

1992

## An investigation of the responsibilities of secondary principals serving shared and nonshared superintendents

Dale E. Greimann  
*University of Northern Iowa*

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**University of Northern Iowa, 1992**


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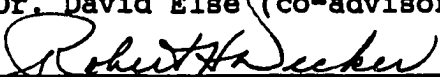


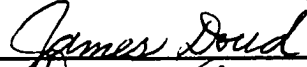
AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RESPONSIBILITIES  
OF SECONDARY PRINCIPALS SERVING  
SHARED AND NONSHARED SUPERINTENDENTS


A Dissertation  
Submitted  
In Partial Fulfillment  
of the Requirements for the Degree  
Doctor of Education

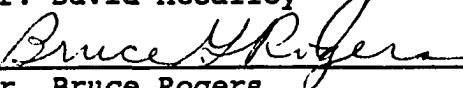
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December 1992

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RESPONSIBILITIES  
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## ABSTRACT

In 1981-82, two school districts in the state of Iowa shared one superintendent; in 1985-86, 10 districts shared five superintendents; by 1991-92, 116 school districts reported sharing 58 superintendents. Studies on the shared superintendency suggested that role overload accompanied the position and that superintendents reacted to the increased workload by delegating responsibilities, often to building principals. The primary purpose of this study was to determine if there were significant differences in the perceived responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. In addition, the study determined if significant relationships existed between Iowa secondary principals' perceived responsibilities and demographic characteristics of the secondary principal population.

The investigator utilized a modified version of ASCD's Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire. The instrument contained a demographic profile and 80 items written in a Likert-scale manner that composed eight responsibility categories of secondary principals. In November of 1991, after a pilot study, the investigator mailed the newly created instrument to 99 secondary principals serving shared superintendents and to 99 randomly selected secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. One hundred eighty-nine of the 198 principals responded (95%) with 148



meeting criteria for inclusion in the study. After computation of descriptive statistics, the investigator applied factor analysis to two responsibility category subgroups, substantiating the hypothesis formulation procedures and justifying discriminant analysis to be performed on the perceived responsibilities of the two groups of secondary principals. The investigator then applied independent  $t$  tests to determine differences in perception for the two groups of principals in the eight categories and Pearson product-moment correlation to determine whether significant relationships existed between the principals' perceived responsibilities in the eight categories and the demographic characteristics of the population.

The investigator found significant differences, at the .05 level, in perceived responsibilities between Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in a composite of the responsibility categories: student services, student supervision, and professional preparation; and in two individual categories: personnel selection/evaluation and professional preparation. The investigator found the relationships between the principals' perceived responsibilities and the demographic characteristics of the population to be too small to be clearly interpretable.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

The state of Iowa has gone through dramatic changes over the past 10 years. Demographic statistics portray a phenomenon that has plagued much of the Midwest but has especially distressed the state of Iowa. During the decade of the '80s, Iowa's population decreased by 147,000 people (Roos, 1990).

The economic and psychological burdens that this decline placed on Iowa's remaining citizenry are well documented. Less per capita income earned by a smaller population resulted in smaller tax revenues; yet Iowa's dependents still required support from the state. Clearly, Iowa's economic problems dramatically impacted public services. Though Iowa's public schools fared better than other agencies serving the public, economic conditions forced many school districts to examine preexisting paradigms defining school district organization and operation. With financial incentives coming from the state, districts began to look to their neighbors for help in solving financial problems associated with fewer students, higher cost of operation, and more rigorous state standards.

Suddenly, schools began sharing activity programs, academic programs, students, curriculum specialists, media specialists, guidance counselors, teachers, and

administrators. The concept of independence no longer accurately described public school systems in Iowa.

Sharing of school superintendents provided a dramatic example of increased partnerships among Iowa school districts. Ghan (1990) characterized this increase with the following statistics: 1981-82, 2 districts shared 1 superintendent; 1985-86, 10 districts shared 5 superintendents; 1990-91, the Iowa Association of School Boards (1990) listed 112 districts sharing 56 superintendents; and in 1991-92, the Iowa Association of School Boards (1991) listed 116 districts sharing 58 superintendents.

Sederberg (1985), Hull (1988), Decker and Talbot (1989), Bratlie (1990), and Decker and McCumsey (1990) provided most of the research on the shared superintendency.

Sederberg (1985) surveyed chief state school officers in states having 100 or more school districts to identify states which had superintendents serving two or more local districts. Of the 37 states with 100 or more local school districts, 21 reported shared superintendent arrangements. This involved over 400 districts and 212 superintendents during 1983-84. Sederberg then surveyed the shared superintendents to better understand the practice of interdistrict sharing of superintendents. Hull (1988) surveyed Iowa Superintendents, both shared and nonshared, to

determine if there was a difference in their level of job satisfaction. Decker and Talbot (1989) further acquired perceptions of Iowa shared superintendents by interviewing 42 of the state's total population of 44 shared superintendents. Shortly after, Bratlie (1990) surveyed shared superintendents in Iowa and Minnesota to compare shared superintendent role expectations as perceived by shared superintendents and their board chairpersons. Finally, Decker and McCumsey (1990) interviewed 83 Iowa school board presidents serving school districts with shared superintendents to obtain their perceptions on the shared superintendency.

A compilation of the studies revealed that the sharing of superintendents was quite common nationally. The East and West coasts reported the earliest activity and later the popularity spread to the Midwest.

In Iowa this procedure is part of Iowa Code 280.15 and called a 28-E agreement. This agreement allowed school districts which shared superintendents to add additional weight in the calculation of their district budget. Simply, the districts sharing superintendents were able to claim more students for the allocation of state monies than they actually had in the district. Hypothetically districts sharing superintendents could have reaped as much as \$70,000 to split between the participating districts. Not

surprisingly, the incentive for sharing was primarily financial, however, impetus for increased reorganizational efforts accompanied the procedure (Bratlie, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989).

The majority of the participating districts had K-12 enrollments of less than 600 students and high schools which were less than 15 miles apart (Bratlie, 1990). Motivation factors for shared superintendents included increased salaries, job enrichment, and preparation for a larger superintendency. The superintendents perceived that the position was unhealthy for schools and should last no longer than 3 to 5 years without district reorganization. They sensed criticism for being less visible and less productive though spending more time on the job. The shared superintendents believed they had lowered standards by delegating more responsibilities (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

Board members of districts sharing superintendents believed that their constituents supported the position because of an apparent savings to their districts, however, they expressed concerns about the superintendents' lack of visibility and accessibility. The board members at times questioned whether their districts received their fair share of the superintendents' time and effort. The board members feared burn out of the superintendents (Decker & McCumsey, 1990).

Each of the studies mentioned superintendent role overload inherent with the shared position. The natural reaction of the superintendents was to increase the delegation of responsibilities. Sederberg (1985) stated that "responses indicated that there was increased reliance on building level administrators in districts sharing superintendents" (p. 22). Decker and McCumsey (1990) suggested that building principals often received the delegated responsibilities. The impact of this is uncertain. Decker and Talbot (1989) noted that because of role change it " . . . raises the question in our minds about the ability of the principals to devote sufficient time to the instructional and curricular processes" (p. 12). Decker and McCumsey (1990) stated that, "Numerous and divergent responses were given to whether the building principal's role had changed due to the superintendent being shared. It appeared that differences centered around the perception and expectation of the principal prior to the superintendent being shared" (p. 12). These assertions were based solely on the perceptions of shared superintendents and the presidents of boards of education. Unacknowledged were the perceptions of the principals serving shared superintendents.

### Need for the Study

Hull (1988), Decker and Talbot (1989), Bratlie (1990) and Decker and McCumsey (1990) provided a sound overview of the shared superintendency in Iowa schools. The perceptions of shared superintendents and board presidents provided insight of how this position impacted Iowa school districts. Yet, these views were limited in scope. Missing were the perceptions of principals who served at the building level. Are the responsibilities of principals serving shared superintendents different than their counterparts serving nonshared superintendents? Such an investigation would provide insight into the effects of the shared superintendent position at the building level.

Smith and Andrews (1989) helped to explain why such research is necessary. "Leadership, in the general sense, then, is necessarily constrained by the situations in which leadership is displayed" (p. 5). This suggests that critical change in organizational leadership structure impacts the overall leadership present within the organization.

Recent studies have accentuated the educational leadership roles of principals in the development of effective schools (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; McCurdy, 1983; Rutherford, 1985; Smith & Andrews, 1989). Bossert (1988) utilized the work of

several individuals to describe the characteristics of effective school principals. He suggested that effective principals are goal setters who believe all students can achieve. He surmised that effective principals illustrated their power by demonstrating strength in working with curriculum and instruction. They observed their teachers instruct and supported them in their efforts to improve. Bossert suggested that effective principals were masters of instruction who recognized different teaching styles and guided teachers in achieving their performance goals. Effective principals instilled a sense of pride throughout the school community.

One would suspect changes in the leadership structure of school districts when they begin sharing superintendents. The leadership structure of school districts surely includes building principals. It is imperative to analyze the roles of building principals serving shared superintendents and determine the extent of the impact, as well as the benefits or detriments of the shared superintendency on responsibilities of building principals. Such research may provide insight for new directions in the preparation and inservice of building principals.

#### Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if there were significant differences in the perceptions of



responsibilities for two groups of Iowa secondary principals: all those secondary principals serving shared superintendents and those secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents.

The secondary purposes of this study were to determine if there were significant relationships between Iowa secondary principals' perceptions of responsibilities and their total years of experience as a principal, the number of years that the principals had served in their present school district, and the number of years that their districts had shared superintendents.

The secondary principals were compared to determine if there were significant differences in their perceived degree of responsibility for educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

#### Research Questions

1. Will secondary principals serving shared superintendents perceive a greater or lesser degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision

of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

2. What is the relationship between the years of experience of secondary principals and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

3. What is the relationship between the number of years secondary principals have served in their present school districts and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

4. What is the relationship between the number of years that school districts have shared superintendents and how their secondary principals perceive their degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

### Hypotheses

The research hypotheses in this study were based upon equal treatment of the perceptions of two groups of Iowa secondary principals: those serving shared superintendents and those serving nonshared superintendents. To provide direction and structure for this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Research Hypothesis 1: Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a greater degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 2: Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a lesser degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Accompanying Null Hypothesis for Research Hypotheses 1 and 2: There will be no significant difference in the perceived degree of responsibility of secondary principals serving shared superintendents when compared to secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel

selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

Research Hypothesis 3: As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 4: As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Accompanying Null Hypothesis for Research Hypotheses 3 and 4: There will be no relationship between the years of secondary principals' experience and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

Research Hypothesis 5: As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present school districts

increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 6: As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present school districts increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Accompanying Null Hypothesis for Research Hypotheses 5 and 6: There will be no relationship between the number of years secondary principals have served in their present school districts and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

Research Hypothesis 7: As the number of years school districts share superintendents increases their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 8: As the number of years school districts share superintendents increases their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Accompanying Null Hypothesis for Research Hypotheses 7 and 8: There will be no relationship between the number of years school districts share superintendents and how their secondary principals perceive their degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

#### Assumptions

First, it was assumed that the two groups of respondents, principals serving shared superintendents and principals serving nonshared superintendents, provided honest responses to the statements in the instrument.

Second, it was assumed that secondary principals exhibited similar values in their role responsibilities, regardless of their schools' grade arrangement. The conclusions of Andrews and Hallet's (1983) study of 1,006 principals substantiated this assumption. The elementary, middle/junior high, and senior high school principals in

this study all perceived their roles in a similar manner and shared the same values as to how they should spend their time on the job.

Third, it was assumed that respondents with at least one year of active experience as secondary principals understood the responsibilities of the position and therefore were representative of the population of secondary principals.

Finally, it was assumed that the size of the school student population did not effect the role performed by the secondary principals. A study by Perry and Perry (1991) of the role of principals in smaller schools supported this assumption. The authors defined "smaller secondary schools" as those having student populations of less than 750 students. All of the secondary schools in this study were within this size of student population frame of reference.

#### Limitations

The populations examined were limited to all secondary principals in the state of Iowa with at least one year of experience serving shared superintendents and a random sample of an equal number of Iowa secondary principals with at least one year experience serving nonshared superintendents. The two populations were projected to be approximately 100 principals each.

District size that the principals served was controlled. Principals from larger districts in the state were excluded from the study. Non-public school principals were also excluded from the study.

The instrument utilized in the study was shortened to enhance the return rate and modified to better suit the targeted population of rural Iowa secondary principals.

The observations of respondents after completion of this study may have been altered by their additional experiences. For this reason, the study was limited to the period of time used to complete the survey and to obtain the data. Survey data were obtained by 15 November, 1991.

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms have been defined for the reader's understanding:

#### Community Relation Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in community activities, communication with parents, and the interpretation of the school to the community" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

#### Degree of Responsibility

"The principal's perceptions of the level of responsibility" for each duty listed in the ZBJAQ questionnaire (Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, & McCleary, 1988, p. 39).



District, State, and Federal Coordination Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in completing district, state, and federal reports; attending meetings; and facilitating communication among these groups" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

Educational Program Improvement Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in academic matters, inservice programs, program evaluation, and curriculum appraisal" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

Nonshared Superintendent

"A superintendent who serves as chief executive officer of only one district" (Hull, 1988, p. 10).

Personnel Selection and Evaluation Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in the selection, improvement, and evaluation of certified and classified staff" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

Professional Preparation Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in professional organizations; reading professional journals; and attending workshops, classes, and other professional growth activities" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

### Responsibility

Moral, legal or mental accountability (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary).

### Role of a Secondary Principal

The role embraces "responsibility for community relations, student-related services and activities, building management and operations, and district relations" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p.28).

### Role Categories of Secondary Principals

The eight major categories of secondary principals' roles portrayed in Smith and Andrews' (1989) Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire.

### School District

The " . . . basic governmental unit through which the exercise of local control of schools is effected. It is a unit of government, possessing quasi-corporate powers, created and empowered by state law to administer a public school or a public school system" (Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, & Usdan, 1980, p.90).

### Secondary Principal

For the purpose of this study, secondary principals include those building principals serving in middle schools, junior high schools or high schools. The organizational structure of the schools may vary, i.e., grades 6-8, grades 7-9, grades 9-12, etc.

### School Management Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in use and maintenance of facilities, record keeping, relations with the custodial staff, school supplies, and school budget" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

### Secondary School

Schools which are said to be middle schools, junior high schools, or high schools. The organizational structure may vary, i.e., grades 6-8, grades 7-9, grades 9-12, etc.

### Shared Superintendent

"A superintendent of schools who serves as chief executive officer of more than one district" (Hull, 1988, p. 10).

