina, J., & Riconscente, M. M. (2006). Accounting for quality. *The Journal of Education*, 186(3), 3-10.
- Meier, D. W. (1996). The big benefits of smallness. *Educational Leadership*, 54(1), 12-15.
- Mulford, B., & Silins, H. (2003). Leadership for organisational learning and improved student outcomes – what do we know? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(2), 175-195.
- Murphy, J., Elliott, S. N., Goldring, E., & Porter, A. C., (2007). Leadership for learning: A research-based model and taxonomy of behaviors. *School Leadership & Management: Formerly School Organisation*, 27(2), 179-201.
- Murphy, J. F., Goldring, E. B., Cravens, X. C., Elliott, S. N., & Porter, A. C. (2011). The Vanderbilt assessment of leadership in education: Measuring learning-centered leadership. *Journal of East China Normal University*, 29(1), 1-10.
- National Association of Secondary School Principals. (2007). *Changing role of the middle level and high school leader: Learning from the past – preparing for the future*. Retrieved from <http://www.principals.org/Portals/0/content/55304.pdf>
- O'Donnell, R. J., & White, G. P. (2005) Within the accountability era: Principals' instructional leadership behaviors and student achievement. *NASSP Bulletin*, 89(56), 56-87. DOI: 10.1177/019263650508964505
- Reeves, D. (2003). *High performance in high poverty schools: 90/90/90 and beyond*. Retrieved from: http://www.gvsu.edu/cms3/assets/8D75A61E-920B-A470-F74EFFF5D49C6AC0/forms/boardmembers/resources/high_performance_in_high_poverty_schools.pdf

- Richards, K. (2006). Quality in qualitative research. *IATEFL Research Sig Newsletter*. (18), p. 1-4.
- Saldana, J. (2013). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. Amityville, NY: Baywood Publishing Co., Inc.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Sheehy, K. (2013). Best high schools 2012. *U.S. News and World Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.usnews.com/education/high-schools/slideshows/best-high-schools-2012>
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R., & Diamond, J. B., (2001). Investigating school leadership practice: a distributed perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 30(3), 23-28.
- Timar, T. B., & Chyu, K. K. (2010). State strategies to improve low-performing schools: California's high priority schools grant program. *Teachers College Record*, 112(7), 1897-1936.
- United States Department of Education. (2005). *No child left behind act of 2001 annual report to congress*. Retrieved from <https://www2.ed.gov/about/reports/annual/nclb/nclbrpt2005.pdf>
- University of Arkansas. (2013). *Executive summary EOC school test performance 2012-2013*. Retrieved from <http://www.officeforeducationpolicy.org/arkansas-schools-data/>
- Williamson, J., & Campbell, L. (1987). Stress in the principalship: What causes it? *NASSP Bulletin*, 71(500), 109-112. doi:10.1177/019263658707150017
- Yerkes, D. M., & Guaglianone, C. L. (1998). Where have all the high school administrators gone? *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 28(2), p. 10-15.
- Ylimaki, R. M., Brunderman, L., Bennett, J. V., & Dugan, T. (2014). Developing Arizona turnaround leaders to build high-capacity schools in the midst of accountability pressures and changing demographics. *Leadership and Policy in Schools*, 13(1), 28-60. Doi:10.1080/15700763.2014.884226

Appendix A – IRB Approval Form



UNIVERSITY OF
ARKANSAS

Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board

June 24, 2014

MEMORANDUM

TO: Kim Garrett
Ed Bengtson

FROM: Ro Windwalker
IRB Coordinator

RE: New Protocol Approval

IRB Protocol #: 14-06-773

Protocol Title: *Leadership Behaviors Used by Principals of Large High Schools Compared to Principals of Small High Schools: A Comparative Multiple-Case Study*