### Student Services Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in working with counselors, psychologists, student government, student discipline, and student counseling" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

### Superintendent of Schools

"...the executive head of the 'local' school district given the legal title superintendent of schools" (Campbell et al., 1980, p. 220).

Supervision of Students Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

"The principal's role in supervising halls, lunchroom, bus loading, playground, student activities and athletic events" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 146).

Sources of Data

The data in this study were gathered by means of a mailed survey instrument. The survey instrument served two functions: it collected demographic information about the two target populations and it collected replies to responsibility items derived from an instrument called the Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire (ZBJAQ) found in the ASCD publication Instructional Leadership: How Principals Make A Difference (Smith & Andrews, 1989). It incorporated a Likert-type response format in which the respondents were asked to indicate their perceived degree of responsibility for prescribed duties. Permission was obtained from ASCD for use and modification of the ZBJAQ instrument suitable for this study.

The instrument was field tested in two ways. First, a panel of experts in secondary administration examined the survey and recommended design and item improvements. Second, practicing secondary principals, who served in school districts larger than 1000 students and therefore were excluded from the research study, completed the

instrument, recorded their time of completion, and recommended improvements for ease of response. This helped to substantiate the validity of the survey instrument.

The target population for the study included all secondary principals serving shared superintendents and a similar population of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. The population of principals serving nonshared superintendents was selected by matching them with principals serving shared superintendents. The matching was done by comparable sizes.

A preliminary count for the 1991-92 school year revealed 116 districts that shared superintendents but only 111 were considered viable for the study with student populations less than 1000 students. The potential population of secondary principals serving shared superintendents was 111.

At the time of the study, the state of Iowa contained slightly over 300 school districts with student populations less than 1000 students. Minus the districts with shared superintendents, the number of districts with nonshared superintendents was approximately 200. Therefore, matching the population of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents with the population of secondary principals serving shared superintendents involved selecting as many as

111 principals from a potential population of over 200 principals.

The data were analyzed by first reporting responses as raw frequencies and as descriptive statistics. Inferential and correlational statistics were utilized in the hypothesis testing process.

The literature review traced the evolution of the development of the secondary principalship. The review contributed support to the responsibilities identified in the stems of the survey questionnaire. The material in the literature review was derived from shelf material, the ERIC system, related dissertations, related journal articles, and Iowa Department of Education publications.

#### Organization of the Study

The five-chapter approach to reporting research through a dissertation is utilized. Chapter I, includes a brief review of literature; a statement of the problem; the hypotheses; a brief reference to the methodology, assumptions, and limitations; and definitions.

Chapter II, The Review of Literature, examines the evolutionary development of the position of secondary principal. Emphasis is placed on the development of the role responsibilities of secondary principals in relationship with the instrument utilized in the study.

Chapter III, Methodology, describes data collection and treatment procedures the investigator followed in conducting the study.

Chapter IV, Presentation of the Data, provides an analysis of the data collection and the findings.

Chapter V summarizes findings, draws conclusions and recommends future research.

CHAPTER 2  
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

The rationale used for reviewing the literature was based upon the intent of the study: to compare the perceptions of responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents with the perceptions of responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. The review began with an account of role theory. This provided an understanding of what principals do and how they have assumed their responsibilities. An historical investigation of the development and evolution of the role of principals follows. The evolutionary investigation began broadly in scope with a sketch of the European origin of the position and becomes more specific as the chronology develops. It concluded by examining the topic of the shared superintendency as it has impacted the role responsibilities of secondary principals.

The review consists of: Role Theory; The European Origin of the Principalship Role; The Early Role of the Principalship in America: Introduction--1920; The Superintendent/Principal Relationship; The Changing Role of the Secondary Principal in America: The Secondary Principalship Role 1920-1945, The Secondary Principalship Role 1945-1975, The Secondary Principalship Role 1975-



Present; The Shared Superintendent and the Role of the Principal; and Summary of the Review of Literature.

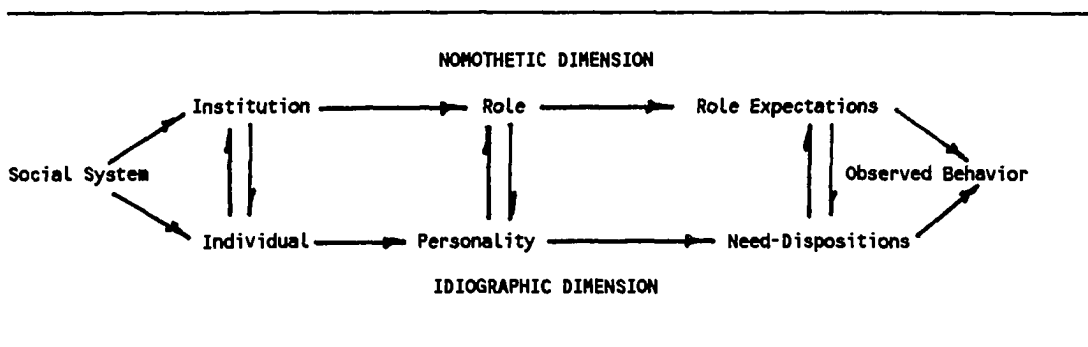
### Role Theory

A common perplexity facing people in administrative leadership positions is making decisions that conflict organization needs with individual needs. School principals face this dilemma daily. With this in mind, understandably principals must comprehend and apply administration theory. Saxe (1968) explained this well:

The theory of educational administration is similar to the theories of other kinds of administration, governmental, industrial or military. All of these institutions, wherever found, are confronted with one common dilemma: getting the job done, and at the same time, preserving the good feelings of the workers. This seemingly paradoxical task can be stated in many ways. Perhaps it is more often presented as the problem of reconciling the general needs of the larger society with the particular needs of the individual. (p. 5)

The investigator found Getzels and Guba's (1957) model to be helpful in characterizing the expectations held of administrators in the complex social system called school. Figure 1 portrays major elements of the model. It helps to show the conflicting relationship that exists within organizations. Leaders of organizations continually struggle with the problem of meeting the needs of the institution and simultaneously meeting the needs of participants within the organization.

Figure 1. Role structure of organizations.



Getzels (1960) explained this diagram:

We may think of a social system (whether a single classroom, an entire school, or a community) as involving two classes of phenomena. There are first the institutions with certain roles and expectations that will fulfill the goals of the system. And there are second the individuals with certain personalities and need-dispositions inhabiting the system, whose observed interactions comprise what we call social behavior. We shall assert that this behavior can be understood as a function of these major elements: institution, role, and expectation, which together refer to what we shall call the nomothetic or normative dimension of activity in a social system; and individual, personality, and need-disposition, which together refer to what we shall call the idiographic or personal dimension of activity in a social system. (p. 54)

How does one discriminate between organizational and individual needs? This decision transpires situationally and becomes less complicated with increased administrative experience when principals utilize previous decisions as rationale for acting on issues confronting them. Role

theory has been used extensively to better understand and predict organizational behavior. Brown (1977) stated, "People in organizations have definite roles to perform, and many interactive forces help to determine precisely what kind of performance each role actor will perceive" (p. 6).

When researchers examine the effect of the shared superintendency on the responsibilities of secondary principals they must bear in mind that increased complexity of the school social system will produce increased ambiguity in role perception. Referencing the shared superintendency, Decker and McCumsey (1990) embellished this point:

Numerous and divergent responses were given to whether the building principal's role had changed due to the superintendent being shared. It appeared that differences centered around the perception and expectation of the principal prior to the superintendent being shared. (p. 2)

The remainder of the review of literature provides an overview of the development of the role of principals and identified what research has considered the role of principals to be. The literature's definition of the role of secondary principals helped to validate the research instrument utilized in the study. This was essential prior to soliciting information from practicing secondary principals.

### The European Origin of the Principalship

Writings on the evolution of the role of the secondary principalship are limited. Ensign (1923) provided an overview of its development and placed special emphasis on its European origin. He stated, "The high-school principalship in its present broad functions is an institution of today. It has no history" (p. 180). Yet, in historical splendor, Ensign traced the position's heritage.

Ensign (1923) cited the master teachers of ancient Greece, Plato and Quintilian. He described Quintilian as, ". . . an organizer, a teacher of boys without a peer in his time, a man of vision, one who gave his best energies to youth of adolescent age. . . ." (p. 180). Ensign described the work of Vittorino in the early years of the Renaissance, "to make his boys pious, to see that they were well grounded in literature and history, conscious of their responsibilities as young citizens, and fit physically to carry forward the active work of men" (p. 181). Ensign suggested that these men were teachers of the highest magnitude, and that their effectiveness portrayed the earliest signs of the role of principals. Instructional leadership was prevalent at the position's inception.

In the sixteenth century, schools in the Netherlands demonstrated the earliest signs of modernization with grading practices and teacher specialization. These changes

produced a new need for management and control. John Sturm, a German from Strassburg, answered this need. Ensign (1923) considered Sturm to be the greatest administrator of secondary education of his century. Sturm, unlike his predecessors, spent little time teaching. Instead his role was more as an educational leader. Sturm became an authority among his colleagues by constructing curriculums and writing about the educational process.

Development of administrative positions in English schools was sluggish when compared to development in German schools. Prohibited by law, English schools did not see the conception of an administrative position until the early part of the 18th century when the term "head master" came to be used. Richard Mulcaster, a head master for 40 years and one of the foremost educational writers of the time, recognized disparity in his position. He suggested the need to place a higher degree of responsibility for the entire school in the hands of the head master creating a more administrative posture (Ensign, 1923).

#### The Principalship In America

Early colonial secondary schools, small in size and modeled after their English counterpart, Latin grammar schools, had little need for administrative help for their day to day operations. These schools received what little supervision they needed from a board of laymen who served as

examiners (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1972). The academy, though serving a different function than the grammar school, also had few students (Jacobson, Reavis, & Logsdon, 1963). At the peak of its development the academy averaged only two teachers per school (Knezevich, 1984).

The swelling American population of the late 18th century and the desire for expanded education changed American schooling. To meet this challenge, towns organized multiple-room secondary schools which required several teachers. Duties such as determining when to open and close schools, scheduling classes, securing supplies, and communicating with parents was more than the teaching staff could deal with. The position of "head teacher" emerged to fulfill these responsibilities. The secondary principal position evolved from the position of head teacher. The head teacher, after being assigned administrative duties and acting as the liaison between the board of education and the teachers, became the "principal teacher" and eventually became the "principal" (Anderson & Van Dyke, 1972).

Anderson and Van Dyke (1972) described the high status of early day principals, "'The Professor,' being looked upon as a person who was scholarly, highly cultured, and an intellectual leader" (p. 5). Though loftily described, the responsibilities of the early principals were quite ordinary. Besides ". . . teaching and administering the

school, the principal often acted as town clerk, church chorister, official visitor of the sick, bell ringer, grave digger . . . " (Jacobson & Reavis, 1950, p. 727).

By the mid 1800s the responsibilities of principals had graduated to include some school management duties. However, the release of principals from teaching was the pivotal change in the evolutionary development of the role of the principal in America. The schools of Boston in 1857 were frontrunners in creating this transformation. Boston schools provided their principals time for inspection and examination of classes other than their own. Other cities followed this model as new responsibilities of the principal began to emerge. Jacobson et al. (1963) portrayed the role of secondary principals at the turn of the 20th century:

During the period from the middle of the nineteenth century to 1900, a shift occurred in the administrative duties prescribed for principals. New duties, such as responsibility for organization and general management, and control of pupils and building and grounds, were required. School authorities were beginning to realize that the principalship offered professional opportunities. The individual who merely met emergencies as they arose in the local school was no longer entirely satisfactory. (p. 495)

Increased supervisory responsibilities changed the role of principals significantly. Pierce (1935) suggested that increasing teacher supervision responsibilities opened a new arena of potentialities for instructional improvement activities for principals. Though an apparent mandate for

principals to demonstrate increased supervisory roles, this was not the norm prior to 1900. Supervision at this time was inspection; principals visiting classes, quizzing students, and noting the physical appearance of classrooms (Jacobson, et al. 1963).

Principals espoused high respect. Blodgett, cited by Cubberly (1929), reflected on the community status of principals which supported this sentiment:

I would make the position of school principal one place of fixed and definite responsibility, and I would magnify and dignify that position and office. I would have him feel the responsibility of the place he occupies. I would do my work with his school through him. I would have everything pertaining to his school pass through his hands, both to and from. Questions and complaints, whether of parents, teachers, or pupils, should be answered, adjusted, and settled either by him or in his presence. I would have all parties, however, and particularly the principal, understand that an appeal from all decisions was always in order, provided the principal be first served with notice of such appeal. (p. 294)

#### The Superintendent/Secondary Principal Relationship

The high school principalship is the oldest school administrative position in American education. It preceded both the superintendency and the elementary principalship. The superintendency arrived in American education as early as 1838 in Providence, RI and after 1850 in several other cities (Reller, 1935).

Cubberly (1929) referenced four types of service provided by superintendents: organizer, administrator,



supervisor, and community leader. Though secondary principals were appropriately independent of other district administrators, the relations between secondary school principals and superintendents were not always cordial during the early part of century (Knezevich, 1984). The overlap of duties and services inevitably created animosity between building principals and school superintendents. The health of the relationship between principals and superintendents improved with time and largely diminished as responsibilities and job descriptions became better defined. Cubberly (1929) summarized the differentiated roles:

We are not likely to overestimate the importance of the office of school principal. As the superintendent of schools gives tone and character to the whole school system, so the school principal gives tone and character to the school under his control. 'As is the principal, so is the school.' is perhaps a truer statement than the similar one referring to the teacher. (p. 294)

#### The Changing Role of the Secondary Principal in America

Various approaches have been used by authors to describe the development of school administrative positions in America. One popular account categorized by administrative theory, such as the scientific management era (Griffiths, 1966; Saxe, 1968). John Goodlad (1978) suggested that America had moved through two eras in educational administration and was moving toward a third

era. He categorized by administrative practice, referencing a hands-on approach versus an efficiency approach.

These strategies for examining the role development of secondary principals are valid approaches. However, student population dynamics has been and continues to be a major force shaping policy and decision making in American education. For this reason, this investigator will categorize the later development of the position of secondary principal by changes in student demographics.

#### The Secondary Principal Role: 1920-1945

Nationally. By 1900 the majority of elementary aged students attended elementary schools. The attendance surge for secondary education came much more slowly and many factors influenced the increase. In 1900, about 10% of the children age 14 through 17 attended secondary school. In 1930 the number had risen to 50% (Butts, 1960).

The surge in attendance produced logistical problems for educators. This helped to explain the popularity of the Scientific Movement and its implications for the principalship. Secondary principals became concerned with efficiency in operation, school surveys, staffing needs and grade placement based on achievement testing. Reich (1968) stated that this helped to transform the principal from "a man who ran his school by instinct and rule of thumb into a skilled education practitioner" (p. 17).

Several studies greatly influenced curriculum construction during this era. The Committee of Ten study, which suggested that the high school should not be solely a college preparatory institution, helped to develop curricula for a broader spectrum of students.

In 1913, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, sanctioned by the National Education Association, examined secondary education and issued the famous Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. Spring (1986), described The Cardinal Principles as a call "for the creation of a comprehensive high school that would include a wide variety of curricula designed to meet the needs of different types of students" (p. 202). The broad curriculum prescribed by the commission resulted in secondary school leaders becoming generalists as the curriculum grew beyond their expertise. This challenged school leaders to become and stay well versed in more areas of the curriculum.

Finally, the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association found that high school graduates who developed their own curriculums performed as well as students who followed the more traditional college-preparatory track while in high school.

Major historic events shaped the administration of school during this era. The emergence from World War I and the live for the day attitude of the "Roaring Twenties"

resulted in a smaller percentage of Americans concerned with secondary education. The age of prosperity and frivolity ended abruptly with the stock market crash in October of 1929 and the beginning of the Great Depression. This national catastrophe greatly impacted the number of students attending secondary school. Though elementary enrollment declined during the depression, many secondary school aged students were unable to get jobs and therefore chose to stay in high school. Secondary enrollment increased almost 3 million students in the 1930s. World War II changed this trend when secondary school population declined almost 1 million students during the 1940s (U.S. Department of Education, 1988).

Iowa. In 1922, state law in Iowa required consolidated schools receiving state aid to employ teachers for manual training, agricultural, and domestic science courses. (Brown, 1922). This requirement was typical of rural secondary schools in America during this period.

Ghan (1990) outlined the reorganizational trends in Iowa and suggested that there has been six distinct periods of Iowa school organization. Secondary education did not prevail until Period 4, Consolidated School Movement: 1900-1922, which shaped secondary education in the state. By the turn of the century 16,335 schools were in operation within the state. By 1922 the number of legally organized school

districts in the state had gone down to 4,639 by closing many one-room school houses. In Period 5, Organizational Stability: 1922-53 the pattern of school organization remained fairly constant, down from 4,639 to 4,558 districts.

Don Henderson, (personal communication, July 23, 1991) retired superintendent with over 30 years experience as a superintendent in rural Iowa, reflected on small school operation in Iowa at this time. He suggested it was a time greatly impacted by the Great Depression and World War II. He, as the school superintendent was the sole administrator, in charge of running the school, teaching five classes, doing all of the counseling, and all of the coaching. He often drove bus in emergency situations and even "carved the turkey" at Thanksgiving. World War II represented a special challenge in retaining teachers and it was impossible to hire male teachers. Most small schools in Iowa during this era employed only one administrator, the superintendent of schools.

#### The Secondary Principal Role: 1946-1975

Nationally. The baby boom affected all facets of American life following World War II. It influenced the American educational system dramatically. The decline in births during the 1930s came to an end in the late 1940s when the baby boom began. The number peaked in 1957 with

4.268 million births and declined to a post-war low of only 3.144 million in 1975 (Grant & Eiden, 1982).

The sharp increase in births hit the American school system in full stride by the late 1950s. Secondary student population soared from 4.3 million students before World War II to 8.2 million in 1959 (Snyder & Hoffman, 1990). The system found itself short in facilities, equipment, and staff. Attempting to fill these deficiencies was a tremendous challenge for school administrators.

Associated with the surging population a number of important events shaped secondary administration during this era. The G.I. Bill of 1944 provided returning war veterans an opportunity to extend their education to post secondary classes. The added emphasis nationally on post secondary education influenced secondary education when students recognized that American life included the completion of high school. The results may be shown statistically. In 1940 approximately 75% of the people older than 25 years had less than 12 years of education. In 1990 25% of the people older than 25 years had less than 12 years of education (Snyder & Hoffman, 1990).

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954) began a series of court rulings which proclaimed segregation of schools to be illegal. The integration process was

problematic for school administrators. Racial tension was particularly high at the secondary level.

In 1957 the Soviet Union sent Sputnik I, an unmanned satellite, into orbit around the Earth. America's reaction has been well documented. The initial reaction was to blame the educational system for its inability to produce such technological feats. James B. Conant, former Harvard president was one of the strongest critics of American education at this time. He recommended that more time needed to be devoted to academic subjects with more foreign language required. Conant believed in ability grouping and providing challenges for gifted students (Perkinson, 1976).

Ensuing from this and other criticisms, the National Defense Education Act passed the United States Congress in 1958. Among its provisions it allocated funds " . . . to buy teaching equipment in science and mathematics, language, English, reading, history, civics, and geography" (Sloan, 1988b, p. 35). Later in 1965 the Elementary Education Act offered funding "to help children who were from low income families and were not achieving up to their potential" (Sloan, 1988a, p. 223). Secondary principals monitored and established priorities at the building level for spending the federal funds. This was an important phase in the role development of modern principals.

In 1966, in meeting requirements of Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, James Coleman from Johns Hopkins University assumed responsibility for determining the equity of educational opportunity in America. The findings of the Coleman Report, though supportive of integration for producing greater educational opportunities for American youth, suggested that the American education system was incapable of overcoming poverty and racial problems (Spring, 1986). In fact, as McCurdy (1983) suggested, "schooling had less to do with how much students learned than other things like how much education their parents had, family income, and who their classmates were" (p. 7). This was particularly demeaning to professional educators who had been trained to believe that their efforts would make a difference in young people's lives.

The organization of teachers presented yet another challenge for school administrators. Most of the collective bargaining procedures occurred during the late 1960s and the early 1970s. It became essential for administrators to understand and comply with the master contracts of their districts. Implications were obvious in teacher supervision, teacher hiring, staff reduction, teaching assignments, budgeting practices, and responding to teacher requests. The negotiation process did and continues to impact the total school climate. It became important for



principals to prevent management-union relationships from becoming adversarial.

Student rights came to the attention of the nation with Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District (1968). The findings of U.S. Supreme Court declared that First Amendment rights of freedom of expressions were valid in school settings. This ruling produced special problems for secondary school principals. Students recognized an opportunity to challenge the rules that guided school operation and the people who administered them. Principals had to demonstrate more patience and better problem solving skills in dealing with students and staff than ever before; they remain greatly affected by this ruling yet today.

Besides civil rights legislation, the federal government became involved in education in several other mandates. Two mandates especially impacted the administration of secondary schools. Title IX (PL 92-318) of 1972, besides making the famous discrimination statement, referred to the assurance of offering nonsex-biased programs. Classes and activities designed for one sex became unacceptable (Campbell et al., 1980). No longer could sports programs, shop programs, etc. be offered only for boys. Secondary principals had to address challenges to the equity issue. This often required large expenditures for facilities, staff, and equipment. Occasionally,

challenges to the issue received publicity, i.e., females wishing to participate in a traditionally male dominated sport such as football or even more controversial, males wishing to participate in a female sport such as volleyball. Humorous perhaps, yet for school administrators an issue that didn't disappear with smiles.

In 1975, Public Law 94-142 extended federal control over public education in America. Public Law 94-142 assured handicapped children educational opportunities. This was the beginning of the development of the extensive special education programs now found in America's schools. Implications for school leaders were again dramatic as classrooms and facility modifications, teachers, curriculum materials, and equipment had to be assimilated.

Iowa. Supplemental to the national scene, the state of Iowa had important local issues which challenged school administrators. The most important of these dealt with school reorganization. Ghan (1990) described Period 6 in Iowa school organization as the Community School Movement: 1953-1965. This reorganizational effort resulted from 1953 legislation, cited by Ghan:

It is hereby declared to be the policy of the state to encourage the reorganization of school districts into such units as are necessary, economical and efficient and which will insure an equal educational opportunity to all children in the state. (p. 4)

Ghan found that the number of high school and non-high school districts decreased dramatically from 4,558 districts in 1953 to 1,056 districts by 1965. Iowa legislative action produced the final major reduction during this era by requiring all areas of the state "to become a part of a legally constituted school district maintaining a high school by July 1, 1967" (Ghan 1990, p. 5). This legislation resulted in the elimination of an additional 579 school districts, shrinking to 477 districts by 1967.

Don Henderson (personal communication, July 23, 1991) retired Iowa School Superintendent also reflected on this era. It was during this time in the state's history when secondary principals came into existence in small schools. This was in response to district reorganization and more requirements coming from the state and federal level. The early secondary principals often assumed part of the superintendents' responsibilities, teaching several classes, counseling students and coaching athletes. By the end of Period 6, secondary principals in small Iowa schools had assumed responsibilities similar to the present; no longer teaching, counseling and coaching, instead leading and managing their buildings with sound practice.

#### The Secondary Principal Role: 1975-Present

Nationally. Changing demographics again marked this era in American Education. In 1975 the number of births

dropped to a post-World War II low of 3.144 million which translated into 6.5 million fewer students enrolled in elementary school in 1980 compared to 1970 (Grant & Eiden, 1982). Though the reduced student population's impact on elementary schools was substantial, this impact paled when compared to its effect on secondary schools. The self-contained nature of the elementary setting allowed the elimination of sections to make up for fewer students, with virtually no program change. In secondary schools specialization of staff and classes did not lend well to reduction. Reductions often resulted in changed programs. This was and continues to be a great challenge for secondary principals.

The call for educational reform during this era sounded more loudly and clearly than at any time in American history. On one side were radical-romantics who called for child-centered schools with relevant curriculum and freedom for students to pursue their interests (Tanner, 1986).

On the other side "back to the basics" movements gained impetus from conservative university scholars. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), endowed by the U.S. Secretary of Education, produced A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. This report blamed the American education system for the decline in the United States' economic productivity. It criticized American

public schools for their low student achievement scores, watered-down curriculum, low graduation requirements, short school calendars, lack of homework assignments, and inadequate teacher preparation and inservice. The report also criticized the substandard entrance requirements of America's universities.

A Nation at Risk greatly impacted secondary schools in America. Secondary principals could not ignore the allegations of the report. Curricula became more traditional, student achievement testing received greater emphasis, high school graduation requirements increased, and the school calendars lengthened as more summer school programs became available.

Universities, reacting to the criticisms directed at them, became more selective by increasing entrance requirements. This really disrupted normal high school routine because it forced high school students to make career decisions earlier. Students chose courses to meet university entrance requirements not because of interest. A renewed interest in the academic areas of languages, English, and mathematics and a decline in interest in the vocational areas resulted from the universities' tougher entrance requirements. This left many secondary principals feeling helpless; reacting to the whims of universities

while watching fine, expensive vocational programs dissipate from lack of student interest.

The breakdown of the American family unit has taken place during this final era. Divorce rates in the United States are about 16 times as high as in 1867, the first year the Bureau of Census published divorce figures. Experts predict that more than 50% of the marriages of recent years will end in divorce. More than 20% of America's children live with only one parent (Broderick, 1988). America's work force is now 43 per cent women (Epstein, 1988). Combining divorce rate and working women statistics portray a very different America. The breakdown of the nuclear family unit especially challenges educators. The term "at-risk" became popularized for students with identified risk factors likely to affect their completion of school. Principals, both elementary and secondary, accepted the challenge of meeting the needs of the "at-risk" and developed programs to focus on their success in school.

In addition to the strong criticisms of American education some rays of hope appeared during this era. These appeared in the form of the effective schools research studies. The studies encouraged educators because they contrasted earlier findings of the Coleman Report and suggested "that schools with students with much the same ethnicity and family background and income had varying

learning rates, depending on which school they attended. Obviously, the school was having an influence on children's learning" (McCurdy, 1983, p. 7).

The Effective Schools Research especially favored the work of school principals. Brookover and Lezotte (1977) suggested that there was a clear difference in the role of principals in the improving schools when compared to declining schools. Principals in higher achieving schools propagated a belief that all students had the ability to master their work and expected them to do so.

Ron Edmonds (1979) suggested that administrative behavior, policies, and practices in the schools appeared to have a significant impact on school effectiveness. He stated that effective schools have, ". . . strong administrative leadership without which the disparate elements of good schooling can neither be brought together nor kept together" (p. 22).

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) portrayed the principal as the key actor in the promotion of schoolwide instructional improvement.

Attempting to define the primary role of principals produced differences of opinion. Researchers contemplated between instructional leadership and school management roles. The studies of Martin and Willower (1981), Bredson (1985), and Stronge and McVeain (1986) illustrated that

management tasks consumed most of principals' daily routine. National Association of Secondary School Principals' comprehensive study of the high school principalship (Pellicer et al., 1988) supported the above findings. In rank order responses, 716 principals placed "school management" first in time allocation and "program development" fourth. However, when asked to rate the "desired time allocation", the principals aspired to spend most of their time in program development and much less time in management tasks. In 1977 a similar survey conducted by NASSP produced the same results. Consistently principals aspire to spend most of their time on instructional leadership tasks but in reality spent most of their time on management tasks.

In the investigator's opinion, a recent supposition regarding the role of principals is very sensible. Stronge (1990) suggested that viewing "instructional leadership as segregated from management is a misconception of the role, and does injustice to the principalship" (p. 3). He cited the study of Bossert, Dwyer, Rowen, and Lee to support this statement. They asserted that when principals assumed responsibility for certain managerial tasks their behavior enhanced school climate and instructional organization which resulted in increased student learning (Stronge, 1990). Stronge submitted that in effect principals were "managing



for productive schools" (p. 1), skillfully using management techniques to facilitate and support the learning process. He suggested that though the position had shifted from a "principal teacher" focus of instruction to a modern focus of "broad-based administrative responsibilities" (p. 2), principals had not surrendered their role as educational leaders.

The management for productive schools model harmonizes well with the findings of others. McCurdy (1983) suggested that researchers "viewed management by principals as effective when it results in effective instruction" (p. 10-11). McCurdy quoted practicing principals to support his statement. Albert Dormemus, Franklin Avenue Middle School, Franklin Lakes, NJ, stated, "There has been a shift from instructional skills to management skills" (p. 16). Nicholas Fischer, then in Key West Florida, stated, "There is more focus on the principal as manager of a nonprofit enterprise with related accountability" (p. 16).

Lewis' suppositions (1991) further support the management for productive schools model. She suggested that principals need to give up preexisting notions and practices on running their schools. She stated, "Primarily trained to manage buildings rather than people, principals now must focus on cooperation with teachers, parents, and, yes,

students. The new principal must be an 'enabler' who encourages ideas, experimentation, collegiality" (p. 42).