Review Type: EXEMPT EXPEDITED FULL IRB

Approved Project Period: Start Date: 06/23/2014 Expiration Date: 06/22/2015

Your protocol has been approved by the IRB. Protocols are approved for a maximum period of one year. If you wish to continue the project past the approved project period (see above), you must submit a request, using the form *Continuing Review for IRB Approved Projects*, prior to the expiration date. This form is available from the IRB Coordinator or on the Research Compliance website (<http://vpred.uark.edu/210.php>). As a courtesy, you will be sent a reminder two months in advance of that date. However, failure to receive a reminder does not negate your obligation to make the request in sufficient time for review and approval. Federal regulations prohibit retroactive approval of continuation. Failure to receive approval to continue the project prior to the expiration date will result in Termination of the protocol approval. The IRB Coordinator can give you guidance on submission times.

This protocol has been approved for 30 participants. If you wish to make *any* modifications in the approved protocol, including enrolling more than this number, you must seek approval *prior* to implementing those changes. All modifications should be requested in writing (email is acceptable) and must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

If you have questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact me at 210 Administration Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

210 Administration Building • 1 University of Arkansas • Fayetteville, AR 72701
Voice (479) 575-2208 • Fax (479) 575-3846 • Email irb@uark.edu

The University of Arkansas is an equal opportunity/affirmative action institution.

Appendix B – Superintendent Consent Form

June 1, 2014

Dear (School District Superintendent),

Your high school is being invited to participate in a research study about the leadership behaviors used by high school principals. The purpose of this study is to compare the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two large high schools to the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two small schools to determine if school size impacts the specific leadership behaviors used by those building principals.

The following is being asked of your high school principal:

- Participate to his/her level of comfort in two or three interviews with the researcher,
- Submit copies of the building's organizational chart and a leadership meeting agenda,
- Keep a time-log for one week of how he/she spent his/her time,
- Allow the researcher to unobtrusively video-tape a leadership team meeting, and
- Allow the researcher to interview the building's leadership team in a focus group interview.

Additionally, the principal will be invited to participate in member-checking interviews to review transcriptions, analysis, and interpretations.

While the focus on this work will be on the strengths that each building principal exhibits, there is a risk that someone will mention a leadership weakness of the building principal. If it is mentioned, the researcher will remind that person that only strengths are being discussed and analyzed. Any additional discomfort will be the time commitment. There is an additional risk that the school or principal would be identified by the description in the dissertation. The researcher will be very diligent to try to ensure that this does not happen. Buckingham and Clifton (2001) remind leaders that they become better when they focus on their strengths and this study will clarify the skills used by each principal. This should allow each principal to capitalize on those strengths, which could improve the leadership impact of the principal.

The study will last four to six months. There will be two or three interviews that last up to two hours each time with the building principal. The focus group interview of the leadership team will consist of one survey and one meeting that will not exceed two hours. The member check meetings will be voluntary and will be scheduled at the researcher and building principal's mutual convenience.

There will be no compensation or cost for anything associated with this study. If you do not want your institution to be in this study, you may refuse to participate. Also, you may refuse to

participate at any time during the study. Your relationship with the researcher and the University of Arkansas will not be affected in any way if you refuse to participate. The principal and leadership team members' participation is completely voluntary and they may refuse to participate at any time during the study. Their relationship with the researcher and the University of Arkansas will not be affected in any way if they refuse to participate.

The name of your institution will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by applicable State and Federal law. Your school administrators will be given a code for their schools. These codes will be used throughout the data collection process, analyzing and writing of the dissertation. The members of the leadership team meeting will also be given codes to be used throughout the process. These codes will be used in the writing of the dissertation to protect the privacy of the school, administrator, and leadership team participants. The copy of the leadership agenda will have any identifiable descriptors blocked out. The video-tape of the leadership team meeting will be transcribed and then erased. The transcription will use each school and leadership teams' codes to ensure confidentiality. All of this documentation will be kept on the researcher's personal laptop that is kept locked and the back-up of all documentation will be kept in the researchers' locked personal premise.

At the conclusion of the study you will have the right to request feedback about the results. You may contact the faculty advisory, Dr. Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, 479-575-5092, egbengts@uark.edu or myself the principal researcher at XXXXXXXX. You may also contact the University of Arkansas Research Compliance office listed below if you have any questions about your rights as a participant, or to discuss any concerns about, or problems with the research: Ro Windwalker, CIP, Institutional Review Board Coordinator, Office of Research Compliance (RSCP), University of Arkansas, 205 Administration Building, 1 University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR 72701-1201, 479-575-5901, irb@uark.edu.

If you agree to your high school participating in this study, please copy the following paragraph on your letterhead and sign and send to me in the enclosed, self-addressed stamped envelope:

“I have read the description about this study – “Understanding the Different Leadership Behaviors used by Large High School Principals Compared to Small High School Principals: A Comparative Case Study” and have been able to ask questions and express concerns, which have been satisfactorily responded to by the investigator. I understand the purpose of the study as well as the potential benefits and risks that are involved. I understand that the principal's and leadership teams' participation is voluntary. I understand that significant new findings developed during this research will be shared with the participant. I understand that no rights have been waived by signing the consent form. I have been given a copy of the consent form.”

Thank you for your consideration. Please do not hesitate to contact me at any time.

Sincerely,

Kim Garrett

Appendix C – Principal Consent Form

Understanding the Different Leadership Behaviors used by High School Principals Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Principal Researcher: Kim Garrett

Faculty Advisor: Ed Bengtson

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

You are invited to participate in a research study about the behaviors used by high school principals. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are the principal of a successful high school.

WHAT YOU SHOULD KNOW ABOUT THE RESEARCH STUDY

Who is the Principal Researcher?

Kim Garrett, XXXXXX. Currently employed by XXXXXX Public Schools as Assistant Superintendent of Teaching and Learning for Grades 8-12.

Who is the Faculty Advisor? Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, 479-575-5092, egbengts@uark.edu.

What is the purpose of this research study?

The purpose of this study is compare the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two large high schools to the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two small schools to determine if school size impacts the specific leadership behaviors used by building principals.

Who will participate in this study?

Four Arkansas high school principals and their leadership staffs.

What am I being asked to do?

The building principal will be required to participate to his/her level of comfort in two-three interviews with the researcher and submit copies of the building's organizational chart, upcoming faculty meeting agenda, and leadership meeting agenda. Additionally, the principal will agree to keep a time-log for one week of how his/her time was spent as a principal and allow the researcher to unobtrusively video-tape a leadership meeting, interview the building's leadership team in a focus group interview format, and photocopy a building level leadership agenda. Throughout the study, the principal may elect to participate in member checks to review and confirm the accuracy or inaccuracy of interview transcriptions or observation field notes. Participation throughout the study will be completely voluntary including choosing to not participate in member check.

What are the possible risks or discomforts?

While the focus on this work will be on the strengths that each building principal exhibits, there is a risk that someone will mention a leadership weakness of the building principal. If it is mentioned, the researcher will remind that person that only strengths are being discussed and analyzed. Any additional discomfort will be the time commitment.

What are the possible benefits of this study?

Buckingham and Clifton (2001) remind leaders that they become better when they focus on their strengths. This study will clarify the behaviors used by each principal. This will allow each principal to capitalize on those strengths, which can improve the leadership impact of the principal.

How long will the study last?

The length of the study will be four to six months in total. There will be two or three interviews that last up to two hours each time with each building principal. There will be observations of each school's leadership meeting and faculty meeting, and the focus group interview of the leadership team will consist of one meeting that will not exceed two hours. The member check meetings will be voluntary and will be scheduled at the researcher and building principal's mutual convenience.

Will I receive compensation for my time and inconvenience if I choose to participate in this study?

No.

Will I have to pay for anything?

No, there will be no cost associated with participating.

What are the options if I do not want to be in the study?