Today's secondary principals have great opportunities to demonstrate leadership in their positions. Our shrinking world, combined with America's societal problems accentuate the influence of effective principals. Effective principals anticipate rather than react. They plan strategically in their schools to heighten anticipation and to diminish reactionism. They decentralize decision-making with site-based or school-based management. They involve parents, teachers and students in planning for school improvement. Effective principals empower their teachers to improve instruction. Empowered teachers assume greater ownership in the organization, more "tightly coupling" the organization which improves instruction. Effective principals spend a great deal of their time managing, but people are the focus in their management. Today's effective principals demonstrate instructional leadership by managing with an ultimate purpose, the learning of their students.

Iowa. Population demographics have been especially challenging to school administrators in the state of Iowa. From 1980 to 1990 Iowa's population decreased by 147,000 people (Roos, 1990). Student enrollment in public schools declined 7,500 students (1.5%) between 1985-86 and 1989-90. Public school enrollment has been projected to decline

another 3.8% by 1995 (Iowa Department of Education, 1990). Accompanying the overall decline in students, individual school districts also lost students. Lickteig and Clifford (1990) reported that 79 of Iowa's 430 public schools had fewer than 300 students in 1989-90. To examine this and related phenomena, the Iowa Department of Education (1990) produced The First Condition of Education Report. This report described Iowa schools and prescribed reform initiatives to improve them. The following summarizes the report with two major categories or initiatives. This provided an excellent sketch of the many forces affecting Iowa school administrators.

The first major component of the report included "Improvement and Quality Assurance Initiatives." The initiatives produced: an adoption of new standards for approved schools, an accreditation process to monitor compliance of new standards, an accountability requirement to assess needs and establish goals for the districts, and an educational excellence program.

The new state standards appeared in many forms. Curricula have been written, articulated and infused to meet the needs of our changing society. College preparatory and vocational course offerings increased in their comprehensiveness. Newly hired staff provided media and guidance services to entire K-12 student populations.

Superintendents could no longer serve as building principals. Though seemingly beneficial to Iowa's students, the new standards propagated heavier responsibilities for principals. Principals often lead curriculum writing, modified staff assignments to meet standards, and often assumed the supervision of more students and more grade levels. The position of principal grew larger from the new standards.

The accreditation process ensured that Iowa schools met state expectations. It consisted of annual monitoring by the Department of Education in which administrators completed compliance forms. When deficiencies appeared, outside examination of the school districts eventuated. State takeover of a school district became reality in 1991, illustrating the worst case scenario for school districts that resulted from the accreditation process.

The accountability requirement in Iowa schools greatly involved building principals. Districts developed goals and action plans in identified areas such as human growth and development, at-risk, and academic achievement. Building principals were asked to participate in the committee work associated with meeting this requirement.

The educational excellence program appeared in the form of Phase I, Phase II, and Phase III. The phase programs raised starting and experienced teacher's salaries to

enhance the quality, effectiveness, and performance of teachers. Phase III particularly affected the role of building principals. Principals often served on committees during the planning and implementation stages of Phase III and later examined plans and projects of teachers to determine whether their work met building and district needs defined in their district's Phase III Plan.

The second major component in the Iowa Department of Education (1990), The First Condition of Education Report focused on increased educational opportunities for students. The initiatives generated school reorganization efforts, open enrollment in schools, emphasis on early childhood education, and reform in school finance. Again the report's initiatives portrayed special challenges for school administrators.

Sharing in schools consisted of sharing staff, programs, students, and administrators. Seven years ago two school districts shared students. In the 1990-91 school year 104 districts shared students. Nine years ago two school districts shared one superintendent. In the 1991-92 school year 116 school districts shared 58 superintendents. Scheduling conflicts with students and staff combined with special problems associated with mixing students from different districts and divided loyalties confronted principals.

Open enrollment resulted when the Iowa legislature became interested in increasing the opportunities of students by allowing choice of school site attendance. With a timely request, students living in one district could elect to attend a different district without paying tuition. Open enrollment initiated a new concept of competitiveness for quality programming in Iowa schools. This challenged school districts to offer attractive programs to compete and prevent the loss of students to other districts.

Societal needs and the equity issue produced recommendations for early childhood education. Few would argue the substance of the recommendations, however, funding concerns arose. Expanding programs such as this would increase operating expenses of district with little prospect of receiving financial support from the state. The financial burdens of such programs would probably be shifted to the rest of the K-12 program.

School finance reform initiatives resulted from equity concerns of the current school finance formula. The current plan originated in 1967 and changed slightly through the years to account for declining student enrollment. The recent modifications resulted from the disparity in per pupil expenditures in different districts throughout the state. The new plan was to be phased over a three year period with loss of the enrollment adjustment in the second

year and provided no budget guarantee for the last year. Many school districts anticipated financial catastrophe.

From 1985-86 to 1988-89 expenditures for K-12 education increased 20%. During that time the state went deeper into debt resulting in the across the board cuts to state supported institutions in 1991-92. The challenge to provide quality education increase with each day for school administrators. Superintendents, with their whole district responsibilities, and secondary principals, with their more expensive programs, were greatly impacted by these cuts.

Iowa's educational system experienced great change in the past decade. Guy Ghan, Iowa's reorganization expert from the Department of Education, predicted stability in district reorganization and educational change by 1995. Until then, financial constraints and reorganization efforts deeply affected educational leaders in the state.

#### The Shared Superintendent and the Role of the Principal

The shared superintendency is relatively new to Iowa school districts. The position is analogous to the earlier position of county superintendent but considerably more complex. The shared superintendency has been analyzed in several recent investigations. These findings are notable:

1. Of the 37 states in America having 100 or more school districts in 1983-84, 21 reported the sharing of superintendents (Sederberg, 1985).

2. The East coast seemed to be the most intensive region in America sharing superintendents (Sederberg, 1985).

3. The majority of the districts sharing superintendents had enrollments of less than 600 pupils and were less than 15 miles from the nearest high school (Bratlie, 1990).

4. Districts shared superintendents with other districts primarily for financial reasons. In Iowa the sharing agreement, called a 28-E agreement, allowed districts to claim up to 25 additional students. Iowa's funding formula in 1990-91 provided \$2978 per student, which allowed sharing districts to split hypothetically as much as \$70,000 (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

5. Shared superintendents believed that sharing superintendents would lead to shared programs or students. Further district reorganization would follow (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

6. Shared superintendents questioned the position's standards. They stressed the compatibility of the districts and that the relationship should be limited to less than five years and lead to further sharing or reorganization. The shared superintendents sensed criticism for being less visible, accessible and participative within their communities. They spent more time on the job, but their perceived lack of accomplishments frustrated them. The



superintendents sensed lowered standards; managing rather than leading, delegating rather than doing. Building principals frequently received the delegated tasks (Bratlie, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989).

7. The motivation factors for the superintendents accepting shared positions were predictable. Many viewed the position as a personal challenge, which provided job enrichment, increased salary, and improved employment prospects. The salary increase for shared superintendents averaged \$10,000-\$12,000 (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

8. Board members stated that their communities strongly supported the shared position. The perceived advantages of the shared position included financial savings, articulated program development, better planning for future district reorganization, and decision-making decentralization (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

9. Staff members opposed the sharing of superintendents (Bratlie, 1990).

10. The success of a shared superintendent depended upon the skills of the administrator, conditions within the district, and community attitudes (Sederberg, 1985).

11. Board members also listed concerns about the shared position. They believed that the shared superintendents lacked visibility and accessibility which weakened communication and public relations opportunities.

They questioned whether either district received its fair share of the superintendent's time and effort. Many board members expressed concern that the shared position would burn-out the superintendent quickly. Board members sensed that superintendents delegated more responsibilities to district personnel. They detected that building principals received a large percentage of the delegated duties (Decker & McCumsey, 1990).

12. Several recommendations succeeded the studies. The groups believed that the two districts contemplating sharing should have similar expectations for the future and should involve community members in the investigation. The inquiry should be headed by a neutral consultant to maintain sensitivity to both districts. The prospective shared superintendent should not be forced into the relationship and should be compatible to both districts. The support staff of both districts, especially the building principals, should be strong to accomplish added responsibilities (Decker & McCumsey, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989).

13. The shared superintendency was not a job satisfaction limiting factor for Iowa's public school superintendents (Hull, 1988).

Lacking in the study of the shared superintendency is information on the effects of this position on the key actors within school districts. The literature suggests two

important considerations in regard to this perplexity. First, it suggests that shared superintendents resorted to increased delegation of duties (Sederberg, 1985; Decker & Talbot, 1989; Decker & McCumsey, 1990). Second, the literature suggests that building principals often received the delegated duties (Sederberg, 1985; Decker & Talbot, 1989; Decker & McCumsey, 1990). None of the studies identified the effect of the shared superintendency on the roles of the principals who serve them.

The future of this position is difficult to predict. The reorganizational trends observed in districts has been: first to share superintendents, second to share programs/students, and finally to reorganize or consolidate. The shared superintendent position disappears with the consolidation of districts. Two school boards with governing power give way to one. Questions will arise about the position's effect on schools for as long as the position endures.

#### Summary of the Review of Literature

The present state of knowledge on the shared superintendency is based upon a handful of studies which reported the perceptions of shared superintendents and their board members. The literature is incomplete in reporting the perceptions of others who may be directly or indirectly affected by the shared position. Three studies suggest the

likelihood that building principals would be delegated additional duties as a result of the shared superintendents being overwhelmed with running two districts (Decker & McCumsey, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989; Sederberg, 1985).

This study required a baseline of knowledge on the role of secondary principals. This general review attempted to provide this. It traced the development of the secondary principal's role from origin to the present. It highlighted the shaping forces of the position and specifically considered the role development of secondary principals as it pertained to Iowa.

The literature on the role responsibilities of principals supported the eight categories listed by Smith and Andrews (1989). In fact, Gorton and McIntyre (1978) identified almost identical responsibilities but in nine categories. Their categories included: program development, personnel, school management, student activities, district office responsibilities, community responsibilities, planning, professional development, and student behavior. Secondary principals' responsibilities, developed over 200 years of American educational history, do reflect Smith and Andrews (1989) categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services;

student supervision; district, state and federal activities; and professional preparation.

The development of this studies' hypotheses came from an apparent void in the understanding of the effect of the shared superintendency on the role of the principals who serve in districts sharing superintendents. This study will shed light on this absence in understanding.

## CHAPTER 3

## METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Overview of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to report from the literature and through research project findings whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of responsibilities for two groups of Iowa secondary principals: all those secondary principals with at least one year of experience serving shared superintendents and a random sample of an equal number of those secondary principals with one year of experience serving nonshared superintendents.

The secondary purposes of this study were to determine if there were significant relationships between Iowa secondary principals' perceptions of responsibilities and their total years of experience as a principal, the number of years that the principals had served in their present school district, and the number of years that their districts had shared superintendents.

The findings from this study expand the knowledge base of the effects of the shared superintendent position on school districts in the state of Iowa. The findings have implications for school districts presently sharing superintendents as well as those that are contemplating doing so. The study also has implications for secondary

principal preparatory programs and continuing education programs for practicing secondary principals.

This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used to gather and analyze the data required for completion of the study.

#### Development of the Questionnaire

The study utilized a survey instrument which provided two forms of data: a demographic profile of Iowa secondary principals serving in districts with fewer than 1000 students and a perception profile of the responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals.

#### Demographic Profile

The demographic component of the instrument asked for specific information pertaining to the respondents: the respondents' gender, the grade level for which the respondents were responsible, the years of experience as secondary principals, the number of years that the respondents had served in their current school district, and the number of years that the principals' school districts had shared their superintendent. This element of the instrument was modeled after an instrument utilized by Hull (1988). Hull surveyed Iowa superintendents, to determine if there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between shared and nonshared superintendents in the state. Hull asserted that this component of his survey instrument

was valid and reliable based on its scrutinization by an educational research class and by a group of practicing superintendents. The investigator applied analogous techniques to assure effectiveness in producing results which demonstrate consistency and accuracy.

Perception Profile of Responsibilities of Secondary Principals

The second and major portion of the survey instrument provided a profile which measured the degree of responsibility for daily tasks that were considered typical for secondary principals. It utilized Smith and Andrews' (1989) job analysis questionnaire, Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire (ZBJAQ), developed for the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) and published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). ZBJAQ utilized 160 tasks which had been identified by a panel of secondary school principals to be "activities that principals perform on a day-to-day basis in order to do the job normally assigned to them by their school district" (Smith & Andrews, 1989, p. 135).

The ZBJAQ questionnaire arranged the 160 tasks into eight categories which included: Educational Program Improvement Responsibilities; Personnel Selection and Evaluation Responsibilities; Community Relations Responsibilities; School Management Responsibilities;



Student Services Responsibilities; Supervision of Students Responsibilities; District, State, and Federal Coordination Responsibilities; and Professional Preparation Responsibilities (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

In this study, the investigator modified ZBJAQ for articulation purposes, shortened it to enhance the return rate of the survey and renamed the instrument to more clearly identify the information that was collected. The investigator named the newly formed instrument the "Secondary Principals' Perceived Responsibilities Questionnaire" (SPPRQ). Principals' perceived degree of responsibility for specified duties served as the topics of comparison in the study. In SPPRQ, the perceived degree of responsibility for specified duties of Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents were compared to the perceived degree of responsibility for the same duties of Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. In this way the two groups of secondary principals were compared to determine if there was a significant difference in their perceived degree of responsibility in each of Smith and Andrews' (1989) eight categories. The eight categories contain duties of secondary principals that were consistent with the findings in the review of literature and thus encapsulate the present

responsibilities of secondary principals (Gorton & McIntyre, 1978; McCurdy, 1983; Bossert, 1988).

The new instrument, SPPRQ, was shortened to enhance return rate of the survey instrument. The categories were condensed by eliminating redundant items and by combining related items. The investigator also eliminated items which appeared to be unrelated to the responsibilities central to the target population of rural Iowa small school secondary principals. The investigator attempted to maintain a similar percentage of composition for each role category as found in the original instrument. For example, the category of Community Relations Responsibilities had 28 items (17.5%) in the original 160 item instrument. An attempt was made to maintain the same percentage of composition in the modified instrument. The investigator designed the 80 item SPPRQ to be completed in less than 20 minutes. Though shortened, the questionnaire reflected the original Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaires's content yet focused on the research hypotheses.

The original ZBJAQ came from the reputable Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). The investigator acquired permission from ASCD for utilization and modification of the original ZBJAQ. The ZBJAQ had been previously utilized for research which helped to confirm its concurrent validity. The new SPPRQ instrument employed a

Likert-type response format requiring responses indicating principals' perceived degree of responsibility for the items in the original eight ZBJAQ categories. Portraying equal intervals, the responses read: 0, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100%. The response 0 indicated no responsibility and response 100% indicated full responsibility.