If you do not want to be in this study, you may refuse to participate. Also, you may refuse to participate at any time during the study. Your relationship with the researcher and the University will not be affected in any way if you refuse to participate.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

All information will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by applicable State and Federal law. All four participating school administrators will be given a code for their schools. These codes will be used throughout the data collection process, analyzing and writing of the dissertation. The members of the leadership team meeting will also be given codes to be used throughout the process. These codes will not be used in the writing of the dissertation to protect the privacy of the school, administrator, and leadership team participants. The copy of the leadership agenda will have any identifiable descriptors blocked out. The video tape of the leadership team meeting and the faculty meeting will be transcribed and then erased. The transcription will use each school's and leadership team's codes to ensure confidentiality. All of this documentation will be kept on the researcher's personal laptop that is kept locked and the back-up of all documentation will be kept in the researcher's locked personal premise.

Will I know the results of the study?

At the conclusion of the study you will have the right to request feedback about the results. You may contact Dr. Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, egbengts@uark.edu, 479-575-5092 or Principal Researcher, Kim Garrett, XXXXX. You will receive a copy of this form for your files.

What do I do if I have questions about the research study?

You have the right to contact the Principal Researcher or Faculty Advisor as listed below for any concerns that you may have.

Researcher's name and contact information: Kim Garrett, XXXXXXXX

Faculty Advisor's name and contact information: Dr. Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, 479-575-5092, egbengts@uark.edu

You may also contact the University of Arkansas Research Compliance office listed below if you have questions about your rights as a participant, or to discuss any concerns about, or problems with the research.

Ro Windwalker, CIP
Institutional Review Board Coordinator
Office of Research Compliance (RSCP)
University of Arkansas
205 Administration Building
1 University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, AR 72701-1201
479-575-5901
irb@uark.edu

I have read the above statement and have been able to ask questions and express concerns, which have been satisfactorily responded to by the investigator. I understand the purpose of the study as well as the potential benefits and risks that are involved. I understand that participation is voluntary. I understand that significant new findings developed during this research will be shared with the participant. I understand that no rights have been waived by signing the consent form. I have been given a copy of the consent form.

Appendix D- Survey Protocol for Principal

1. Name of Principal: _____
2. Name of high school: _____
3. How many total years have you been a high school principal? _____
4. How long have you been in your current position? _____
5. What was the student body size when you began your job as high school principal? _____
6. What is the current student body size of your school? _____
7. What degrees and certifications do you have? _____

8. When did you earn those degrees and certifications? _____

9. What jobs have you previously held? _____

10. [If interviewee indicated having been a principal before] If so, what school and length of time there? What was the size of that school? _____

11. Why do you think that others consider your high school a successful high school? _____

12. What is unique about your high school? _____

13. What is the best part of being the principal of your high school? _____

14. What is the toughest challenge of being the principal of your high school? _____

15. What leadership behaviors do you think are the most important part of leading your high school?

Appendix E – Principal Interview Protocol

Name of Interviewee: _____

Date: _____

Preliminary Script: “This is Kim Garrett. Today is [day and date]. It is _____ o’clock and I am here in _____ [location], the [title] of [institution or system]. We’ll be discussing effective leadership practices as described by Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003).

1. Can you walk me through a typical day in your life as principal?
2. If you had a perfect day at work, what would that look like?
3. Please describe a time when you lead your staff in developing a shared beliefs and/or a sense of community and cooperation.
4. Please describe a time when you established order within the school.
5. Please describe a time when you protected teachers from issues and influences that could have detracted from their teaching time or focus.
6. Please describe a time when you provided teachers with materials and professional development.
7. Please describe a time when you were directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
8. Please describe a time when you worked with your staff to establish clear goals and a time when you helped keep these goals in the school’s attention.
9. Please describe your philosophy about curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices and how you help teachers understand your philosophy.
10. Please describe how you maintain visibility? Please describe several interacts with teachers and students.
11. Please describe a time when you recognized and rewarded individual accomplishments.
12. Please describe how you have established strong lines of communication with and between teachers and with students.
13. Please describe a time when you had to advocate for the school to a variety of stakeholders and a time when you had to advocate for the school to central office.
14. Please describe a time when you involved teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.
15. Please describe a time when you recognized and celebrated school accomplishments and acknowledged failures.
16. Please describe your awareness of some personal aspects of teachers and staff and how you acknowledge personal aspects.
17. Please describe a time when you challenged the status quo.
18. Please describe a time when you communicated your beliefs about schooling to others.
19. Please describe when you monitored the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.

20. Please describe a time when you adapted your behavior to the needs of the current situation and describe a time when you were comfortable with dissent.
21. Please describe a time when you aware of an undercurrent and used this information to address a current or potential problem.
22. Please describe how you stay informed about current theories and practices and a time when you made your faculty aware of current theories or practices. How do you do this regularly?
23. Please describe a time when you lead a new and challenging innovation?
24. Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about your leadership behaviors?

Appendix F- Leadership Team Consent Form

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS USED BY PRINCIPALS OF LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS COMPARED TO PRINCIPALS OF SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS: A COMPARATIVE MULTIPLE-CASE STUDY

Principal Researcher: Kim Garrett
Faculty Advisor: Ed Bengtson

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

You are invited to participate in a research study about the behaviors used by high school principals. You are being asked to participate in this study because you are a member of a school's leadership team of a successful high school.

WHAT YOU SHOULD KNOW ABOUT THE RESEARCH STUDY

Who is the Principal Researcher?

Kim Garrett, XXXXXXXX. Currently employed by XXXXXXXX Public Schools as the Associate Superintendent for Secondary Education.

Who is the Faculty Advisor? Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, 479-575-5092, egbengts@uark.edu.

What is the purpose of this research study?

The purpose of this study is to compare the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two large high schools to the leadership behaviors used by high school principals of two small schools to determine if school size impacts the specific leadership behaviors used by building principals.

Who will participate in this study?

Four Arkansas high school principals and their leadership staff.

What am I being asked to do?

You are being asked to participate in one focus group interview and complete a survey about the leadership behaviors of your building principal.

What are the possible risks or discomforts?

While the focus on this work will be on the strengths that each building principal exhibits, there is a risk that someone will mention a leadership weakness of the building principal. If it is mentioned, the researcher will remind that person that only strengths are being discussed and analyzed. Any additional discomfort will be the time commitment.

What are the possible benefits of this study?

Buckingham and Clifton (2001) remind leaders that they become better when they focus on their strengths. This study will clarify the strengths used by each principal. This will allow each principal to capitalize on that strength, which can improve the leadership impact of the principal.

How long will the study last?

The length of the study will be four to six months in total. The focus group interview of the leadership team will consist of one meeting that will not exceed two hours. The survey should not take more than one hour to complete.

Will I receive compensation for my time and inconvenience if I choose to participate in this study?

No.

Will I have to pay for anything?

No, there will be no cost associated with participating.

What are the options if I do not want to be in the study?

If you do not want to be in this study, you may refuse to participate. Also, you may refuse to participate at any time during the study. Your relationship with the researcher and the University will not be affected in any way if you refuse to participate.

How will my confidentiality be protected?

All information will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by applicable State and Federal law. All four participating school administrators will be given a code for their schools. These codes will be used throughout the data collection process, analyzing and writing of the dissertation. The members of the leadership team meeting will also be given codes to be used throughout the process. These codes will be used in the writing of the dissertation to protect the privacy of the school, administrator, and leadership team participants. The copy of the leadership agenda will have any identifiable descriptors blocked out. The video tape of the leadership team meeting and the faculty meeting will be transcribed and then erased. The transcription will use each school's and leadership team's codes to ensure confidentiality. All of this documentation will be kept on the researcher's personal laptop that is kept locked and the back-up of all documentation will be kept in the researcher's locked personal premise.

Will I know the results of the study?