It was possible that the respondents could have placed a mark between an item. A rule was applied for such responses. It was assumed that responses between 0 and 25% indicated some degree of responsibility so therefore was recorded as 25%. Responses between 25% & 50% and 50% & 75% were shifted to the middle, 50%. It was assumed that responses between 75% and 100% indicated a high degree of responsibility but not full responsibility and therefore were recorded as 75%.

#### The Pilot Study

Borg and Gall (1989) suggested that a preliminary trial of a research instrument was a sound research plan and that a trial often produced "ideas, approaches, and clues not foreseen . . . greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study" (p. 77). With this in mind, the modified instrument was piloted to further substantiate its validity and reliability. The investigator submitted the first draft of the modified instrument to the following panel of experts in secondary education:

Dr. James Albrecht: Retired professor of Educational Administration, University of Northern Iowa.

Dr. Les Huth: Former High School Principal of Cedar Falls High School (IA); Coordinator of Student Teaching, Wartburg College, (IA).

Dr. William Jacobson: Former High School Principal of Jefferson High School, Cedar Rapids (IA); Assistant Superintendent, Cedar Rapids Community School District.

Dr. Jim Kelly: Former acting principal Northern University High School, Cedar Falls (IA); Coordinator of Student Teaching, University of Northern Iowa.

Dr. Dan Smith: Former High School Principal of Manning High School (IA); Superintendent of Schools, Cedar Falls Community Schools (IA).

Dr. Clifford Stokes: Consultant in the Bureau of School Administration and Accreditation, Iowa Department of Education.

Dr. Gaylord Tryon: Executive Director School, Administrators of Iowa.

Dr. Gary Wegenke: Superintendent of Schools, Des Moines Community School District (IA).

Mr. Floyd Winter: Director of Secondary Education, Cedar Falls Community Schools (IA).

Suggestions from this panel of experts were used in refining the survey instrument used in the pilot study. Secondary principals in the following 17 Iowa school districts of more than 1000 students participated in the pilot test of the survey instrument: Ballard-Huxley Community School District, Cedar Falls Community School District, Hampton Community School District, Iowa Falls Community School District, Knoxville Community School District, Lin-Mar Community School District, Maquoketa

Community School District, Monticello Community School District, New Hampton Community School District, North Fayette Community School District, Oelwein School District, Osage Community School District, South Tama County Community School District, Spencer Community School District, Waverly-Shellrock Community School District, West Delaware Community School District, and Winterset Community School District. Upon return of the pilot survey, the investigator utilized suggestions provided by respondents to revise the form and content of the instrument to improve clarity and thus producing a more reliable instrument.

#### Selection of the Sample

In the 1990-91 school year the Iowa Association of School Boards (1990) identified 112 school districts sharing 56 superintendents. The range in student population size for districts sharing superintendents was 1427 students. The smallest district sharing a superintendent had 56 students and the largest district sharing had 1,483 students. Ninety-five percent of the districts sharing superintendents had populations less than 1000 students. Hull (1988) identified the shared superintendent population in his study as those serving in districts with 1,000 students or fewer. Hull's study combined with the skewed nature of the target population justified the use of school district size, those districts with fewer than 1,000

students, as a means of identifying the secondary principal population in the study. This resulted in a population being identified that came from schools with like administrative structures to be included in the study and those with different structures to be excluded. For example, larger secondary schools often have assistant principals who share responsibilities with the principal while smaller secondary schools do not have those positions as part of their administrative structure.

Approximately 300 Iowa secondary principals serve in districts fewer than 1,000 students. Approximately 100 of these secondary principals serve districts which share superintendents with another district. All secondary principals serving shared superintendents and having at least one year of experience were included in the survey. This population was identified by the use of the Iowa Association of School Boards (1991) publication, 1991-92 Superintendent Shares.

An identical number of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents functioned as the population of comparison. This population was identified by the use of the Iowa Educational Directory (IED) published annually by the Iowa Department of Education (1990). This is an official state document in which the data are derived from

the Basic Educational Data Survey (BEDS) administered by the state each fall.

The two populations of secondary principals, those serving shared superintendents and those serving nonshared superintendents, were identified in the IED. First, districts that had a secondary principal with a shared superintendent were identified. Second, districts with nonshared superintendents were matched with the previously identified districts sharing superintendents. This was done by matching districts with comparably sized student populations. Finally the secondary principals were identified because their districts had been included by the size matching. The two populations of principals; one serving shared superintendents and the other serving nonshared superintendents; were assumed to be similar because all of the principals were from the state of Iowa, all considered themselves secondary principals, and all served schools with similar student populations.

Similar surveys involving school principals have produced above 60% return rates (Brown, 1977; Druvenga, 1987; Mulholland, 1989). It was reasonable to expect a similar return because this population of principals was similar to the populations in the previous studies.

### Collection of Data

In October of 1991, 198 secondary principals who were selected for the survey were sent a packet containing a brief letter of introduction and explanation; the questionnaire survey instrument; and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. The respondents were assured of confidentiality in the compilation of results.

The return rate was maximized by numbering the surveys and by sending follow-up letters 2 weeks after the initial mailing to those who had not responded. Two weeks after sending the follow-up letter a telephone call was made to encourage those who still had not responded. At this time 189 surveys of the 198 that had been sent had been returned. No additional follow-up request was done.

### Method of Data Analysis

The responses on the SPPRQ indicated the secondary principals' perceive degree of responsibility for the duties described in the items. The responses were reported as raw frequencies and as descriptive statistics. The items on the SPPRQ were grouped into categories as shown in Appendix D. Factor analysis was applied to the categories to determine appropriateness of the placement. Inferential statistics, discriminant analysis and  $t$  tests for independent means, were then used to determine if the perception of responsibilities for those principals who worked for shared



superintendents differed significantly from the perception of responsibilities for those secondary principals working for nonshared superintendents. Correlational statistics, Pearson product-moment, were used to determine whether there were significant relationships between the perception of secondary principals' responsibilities and demographic characteristics within the study.

Research Hypothesis 1 proposed that secondary principals serving shared superintendents would perceive a greater degree of responsibility than principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination. Discriminant analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in a composite of the five variables for the two groups of secondary principals. Two-tailed  $t$  tests for independent means were applied to determine whether the perceived degree of responsibility means for the two groups of secondary principals differed significantly in each of the five categories.

Research Hypothesis 2 proposed that secondary principals serving shared superintendents would perceive a lesser degree of responsibility than principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: student

services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. Discriminant analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference in a composite of the three variables for the two groups of secondary principals. This analysis was followed by two-tailed  $t$  tests for independent means to determine whether the degree of responsibility means for the two groups of secondary principals differed significantly in each of the three categories.

Research Hypothesis 3 proposed that as the years of secondary principals' experience increase, their perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of this relationship.

Research Hypothesis 4 proposed that as the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of these relationships.

Research Hypothesis 5 proposed that as the number of years secondary principals' served in their present school

districts increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of these relationships.

Research Hypothesis 6 proposed that as the number of years secondary principals' serve in their present school districts increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of these relationships.

Research Hypothesis 7 proposed that as the number of years school districts share superintendents increases their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of these relationships.

Research Hypothesis 8 proposed that as the number of years school districts share superintendents increases their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility

decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. Pearson product-moment correlation was used to describe the strength of these relationships.

Norusis (1988) suggested that in most situations sample correlation coefficients may be used to test hypotheses about population correlation coefficients. The Pearson-product moment correlation was used to produce coefficients illustrating the relationships between Iowa secondary principals' perceptions of responsibilities and: their total years of experience as a principal, the number of years that the principals had served in their present school districts, and the number of years that their school districts had shared superintendents. The relationships were statistically analyzed to determine if they differed significantly from zero. The investigator drew inferences for Research Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 based on the results of the correlational study.

#### Summary

This chapter described in detail the purpose and step-by-step procedure of the study. The questionnaire was reviewed and the pilot study was described. The method of selecting the sample and the criteria used to categorize respondents were describe. The procedures of data collection and data treatment were detailed.

## CHAPTER 4

## PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The primary purpose of this research was to determine if there were significant differences in the perceptions of responsibilities for two groups of Iowa secondary principals: all those secondary principals with at least one year of experience serving shared superintendents and a random sample of an equal number of those secondary principals with one year of experience serving nonshared superintendents.

The secondary purposes of the research were to determine if there were significant relationships between Iowa secondary principals' perceptions of responsibilities and their total years of experience as a principal, the number of years that the principals had served in their present school districts, and the number of years that their school districts had shared superintendents.

The review of literature revealed that the responsibilities of secondary principals could be categorized in a manner consistent with that of the instrument, "Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire" (ZBJAQ) found in the ASCD publication Instructional Leadership: How Principals Make A Difference (Smith & Andrews, 1989). The ZBJAQ's categories were: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations;

school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation.

The Secondary Principal Perceived Responsibility Questionnaire (SPPRQ), produced from Smith and Andrews' (1989) Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire, collected perceptions of responsibility of Iowa secondary principals in the above eight categories. The responses were analyzed statistically to ascertain differences and relationships between secondary principals who served shared superintendents and secondary principals who served nonshared superintendents as they pertained to the eight responsibility categories.

Following the collection of data, the statistical analyses described in the previous chapter were conducted. The findings of those analyses, relative to the specific questions and hypotheses of the investigation, are herein reported.

#### Profile of Respondents

Table 1 depicts the number and percentage of secondary principals who participated, their years of principal experience, grade levels served in their school, their length of experience in their current school district, and the number of years their school district has shared a superintendent. One hundred eighty-nine of the 198

Table 1

Profile of Secondary Principal Respondents, N = 148

Variable	Descriptor	Number	Percent	(Cumulative Percent)
PRINCIPALS	Shared Superintendent	71	48	
	Nonshared Superintendent	77	52	
GENDER	Female	7	5	
	Male	133	90	
	No response	8	5	
GRADE LEVEL SERVED	7 - 12	58	39.2	39.2
	9 - 12	48	32.4	71.6
	6 - 8	9	6.1	77.7
	6 - 12	9	6.1	83.8
	K - 12	11	7.4	91.2
	5 - 8	3	2.0	93.2
	7 - 8	3	2.0	95.2
	K - 8	2	1.4	96.6
	10 - 12	2	1.4	98.0
	5 - 12	1	.7	98.7
	Preschool - 12	1	.7	98.4
K - 5 and 9 - 12	1	.7	100.0	
YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS SECONDARY PRINCIPAL	2 - 5	53	35.8	35.8
	6 - 10	30	20.2	56.1
	11 - 15	23	15.5	71.6
	16 - 20	21	14.2	85.8
	21 - 25	10	6.8	92.6
	26 - 35	11	7.4	100.0
YEARS OF SERVICE IN PRESENT SCHOOL DISTRICT	1 - 5	74	50.0	50.0
	6 - 10	24	16.2	66.2
	11 - 15	22	14.9	81.1
	16 - 20	15	10.1	91.2
	21 - 30	13	8.8	100.0

respondents returned questionnaires (95%). The investigator eliminated 41 surveys by applying the one year experience and secondary principal limitations. Useable responses remaining were 148 (94%) of the eligible 157. Of the 148, 71 principals served shared superintendents and 77 served nonshared superintendents.

The male gender was predominant (90%). The proportion of female principals that reported (5%) was consistent with the percent of female secondary principals statewide (School Administrators of Iowa, 1992). Five percent of the respondents did not indicate gender.

The secondary principals reported 12 different grade level arrangements which may be found in Table 1. The grade level arrangements 7-12 and 9-12 combined to produce 71.6% of the responses. In Iowa, these arrangements traditionally have been considered to be secondary school grade level arrangements.

The responses were skewed in terms of experience of secondary principals. Eighty-three principals (56%) reported between 2-10 years of experience, while another 44 principals (30%) were in the 11-20 year range, and only 21 principals (14%) reported between 21-35 years of experience. This overall lack of experience of Iowa secondary principals serving in school districts less than 1000 students is an understandable trend. As principals gain experience,



commonly they move on to larger districts or into the superintendency leaving vacated positions. Their positions often get filled by less experienced principals.

The number of years that secondary principal served in their present school district, shown in Table 1, was also heavily skewed. Responses depicted 74 principals, (50%) with between 1-5 years of service to their present school districts. Small school districts, such as those whose principals participated in this study, often serve as stepping stones for school administrators. The absence of length of service to the same district for the secondary principals who participated in the study was predictable.

The data collected for the number of years that districts had shared their superintendents were fairly balanced as reported in Table 2. Beginning in Iowa in the 1981-82 school year, the short length of time that the practice of sharing superintendents had existed produced intense bunching of results. In the 1985-86 school year only ten Iowa school districts shared five superintendents (Ghan, 1990). Predictable was the fact that one half of the school districts sharing superintendents at the time of data collection, had done so for three years or less.

#### Rationale For Grouping

In the hypothesis development procedures, a commonality seemed to exist for certain categories of responsibility.

Table 2

Number of Years School Districts Had Shared Superintendents

Years	Number	Percent of Principal Respondents	Cumulative Percent of Respondents
1	15	21.4	21.4
2	7	10.0	31.4
3	16	22.9	54.3
4	13	18.6	72.9
5	12	17.1	90.0
Over 5	7	10.0	100.0
Total	70	100.0	

It was as if factors existed that made it possible to predict the outcomes of the treatment. The investigator performed factor analysis to verify the groupings in the hypotheses. The results are shown in Table 3 and Table 4.

As reported in Table 3, only one factor, accounting for 60% of the variability and whose Eigenvalue was 3.0, emerged from the computation of the statistic on the grouped categories: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Table 3

Test to Determine the Connectiveness of the Responsibility  
Categories--Group 1

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FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variability
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1	3.0	60
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Responsibility Categories	Factor Loading
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Factor 1

Educational program improvement	.82
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Personnel selection and evaluation	.71
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Community relations	.85
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School management	.77
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District, state, and federal coordination	.69
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The remaining factors had Eigenvalues less than one and therefore were not reported. This would suggest that truly the categories have something in common.

With examination of the definitions of the five categories, the investigator surmised that the emerged factor was grounded on the fact that the principals' responsibilities composing those categories indirectly affected students. The investigator believed that the five categories were appropriately grouped in the research hypotheses which provided justification for the discriminant analysis to be performed on the groups to follow.

Table 4

Test to Determine the Connectiveness of the Responsibility Categories--Group 2

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FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor	Eigenvalue	Percent of Variability
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1	1.6	53.4
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2	1.0	33.8
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Responsibility Categories	Factor Loading	
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	<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>
Student Services	.87	.21
Supervision of Students	.90	-.12
Professional Preparation	.03	.98

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Two factors emerged when factor analysis was applied to the responsibility categories: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. The variables represented two underlying factors and hence it appears that those two will be necessary to discriminate the two groups. The first factor accounted for 53% of the variability and the second factor accounted for 33% of the variability.

With examination of the definitions of the three categories, the investigator surmised that the major factor (with 53% variability) that emerged was grounded on the fact that the principals' responsibilities composing two of the categories, student services and supervision of students, directly affected students. This would suggest that grouping of two of the categories during hypothesis formation was appropriate which provided further justification for discriminant analysis.

#### Research Questions and Research Hypotheses Analyzed

The investigator designed research hypotheses for each of the research questions. The investigator formulated Hypothesis 1 on the assumption that the responsibility categories which composed it indirectly affected students. Hypothesis 2 was formulated on assumption that the responsibility categories which composed it directly affected students.

The contrasting hypotheses acted to help determine if a difference existed in how Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents perceived their job responsibilities. The means were computed from five point Likert scales which indicated the principals' perceived degree of responsibility for each item on the SPPRQ. A discriminant analysis was performed on the responsibility categories followed by individual  $t$  tests on each category. Iowa secondary principals' perceived responsibility, the dependent variable, could have increased or decreased which required two tailed probability to accurately portray the significance of the difference between the two groups of principals. The investigator used .05 as the accepted level of significance.

Research Hypothesis 1:

Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a greater degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

The investigator performed discriminant analysis on the five categories: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination describing secondary principals serving shared

superintendents and secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents, as shown in Table 5. The insignificant results indicated that the two groups of principals do not perceive the combined responsibilities differently. Therefore, the null hypothesis may not be rejected and the research hypothesis is not supported.

Iowa secondary principals in the two test groups, using the  $t$  test for independent means, differed significantly in their perception of responsibility for duties related to personnel selection and evaluation, which supported the hypothesis that the two groups of principals would perceive different degrees of responsibility for this category. However, the principals' perceptions of responsibility did not differ significantly in the responsibility categories educational program development; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination reported in Table 6.

#### Research Hypothesis 2:

Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a lesser degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

The investigator performed discriminant analysis on the three categories student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation for Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals

Table 5

Tests to Determine Significant Differences in Perception of Responsibilities Between Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Shared Superintendents and Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Nonshared Superintendents, Analyzed as Grouped Categories

Discriminant Analysis

<u>Group</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Stand. Canonical Discrim. Function Coefficient</u>
1	.24	NONE

Table 6

Tests to Determine Significant Differences in Perception of Responsibilities Between Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Shared Superintendents and Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Nonshared Superintendents, Analyzed as Individual Categories

<u>Category</u>	<u>Type Supt.</u>	<u>Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-Value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2-Tailed Probability</u>																																												
Educational Program Improvement	Shared	71	4.00	.438	1.40	146	.16																																												
	Nonshared	77	3.89	.497				Personnel Selection and Evaluation	Shared	71	4.26	.374	2.40 *	146	.01	Nonshared	77	4.09	.454	Community Relations	Shared	71	3.31	.493	1.02	146	.30	Nonshared	77	3.22	.562	School Management	Shared	71	3.57	.398	1.59	146	.11	Nonshared	77	3.45	.524	District, State, and Coordination	Shared	71	3.13	.584	.02	146	.98
Personnel Selection and Evaluation	Shared	71	4.26	.374	2.40 *	146	.01																																												
	Nonshared	77	4.09	.454				Community Relations	Shared	71	3.31	.493	1.02	146	.30	Nonshared	77	3.22	.562	School Management	Shared	71	3.57	.398	1.59	146	.11	Nonshared	77	3.45	.524	District, State, and Coordination	Shared	71	3.13	.584	.02	146	.98	Nonshared	77	3.12	.718								
Community Relations	Shared	71	3.31	.493	1.02	146	.30																																												
	Nonshared	77	3.22	.562				School Management	Shared	71	3.57	.398	1.59	146	.11	Nonshared	77	3.45	.524	District, State, and Coordination	Shared	71	3.13	.584	.02	146	.98	Nonshared	77	3.12	.718																				
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District, State, and Coordination	Shared	71	3.13	.584	.02	146	.98																																												
	Nonshared	77	3.12	.718																																															

Note. \* $p < .05$ .



serving nonshared superintendents. As shown in Table 7, the significant results of the analysis confirmed that the student services and professional preparation perceived responsibilities were different between the two groups of principals as shown by the standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients.

When the  $t$  test for independent means was applied to the three individual categories, Iowa secondary principals in the two test groups differed significantly in their perceptions of responsibility for duties related to professional preparation. However, the finding contrasted the research hypothesis and depicted that secondary principals serving shared superintendents perceived greater responsibility for professional preparation than did the principals serving nonshared superintendents. Therefore, the null hypothesis may be rejected and the research hypothesis was contradicted for this category of responsibility. Further shown in Table 8, the principals' perception of responsibility did not differ significantly in the responsibility categories student services and supervision of students.

Table 7

Tests to Determine Significant Differences in Perception of Responsibilities Between Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Shared Superintendents and Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Nonshared Superintendents, Analyzed as Grouped Categories

Discriminant Analysis

<u>Group</u>	<u>Significance</u>	<u>Stand. Canonical Discrim. Function Coefficient</u>
2	* .05	Student Services .52 Supervision of Students .03 Professional Preparation .76

Note. \*p<.05.

Table 8

Tests to Determine Significant Differences in Perception of Responsibilities Between Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Shared Superintendents and Iowa Secondary Principals Serving Nonshared Superintendents, Analyzed as Individual Categories

<u>Category</u>	<u>Type Supt.</u>	<u>Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t-Value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>2-Tailed Probability</u>																				
Student Services	Shared	71	4.30	.411	1.87	146	.06																				
	Nonshared	77	4.15	.529				Supervision of Students	Shared	71	3.97	.664	.86	146	.39	Nonshared	77	3.88	.648	Professional Preparation	Shared	71	4.07	.570	2.39*	146	.01
Supervision of Students	Shared	71	3.97	.664	.86	146	.39																				
	Nonshared	77	3.88	.648				Professional Preparation	Shared	71	4.07	.570	2.39*	146	.01	Nonshared	77	3.83	.666								
Professional Preparation	Shared	71	4.07	.570	2.39*	146	.01																				
	Nonshared	77	3.83	.666																							

Note. \*p<.05.

The investigator developed Research Hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 to determine if significant relationships existed between Iowa secondary principals' perception of responsibility and the variables: years of experience as a secondary principal, principals' length of stay in their current school district, and years school districts had shared their superintendents. The response means were computed by responsibility category from the replies of the principals on the SPPRQ. Pearson product-moment correlation was applied to portray the relationships. The relationships could have resulted in either a positive or a negative correlation so two-tailed probability portrayed the significance of the relationships between the variables.

Research Hypothesis 3:

As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

The strength of relationships between the years of Iowa secondary principals' experience and their perceived degree of responsibility for educational program development; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination were not statistically significant, with one exception as noted in Table 9. Although school management

was close to being significant with an alpha of .06, the value of .15 for the correlation coefficient was too small, indicating too weak of a relationship to be clearly interpretable (Cohen, 1977). The associated null hypothesis may not be rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported.

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Table 9

Tests to Determine the Relationships Between Years of Iowa Secondary Principals' Experience and the Eight Responsibility Categories

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Categories	Cases	Cor. Coef.	2-Tailed Prob
Educational Program Improvement	148	-.01	.92
Personnel Selection and Evaluation	148	.00	.99
Community Relations	148	-.02	.82
School Management	148	.15	.06
District, State, and Federal Coordination	148	-.00	.99
Student Services	148	-.03	.71
Supervision of Students	148	-.03	.75
Professional Preparation	148	.03	.71

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Research Hypothesis 4:

As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Table 9 shows the strength of relationships between the years of Iowa secondary principals' experience and their perceived degree of responsibility for student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation were not statistically significant. The null hypothesis may not be rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported.

Research Hypothesis 5:

As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present school districts increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; district, state, and federal coordination.

The strength of the relationships between Iowa secondary principals' years of service in their present school district and their perceived degree of responsibility for educational program development; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; and district, state, and federal coordination were not statistically significant. Table 10 reports that the responsibility category school management proved to be the one exception, being statistically significant at the .01 level. However, the value .20 for the correlation coefficient was small, indicating a weak relationship. This weak relationship

combined with the other insignificant relationships in the other categories made it difficult for the investigator to clearly interpret the results (Cohen, 1977). The associated null hypothesis was partially rejected and the research hypothesis was partially supported.

Research Hypothesis 6:

As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present school districts increases the principals' perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

The strength of the relationships between Iowa secondary principals' years of service in their present school district and their perceived degree of responsibility for student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation were not statistically significant as indicated in Table 10. Therefore the associated null hypothesis was not rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported.

Research Hypothesis 7:

As the number of years school districts share superintendents increases, their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; district, state, and federal coordination.

The strength of the relationship between the number of years Iowa school districts have shared superintendents and their secondary principals perceived degree of

Table 10

Tests to Determine the Relationships Between Iowa Secondary Principals' Years of Service in Their Present School Districts and the Eight Responsibility Categories

Categories	Cases	Cor. Coef	2-Tailed Prob.
Educational Program Improvement	148	.02	.77
Personnel Selection and Evaluation	148	-.03	.71
Community Relations	148	.03	.68
School Management	148	.20	* .01
District, State, and Federal Coordination	148	.10	.23
Student Services	148	-.02	.78
Supervision of Students	148	.05	.56
Professional Preparation	148	.07	.38

Note. \* $p < .05$ .

responsibility for educational program development; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination were not statistically significant as shown in Table 11. The associated null hypothesis was not rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported.

Research Hypothesis 8:

As the number of years school districts share superintendents increases their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

The strength of the relationship between the number of years Iowa school districts have shared superintendents and their secondary principals perceived degree of responsibility for student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation were not statistically significant as shown in Table 11. The associated null hypothesis was not rejected and the research hypothesis was not supported.



Table 11

Tests to Determine the Relationships Between the Number of Years School Districts have Shared Their Superintendents and the Eight Responsibility Categories

Categories	Cases	Cor. Coef.	2-Tailed Prob
Educational Program Improvement	70	.03	.83
Personnel Selection and Evaluation	70	.12	.31
Community Relations	70	.01	.94
School Management	70	.09	.45
District, State, and Federal Coordination	70	.05	.66
Student Services	70	-.01	.91
Supervision of Students	70	.08	.49
Professional Preparation	70	-.11	.37

## CHAPTER 5

## OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Study OverviewThe Shared Superintendency In Iowa

Sharing of superintendents between school districts in the state of Iowa was a common phenomenon in the decade of the 1980s. Ghan (1990) and the Iowa Association of School Boards (1991) reported the incidence of districts sharing superintendents has grown significantly: 1981-82, 2 school districts shared 1 superintendent; by 1985-86, 10 districts shared 5 superintendents; and in 1991-92, 116 school districts shared 58 superintendents.

This trend resulted from an agreement detailed in Iowa Code, Chapter 280.15. This agreement, called a 28-E Agreement, was an effort to encourage school district consolidation; thus, increasing state funding efficiency. It is believed that state lawmakers envisioned that sharing superintendents would increase dialogue between school boards of neighboring districts, would follow with interdistrict program sharing, and would conclude with district reorganization. The sharing of superintendents was attractive to school boards because it allowed districts to claim additional students, through an enrollment weighting factor, and therefore receive more state aid (Bratlie, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989). Superintendents accepted the shared

positions for financial and professional growth reasons (Decker & Talbot, 1989).

Job overload was inherent for the shared superintendents. The superintendents had double responsibility; two boards with which to communicate, two budgets to develop and to administer, two administrative cabinets and staffs to lead, and two separate communities to serve. Speculation existed as to whether shared superintendents were capable of meeting the needs of two school districts without delegating responsibilities. Sederberg (1985) reported an increased reliance on building level administrators in school districts sharing superintendents. Further speculation would inquire as to the influence that the position of the shared superintendency would have on the responsibilities of principals serving under those superintendents.

#### Purposes Of The Study

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if there was a significant difference in the perception of job responsibilities for two groups of Iowa secondary principals; those secondary principals who served under shared superintendents and those secondary principals who served under nonshared superintendents. Secondary purposes of the study were to determine: if there was a significant relationship between Iowa secondary principals' length of

experience and how they perceived their job responsibilities; if there was a significant relationship between the length of time Iowa secondary principals had served in their current school districts and how they perceived their job responsibilities; and if there was significant relationship between the length of time Iowa school districts had shared superintendents and how their secondary principals perceived their job responsibilities.

#### Identified Populations

The target populations of Iowa secondary principals in the study were determined from information provided by the Iowa Association of School Boards (1990). In the 1990-91 school year the IASB identified 112 school districts sharing 56 superintendents. The range in student population for districts sharing superintendents was 1427 students. The smallest district sharing superintendents had 56 students and the largest district sharing had 1,483 students.

It was the intent of the investigator to target principals who held like responsibilities in districts with shared and nonshared superintendents. The size of student population is a critical factor in ascertaining the responsibilities of principals (Perry & Perry, 1991). The skewed nature, to the smaller size, of the districts sharing superintendents made it imperative that the investigator control district size in selecting the target populations.

Ninety-five percent of the school districts that shared superintendents contained 1000 or fewer students. This, combined with Hull's (1988) earlier study, established precedence for identifying the second population of Iowa secondary principals as those who served nonshared superintendents in school districts of fewer than 1000 students.

The investigator also regarded the principals' knowledge of the job to be a critical factor. It was assumed principals serving at least one year as a principal had a greater knowledge of the principalship than those who were just beginning the principalship. To control for this, respondents must have considered themselves to be secondary principals and must have accumulated at least one year of experience as a principal to be included in the study.

All Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and an equal number of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents composed the final target populations. The two populations of secondary principals were matched by the number of students composing their school districts. For example, if a shared superintendent district had 500 students, its principal would have been matched with a principal from a nonshared superintendent district that had a student population closest to 500.

The investigator mailed 198 questionnaires to viable secondary principals; 99 serving shared superintendents and 99 serving nonshared superintendents. The investigator eliminated 17 principals serving shared superintendents from the survey population prior to mailing. They were removed because their districts were larger than 1000 students, in their first year of superintendent sharing, or were whole grade sharing with another school district and their principals were elementary rather than secondary principals. Respondents returned 189 of the 198 (95.4%) questionnaires mailed. The investigator eliminated 41 surveys by applying the one year experience and the perception of being a secondary principal limitation. This left 148 of an eligible 157 surveys (94%). The responding populations included 71 principals who served shared superintendents and 77 principals who served nonshared superintendents.