At the conclusion of the study, you will have the right to request feedback about the results. You may contact Dr. Ed Bengtson, University of Arkansas, 104 Peabody Hall, Fayetteville, AR 72701, egbengts@uark.edu, 479-575-5092 or Principal Researcher, Kim Garrett, XXXXXXXX. You will receive a copy of this form for your files.

What do I do if I have questions about the research study?

You have the right to contact the Principal Researcher or Faculty Advisor as listed below for any concerns that you may have.

Researcher's name and contact information: Kim Garrett, XXXXXX.

Faculty Advisor's name and contact information: Dr. Ed Bengtson, 104 Peabody Hall,
Fayetteville, AR 72701, egbengts@uark.edu, 479-575-5092

You may also contact the University of Arkansas Research Compliance office listed below if you have questions about your rights as a participant, or to discuss any concerns about, or problems with the research.

Ro Windwalker, CIP
Institutional Review Board Coordinator
Office of Research Compliance (RSCP)
University of Arkansas
205 Administration Building
1 University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, AR 72701-1201
479-575-5901
irb@uark.edu

Appendix G – Leadership Team Protocol

Name of Interviewee: _____

Date: _____

Preliminary Script: “This is Kim Garrett. Today is [day and date]. It is _____ o’clock and I am here in _____ [location], the [title] of [institution or system]. We’ll be discussing leadership in a large school.” The following people are present with me:

1. Why do you think that others consider your high school a successful high school?

2. What leadership behaviors do you think are the most important part of leading a successful high school?

4. Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) identify the following leadership qualities of effective principals as visionary, risk taker, trustworthy, consensus builder, instructional leader, change agent and innovator. Taking each leadership quality one at a time, what skills do you see your principal using?

5. If you had an hour with the person taking over the principal position, what behaviors would you suggest for the new principal?

6. Is there anything I have not asked you about that would help me to better understand effective leadership behaviors of your principal? _____

Appendix H – Definition of Codes

Being a change agent – “the extent to which the principal is willing to and actively challenges status quo; systematically considers new and better ways of doing things; is comfortable leading change initiatives with uncertain outcomes” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 11).

Being flexible – “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent; encourages people to express opinions contrary to those with authority” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 12).

Being visible with staff – “the extent to which the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers...; makes systematic and frequent visits to classrooms; maintains high visibility around the school; has frequent contact with students” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 10).

Being visible with students – “the extent to which the principal has quality contact and interactions...with students” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 10).

Building relationships – “the extent to which the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff; maintains personal relationships with teachers; is informed about significant personal issues within lives of staff; acknowledges significant events in the lives of staff” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 11).

Communicating with students – “the extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with...students” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 10).

Communicating with staff – “the extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with teachers...; is easily accessible to teachers; maintains open and effective lines of communication with staff” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 10).

Developing leaders – provide opportunities for and support to employees to grow professionally.

Focusing on students – the extent to which the principal keeps the focus of the staff on doing what is best for students.

Holding strong beliefs – “communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling; holds strong professional beliefs about schools, teaching, and learning; demonstrates behaviors that are consistent with beliefs” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 12).

Knowing kids – the extent to which the principal demonstrates knowledge of the personal aspects of the students in his building.

Listening – the extent to which the principal demonstrates that he has heard information from his staff and students

Organizing –the extent to which the principal can keep up with his responsibilities and can help his staff keep up with their responsibilities; the extent to which the building activities flow smoothly.

Seeking input – “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies; provides opportunities for input on all important decisions; uses leadership team in decision making” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 11).

Setting direction/limits – provides the direction for staff, programs, or policies; confronts staff who do not meet the expectations set forth by the principal, building, or district.

Solving problems – the extent to which the principal works to find solutions to challenges

Showing situational awareness – “is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems; is aware of informal groups and relationships among staff of the school; can predict what could go wrong from day to day” (Waters et al., 2003, p. 12).