#### Survey Instrument

The survey instrument was a modified version of Smith and Andrews' (1989) job analysis questionnaire, Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire. The investigator renamed the instrument the "Secondary Principals' Perceived Responsibilities Questionnaire (SPPRQ)." The investigator utilized this instrument because of the original's comprehensive approach in describing the responsibilities of secondary principals and its placement of survey items into

eight responsibility categories. The categories were consistent with the fundamental responsibilities of secondary principals portrayed in the review of literature. The eight job responsibility categories of secondary principals found in SPPRQ included: Educational Program Improvement Responsibilities; Personnel Selection and Evaluation Responsibilities; Community Relations Responsibilities; School Management Responsibilities; Student Services Responsibilities; Supervision of Students Responsibilities; District, State, and Federal Coordination Responsibilities; and Professional Preparation Responsibilities.

#### Research Questions and Hypotheses

Factor analysis suggested that separate factors existed justifying grouping of the responsibility categories. The grouping of the secondary principals' responsibility categories allowed the investigator to develop questions and hypotheses suitable for treatment. They follow:

Question 1. Will secondary principals serving shared superintendents perceive a greater or lesser degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision

of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

Research Hypothesis 1: Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a greater degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 2: Secondary principals serving shared superintendents will perceive a lesser degree of responsibility than secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Question 2. What is the relationship between the years of experience of secondary principals and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

Research Hypothesis 3: As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 4: As the years of secondary principals' experience increases, their perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Question 3. What is the relationship between the number of years secondary principals have served in their



present school districts and their perceived degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

Research Hypothesis 5: As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present districts increases, the principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 6: As the number of years secondary principals serve in their present districts increases, their perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

Question 4. What is the relationship between the number of years that Iowa school districts have shared superintendents and how their secondary principals perceive their degree of responsibility in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; student services; supervision of students; district, state, and federal coordination; and professional preparation?

Research Hypothesis 7: As the number of years Iowa school districts share superintendents increases, their secondary principals' perceived degree of responsibility increases in the categories of: educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

Research Hypothesis 8: As the number of years Iowa school districts share superintendents increases, their secondary principals perceived degree of responsibility decreases in the categories of: student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation.

The investigator discerned a pattern in the development of the eight hypotheses. The responsibility categories educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination depict responsibilities of principals that focus on staff and community needs and therefore impact students indirectly. These responsibility categories appear to be affected in a similar manner when delegated, and appear to be related as principals gain experience. The aforementioned categories were included in hypotheses 1, 3, 5, and 7.

The responsibility categories student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation depict responsibilities of principals that impact students directly or focus on personal professional growth. Those categories were included in hypotheses 2, 4, 6, and 8.

#### Treatment of the Data

The responses on the Secondary Principals' Perceived Responsibilities Questionnaire indicated degree of responsibility perceived for the identified duties in eight responsibility categories and grouped as found in the hypotheses. The investigator considered it necessary to

substantiate the grouping of the categories present in the hypotheses and did so by performing factor analysis.

One factor emerged from the computation of the statistic on the grouped categories educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination. This suggested that a construct existed that linked the five categories together. Upon examination of the definitions/descriptions of the five categories the investigator speculated that the common factor was staff and community responsibilities (those responsibilities that are not directly student related). This finding supported the grouping of the five categories from which the remaining statistical tests were performed.

The responsibility categories student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation composed the second group. Two factors emerged from the factor analysis. This suggested that two separate constructs existed among the categories. Again the investigator examined the definitions/descriptions of the three categories and speculated about the constructs. The investigator surmised that the major factor was associated with direct student related responsibilities and that a smaller secondary factor was comprised of self-improvement responsibilities. Though a smaller secondary factor

existed, the investigator used the three categories together in the statistical analysis. Directionality in the hypothesis formulation made this justifiable.

With justification for the grouping of the categories in place, the remaining treatment followed. The responses were reported as raw frequencies and as descriptive statistics. Inferential statistics, discriminant analysis and  $t$  test, determined statistical significance in the difference in the perceived responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals who served shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals who served nonshared superintendents.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation, was used to determine the statistical significance of the relationship between the secondary principals' perception of responsibilities and the (a) number of years of experience of Iowa secondary principals, (b) the number of years that the principals had served in their present school districts, and (c) the number of years that the secondary principals' school districts had shared their superintendents.

### Conclusions

#### Conclusions Drawn From The Findings For Question 1

The first conclusion emerged from the analysis of the perceptions of secondary principals using discriminant analysis. The principals' perception of responsibility in

the categories of educational program improvement; personnel selection and evaluation; community relations; school management; and district, state and federal coordination differed insignificantly. No inferences may be drawn involving the differences between the perceived responsibilities between Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents and Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents.

This conclusion was confirmed when separate  $t$  tests were performed on these same responsibility categories. With one exception the responsibility categories depicting the secondary principals' perception of responsibility differed insignificantly. No inferences may be made involving the perceived responsibilities of secondary principals in the categories educational program improvement; community relations; school management; and district, state, and federal coordination.

The second conclusion surfaced from a  $t$  test analysis of the individual responsibility category personnel selection and evaluation. Perceptions of principals serving shared superintendents differed significantly from the perceptions of principals serving nonshared superintendents for responsibilities dealing with personnel selection and evaluation. It may be inferred that principals serving shared superintendents have been delegated expanded

responsibilities in this category when compared to secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. By definition, this would imply that the principals' role in the "selection, improvement, and evaluation of certified and classified staff" had increased. Supported by the literature, this investigator surmised that principals serving shared superintendents perceived more responsibility than principals serving nonshared superintendents in hiring staff (e.g.: advertising, screening candidates, and arranging interviews) and in supervising both certified and noncertified staff (e.g.: teachers, custodians, secretaries, cooks, and bus drivers).

The third conclusion emerged from using the discriminant analysis statistic to examine the principals' perceptions of responsibility as grouped data for the responsibility direct student related categories of student services, supervision of students, and professional preparation. Group perceptions of Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents differed significantly from group perceptions of Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. When analyzed as groups, it may be inferred that principals serving shared superintendents perceived a different degree of responsibility for duties related to providing services to students, supervising students and assuring their own professional development.

By definition this would imply that the principals' "role in working with counselors, psychologists, student government, student discipline, and student counseling"; their "role in supervising halls, lunchroom, bus loading, playground, student activities and athletic events"; and their "role in professional organizations; reading professional journals; and attending workshops, classes, and other professional growth activities" were likely to have changed as a result of working for a shared superintendent. It may be inferred that principals working for shared superintendents may have delegated the aforementioned responsibilities to someone else in the school organization. This would be similar to how Sederberg (1985) suggested that shared superintendents reacted to job overload.

The fourth conclusion surfaced when separate t tests were performed on the responsibility categories student services and supervision of students. This was to determine if there were individual differences in perception of the two groups of secondary principals for those two categories. The two groups of principals' perceptions of responsibility differed insignificantly for each category. No inferences may be made involving the responsibilities present in each of the above individual categories. It should be noted, however, that based on the results of the discriminant analysis, the two categories seem to interrelate. The two

categories are individually insignificant at  $p = .05$  alpha level, but when combined suggest that secondary principals serving shared superintendents and secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents differ in their perception of responsibility in providing student services and supervising students.

The fifth conclusion arose when a separate  $t$  test was performed on the responsibility category professional preparation. This was to determine if there was an individual difference in perception of responsibility for the two groups of the secondary principals in this category. The perceptions of the two groups of principals' differed significantly for this category, but in the opposite direction of the hypothesis. It may be inferred that principals serving shared superintendents have recognized the importance of their professional development. This would imply that they understood the need to grow professionally. This would also imply that they have been provided the time to do so by their superintendents and their school districts or perhaps that they may have sacrificed in other areas of responsibility so as to grow professionally.

#### Conclusions Drawn From The Findings For Question 2

The years of experience of Iowa secondary principals in the target populations were heavily skewed to the low range



of experience. Over one-half of the principals indicated ten years or less experience as principals.

The relationship between the total years of experience of Iowa secondary principals and their perception of school management responsibilities was close to being significant with an alpha level of .06, however, a very weak relationship,  $r = .15$ , emerged. The weak relationship, combined with the skewed nature of the "total years of experience" variable, did not produce generalizable results (Cohen, 1977).

#### Conclusions Drawn From The Findings For Question 3

The number of years that the population of principals had served in their present school districts was heavily skewed to the low tenure range. Two-thirds of the principals indicated that they had served in their present district for 10 years or less.

The relationship between the number of years Iowa secondary principals had served in their present districts and their perception of school management responsibilities was significant, however, a weak relationship,  $r = .20$ , appeared. The weak relationship, combined with the skewed nature of the "number of years serving present school district" variable, did not produce generalizable results (Cohen, 1977).

#### Conclusions Drawn From The Findings For Question 4

The sharing of superintendents between school districts is a recent endeavor for Iowa schools. The demographic data depicted almost three fourths of Iowa schools sharing superintendents had shared superintendents for 4 years or less. This is consistent to the statistics that Ghan (1990) provided which listed only five superintendents being shared as recently as the 1985-86 school year. The insignificant results that emerged from the study of this relationship were surely impacted by the lack of variance in the number of years that the districts had shared superintendents.

#### Limitations

The investigator identified respective limitations to the study. The study included a random sample of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents and all secondary principals serving shared superintendents in Iowa. Assistant superintendents, administrative assistants, and elementary principals were not included in the study. These three groups were not included even though their responsibility perceptions may have been affected by responsibilities delegated to them in districts with shared superintendents. The investigator only included a select population of Iowa public school secondary principals serving in school districts with fewer than 1000 students. The study was limited to the principals' honesty in their

responses; that principals would serve in various grade level arrangements; that the principals would have attained at least one year of experience; and that this modified instrument was imperfect, yet that it would portray the principals' perceived responsibilities accurately. The study was also limited to the period of time used to complete the survey and to obtain the data. Survey data were acquired in October and November of 1991.

The target populations were selected to maximize the number of subjects. The investigator targeted the entire population of secondary principals serving shared superintendents who met the qualifying criteria (99) as well as an equal number of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. The rate of response for the two populations was 95.4%.

#### Broad-Based Conclusions

This study originated from a question as to the effect that the practice of sharing superintendents between Iowa school districts had on responsibilities of secondary principals serving those shared superintendents. The literature suggested that delegation of responsibilities by the shared superintendents was to be expected and that principals were likely to be primary receivers of the delegated duties (Decker & McCumsey, 1990; Decker & Talbot, 1989; Sederberg, 1985).

The investigator envisioned the principals' jobs increasing in complexity. Shared superintendents, because of their inflated role, would delegate duties to the building principals. The investigator predicted that responsibility for the educational program, school personnel, community relations, day to day school management and reporting for the district would increase for the principals. This seemed logical when one considered the workload of regular superintendents serving only one school district and then compared that to the workload of those superintendents serving two districts. The investigator visualized the shared superintendent leading and directing staff and curricular development in two districts, administering two master contracts and meeting the needs of two districts' certified and noncertified staffs, becoming inundated with double the community responsibilities, and completing state and federal grants and reports twice. Needless to say, a superhuman effort would have been required to accomplish all of these things alone.

The investigator's dismal prestudy opinion of the effect of the shared superintendency on Iowa's schools was contained by the research design and therefore researcher bias was minimized. The results of this study are not conclusive but they do suggest brighter consequences of the

practice of sharing superintendents than the investigator had imagined.

Overall, it appears that superintendents in this study had been sensitive to the existing workload of their secondary principals. Personnel selection and evaluation responsibilities, however, were perceived significantly greater for Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents than for comparable principals serving nonshared superintendents. It may be concluded that secondary principals serving shared superintendents had greater responsibility for selecting and evaluating all school personnel.

The investigator does not view this as a negative. With the principals' added responsibilities emerged the freedom to make personnel decisions specific to the school setting and the needs of the organization. This is the essence of school based management; providing the principal and the professional staff extensive latitude in determining human resources (White, 1989). Sharing of superintendents may have facilitated the development of school based management in Iowa schools. It is conceivable that building principals, because of less superintendent interference, have been allowed greater responsibility and have been given more liberty in making important staffing decisions.

Disconcerting, however, is the potential for overworked principals serving shared superintendents to themselves delegate responsibilities to others. This may be concluded from the results of the study which portrayed principals who served shared superintendents perceiving less responsibility for providing student supervision and student services than principals who serving nonshared superintendents.

The investigator considers this scenario to be potentially detrimental to school operation. Supervision and guidance of students must be provided in an adequate fashion. Tremendous potential exists, however, for meeting student supervisory and student service needs. The staffs' shared commitments and shared efforts may be viewed by the students as a caring interest and have a nurturing effect. These are the important ingredients for a healthy school climate. Effective principals will recognize the potential for such staff involvement in student affairs and shift a potentially detrimental situation and into a positive one.

The significant difference in the perception of responsibility for professional preparation between secondary principals serving shared superintendents and secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents was encouraging. The principals somehow found the time to receive or participate in professional growth activities. It may be surmised that in shared superintendent districts,

time for professional preparation and growth had been provided to the principals or perhaps that the principals sacrificed in other areas of responsibility so as to make available the time to grow professionally.

The investigator perceived this as a directive to the administrator training institutions and to state organizations to provide inservice and training for this unique population of principals. Principals serving shared superintendents will likely have a broader range of responsibilities than their colleagues serving nonshared superintendents. Implications that these positions have for administrative preparatory programs are great. Most shared superintendents serve smaller Iowa school districts. These also represent the size of schools that inexperienced principals serve in their first principalship. The demographic make-up of the populations in the study vividly portrayed this. Institutions of higher learning must consider this in their programs' courses of study.

The relationships between the secondary principals' perceived responsibilities and the demographic data experience, tenure and length of time districts had shared superintendents; provided no consistent statistically significant insights to draw conclusions.

The investigator considered this to be a favorable portrayal of the total population of Iowa secondary

principals. This suggested that the principals performed their duties in a consistent manner; not dependent upon how long they had performed the duties nor where they had performed them. The similarity in perceptions of responsibility throughout the total secondary principal population suggested a commonality of effort. This investigator views such an outcome to be a healthy portrayal of the secondary principal population and to be positive for Iowa schools.

The degree of participation in the study by Iowa's secondary principals was highly commendable. This portrayed a group of individuals who contributed graciously to the body of knowledge which describes their professional responsibilities.

#### Recommendations For Future Studies

The shared superintendency represents a complicated innovation. When the chief executive officer of organizations have their jobs significantly changed the organization likewise should anticipate change. More research must be completed to provide a more vivid understanding of the impact that this position has had on Iowa schools.

1. Research should be performed on how this affects other professional and certified staff.



2. Research should be performed also on the perceptions of elementary principals serving shared superintendents and how the position has impacted their jobs.

3. Researchers may consider changing research designs on this topic to arrive at greater understanding. An interview or case study format would likely provide insights that were not captured in this study and could add greatly to the existing body of knowledge.

4. Research should be completed to determine if preparatory and inservice programs for school administrators meet the special needs of those principals who will serve or do serve shared superintendents.

The principalship consists of a wide blend of responsibilities. Though the job is seemingly varied, principals encounter tasks with great similarity. The call for reform, followed by the effort of schools to overhaul their delivery systems, generate an urgency to continue research on the principalship in this changing time. The need for such inquiry is conspicuous.

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Appendix A

Pilot: Letters of Transmittal



## INDEPENDENCE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

## Office of the Principal

500 Fifth Avenue Southeast  
Independence, Iowa 50644  
(319) 334-6093

Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Bruce Sperry  
Associate Principal

Date

Name  
Organization/Title  
Address  
City/State/Zip

Dear :

Enclosed is a survey instrument which will be used to elicit information about role responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals. The collected data will be used to compare the role responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals serving shared superintendents with the role responsibilities of Iowa secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. This doctoral dissertation study is under the guidance of Dr. Robert Decker and Dr. David Else at the University of Northern Iowa.

The instrument, "Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire," (Wilma F. Smith and Richard L. Andrews, 1989) was produced by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. ZBJAQ has been modified for this study creating validity concerns.

Revalidating the instrument involves collecting input from experts in secondary administration for its improvement. I would appreciate your suggestions.

The results from this study will have practical application for school administrator preparation and inservice as well as expanding the body of knowledge on the topic of the shared superintendency.

Your willingness to share your expertise on the topic of secondary administration will be deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Independence High School

## INDEPENDENCE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Office of the Principal

500 Fifth Avenue Southeast  
Independence, Iowa 50644  
(319) 334-6093

Dale Greimann  
Principal

Bruce Sperry  
Associate Principal

Date

Name  
School  
Address  
City/State/Zip

Dear Principal:

I am completing my work toward a doctorate in education in educational administration at the University of Northern Iowa under the guidance of Dr. Robert Decker and Dr. David Else. My dissertation involves the use of a survey instrument for gathering information from Iowa secondary principals. I need your help as an exemplary secondary principal to gain feedback about this instrument before its distribution.

I have enclosed a sample of the letter of communication and the survey document. Within the next several days please read the sample letter to obtain an understanding of the study and respond to the survey items. In doing so, look critically to decide if the items evoke what you feel I am seeking.

As you analyze the instrument, please do the following:

1. read the letter of communication to gain an understanding of the nature of the study;
2. note your starting time on the first page of the survey;
3. complete the survey as if you were a member of the sample, responding promptly with your initial reaction to the item;
4. note your completion time on the last page;
5. after noting your completion time, review the items for clarity and make any comments on the survey.

This is an extremely important component of the research process. I deeply appreciate your time and assistance. I've enclosed an addressed, stamped envelop for the return of the packet. Thank you!

Sincerely,

Dale Greimann

Appendix B

Survey: Letters of Transmittal

## INDEPENDENCE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

## Office of the Principal

500 Fifth Avenue Southeast  
Independence, Iowa 50644  
(319) 334-6093

Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Bruce Sperry  
Associate Principal

1 November, 1991

Dear Colleague:

In partial fulfillment in meeting the requirements of the Educational Doctorate Degree at the University of Northern Iowa, I am investigating the perceived responsibilities of secondary principals serving shared and nonshared superintendents. The study is being conducted under the direction of Dr. Robert Decker and Dr. David Else.

A recent trend in Iowa schools has been for school districts to share superintendents. For the 1991-92 school year 116 Iowa school districts are sharing superintendents. The purpose of this doctoral study is to compare the responsibilities of secondary principals serving shared superintendents with the responsibilities of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. The results from this study will have practical application for the preparation of and the inservicing of school administrators as well as expanding the body of knowledge on the topic of the shared superintendency.

In order to collect the necessary data for this project the enclosed survey was developed and field tested. Eighteen principals averaged slightly over 12 minutes when responding to the survey in the pilot study. You are now being asked to participate in this study. In return for your assistance I will make the conclusions and recommendations available to you.

Enclosed is a self-addressed, stamped envelope for the return of the completed survey. Please return the completed survey by 15 November, 1991. Your responses will remain anonymous and all data will be studied as group data. The surveys are numbered for follow-up purposes only.

Your willingness to participate in this timely research study is deeply appreciated! Please indicate by marking the box at the end of the instrument if you would like the results of this study.

Respectfully,



Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Independence High School

## INDEPENDENCE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

## Office of the Principal

500 Fifth Avenue Southeast  
Independence, Iowa 50644  
(319) 334-6093

Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Bruce Sperry  
Associate Principal

15 November, 1991

Dear Colleague:

Two weeks ago you should have received a survey investigating the responsibilities of secondary principals in Iowa. The purpose of this study is to compare the responsibilities of secondary principals serving shared superintendents with the responsibilities of secondary principals serving nonshared superintendents. At this time, your response has not been received. If you have already mailed your response, please accept my thanks and disregard this second mailing. If not, enclosed is another copy of the survey and a pre-addressed, stamped envelope.

To date, 150 of 198 principals surveyed have replied to the first mailing. This has been a commendable response, yet the study would benefit from an even broader range of input.

Your willingness to participate in this timely research study is deeply appreciated! Please return your response by **29 November, 1991**.

Respectfully,



Dale Greimann  
Principal  
Independence High School

### Appendix C

#### Original ASCD: Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire

- \* Numbers in the left margin indicate the responsibility category that the item has been taken from.
- \* Numbers in the right margin indicate the corresponding item on the survey instrument that was sent to the target populations of Iowa secondary principals.

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<b>Zero-Based Job Description</b>	<b>Rating Values</b>
(1) 1. Provides inservice training for teachers to increase their effectiveness.	<u>1</u>
(4) 2. Supervises job performance of custodial, secretarial, or other support staff.	<u>2</u>
(1) 3. Plans, develops, and implements a process for student, teacher, and parent involvement in determining curriculum goals and objectives.	<u>   </u>
(3) 4. Organizes community members to lobby for support for programs in which he/she/community have a special interest.	<u>   </u>
(7) 5. Meets with various parties involved (teachers, parents, students, and professional people) in accordance with legal requirements.	<u>   </u>
(3) 6. Communicates with the public concerning the nature and rationale of various school programs.	<u>3</u>
(5) 7. Organizes a system for dealing with discipline problems.	<u>4</u>
(5) 8. Exercises leadership role in developing mechanisms for integration of various cultural groups in the school.	<u>   </u>
(1) 9. Assigns teachers/professional staff to classes.	<u>   </u>
(7) 10. Establishes communication lines with other principals in the district.	<u>   </u>
(3) 11. Works with booster clubs to raise money for various school needs or activities.	<u>6</u>
(1) 12. Encourages and helps the faculty to develop innovative teaching methods.	<u>7</u>
(6) 13. Monitors disciplinary actions involving students to ensure due process is followed.	<u>   </u>
(4) 14. Reports to the district on nature and cleanliness of the building and its maintenance.	<u>   </u>
(4) 15. Sets standards; communicates and monitors standards for orderly maintenance of school facilities.	<u>8</u>
(5) 16. Develops standards, objectives, and procedures to maintain counseling services.	<u>9</u>
(6) 17. Selects and supervises safety patrols.	<u>   </u>
(4) 18. Monitors or oversees free-lunch program to ensure that appropriate students receive lunches.	<u>10</u>

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- (6) 19. Coordinates with local police to ensure smooth functioning of school, both during school hours and after school at extracurricular activities. 11
- (3) 20. Seeks to know the parents and to interpret the school's programs to them. 3
- (5) 21. Organizes activities and provides space for school psychologists, speech pathologists, and similar professionals.
- (4) 22. Follows established district procedures for selection of new maintenance staff members. 12
- (4) 23. Arranges transportation of students to extracurricular events. 13
- (3) 24. Helps the community raise money for the United Fund and other charitable or service organizations.
- (3) 25. Provides training for staff members to enable them to deal with parents and community.
- (3) 26. Responds to requests for input or ideas on various community programs and activities not directly involving the school. 17
- (6) 27. Determines, communicates, and maintains standards for participation in student activities. 14
- (1) 28. Determines student interest in new courses and encourages their development. 15
- (5) 29. Elicits student participation in student government. 16
- (3) 30. Participates in various community agencies and concerns—not solely academic (Kiwanis, churches, Chamber of Commerce, Lion's Club, senior citizens groups, etc.). 17
- (7) 31. Monitors the racial/sexual composition of student groups and the compliance of the school with the provisions of Title IX. 18
- (5) 32. Coordinates programs with various agencies—employing students in co-ops.
- (4) 33. Ensures that approved budget monies are received. 19
- (2) 34. Recruits applicants for staff positions. 20
- (4) 35. Responds to requests for information, paperwork, annual reports, etc., from district. 21



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- (5) 36. Strives to know and understand students and considers 22 requests.
- (6) 37. Approves, oversees, and works with student fundraising 23 efforts/exercises.
- (5) 38. Communicates with nurses, health officials, parents, \_\_\_\_\_ etc., so that students' special health problems (e.g., allergies, epilepsy) can be recognized.
- (6) 39. Reviews the number and nature of student activities \_\_\_\_\_ or establishes a system to review and eliminate or add activities.
- (1) 40. Organizes programs to evaluate students' competencies. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 41. Selects and assigns staff to direct extracurricular \_\_\_\_\_ activities.
- (4) 42. Monitors the expenditure of funds raised by booster \_\_\_\_\_ clubs, other community groups, or student activities.
- (1) 43. Sets up strategies to implement activities, priorities, and \_\_\_\_\_ programs set at the district level.
- (6) 44. Patrols parking lots. 24
- (4) 45. Maintains accessibility to students, parents, teachers, \_\_\_\_\_ and other groups interested in school activities.
- (4) 46. Provides teachers with uniform procedures for keeping 25 and reporting attendance.
- (1) 47. Helps staff members set professional goals. 26
- (5) 48. Solicits and coordinates parent volunteers and cooperation \_\_\_\_\_ in school committees, tutor pool, health services, etc., and other school activities.
- (4) 49. Meets with and informs parents and health officials re- \_\_\_\_\_ garding various school problems, including nutrition and immunizations.
- (1) 50. Implements and refines what is developed by central of- \_\_\_\_\_ fice in the area of curriculum.
- (2) 51. Establishes orientation for new teachers/staff. 27
- (7) 52. Seeks resource alternatives within and outside district if \_\_\_\_\_ original proposals are not accepted.
- (2) 53. Provides feedback to teachers concerning their perfor- \_\_\_\_\_ mance.
- (5) 54. Deals with conflicts that arise among teacher/student/ 28 parent/support-staff relationships.

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- (1) 55. Monitors the staff to determine the extent to which curriculum goals and objectives are being met. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) 56. Writes grant proposals to seek money from district, county, and federal sources. 29
- (4) 57. Schedules work hours of support staff. 30
- (5) 58. Sets up procedures to deal with ill or injured students. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 59. Encourages and secures parent involvement in student activities as participants and chaperones. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) 60. Elicits community sponsorship of school programs. 31
- (8) 61. Maintains current knowledge of union-management contracts in order to develop personnel policies consistent with their provisions. 32
- (6) 62. Supervises the lunchroom. 33
- (4) 63. Coordinates with district to procure equipment to render services for transportation needs. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 64. Meets with union officials as specified by union contract. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 65. Arranges to have parents called or otherwise notified when child is tardy or absent from school. 34
- (4) 66. Evaluates the job performance of custodial, secretarial, and other support staff members. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 67. Confers with other principals and/or district personnel to coordinate educational programs across schools. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) 68. Surveys various segments of the school to assess how individuals are perceived. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 69. Attempts to instill pride in school facilities and equipment to control vandalism. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) 70. Establishes procedure to use teacher aides and to evaluate them. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) 71. Attends district budgetary meetings and provides needed input. 36
- (8) 72. Keeps informed about new techniques (i.e., in computer technology, human relations) and how they might affect various staff elements, and encourages appropriate educational effort. 38
- (4) 73. Structures a cafeteria schedule and traffic flow chart. 37
- (3) 74. Responds to requests for information or help from various community groups, agencies, etc. \_\_\_\_\_

- 
- (4) 75. Requests and follows up requests for maintenance, repair, and equipment (people and material needed). \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 76. Accounts for and monitors expenditure of school funds in accordance with existing laws and regulations. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) 77. Oversees and contributes to newsletter for parents and public to keep them informed of school policies and activities. 39
- (2) 78. Provides feedback to custodial, secretarial, and other support staff about job performance. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 79. Defines and implements the objectives and standards for an effective library/media center. 40
- (3) 80. Conducts orientation session for parents; develops special programs for parents new to the school. 41
- (3) 81. Organizes community advisory groups consisting of parents, teachers, and administrators, and meets with them. 42
- (3) 82. Communicates priorities regarding resources and material to staff, community, and students. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 83. Coordinates with fire department and traffic personnel for smooth operation of school and provisions for emergencies. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) 84. Solicits substitute teachers and supervises their classes. 43
- (3) 85. Works to convince the community to pass bond issues. 44
- (4) 86. Provides information to financial auditors on expenditure of school funds. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 87. Encourages the staff to search for and implement new programs. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) 88. Encourages teachers to get certified in areas for which expertise is lacking. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 89. Develops and coordinates student activities (athletics, debates, etc.) with other schools in and out of the district. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) 90. Finds and develops programs to reduce absenteeism, tardiness, and/or behavioral problems. 45
- (6) 91. Counsels teachers, students, and the staff on personal problems and refers them to appropriate groups. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 92. Meets with leaders of student organizations. 46
- (1) 93. Seeks the input of local employers to make vocational programs sensitive to employers' needs. \_\_\_\_\_

- 
- (5) 94. Explains disciplinary code to students, parents, and the staff in accordance with student bill of rights. 47
- (6) 95. Provides for supervision at student activities. 48
- (6) 96. Provides resources and/or training to help the staff recognize and deal with student behavior problems.
- (4) 97. Writes faculty handbook to describe school policies, procedures, and attendance. 49
- (1) 98. Monitors and encourages individual student progress. 50
- (4) 99. Monitors keeping of records about students (i.e., medical needs, registration, tardiness, absenteeism, etc.). 51
- (5) 100. Elicits staff participation in extracurricular activities.
- (3) 101. Coordinates and oversees use of school facilities by community groups (i.e., church, recreation, or other purposes). 52
- (2) 102. Involves the current staff in the selection of new staff members. 53
- (3) 103. Ensures appropriate use of community agencies and refers students with special needs. 54
- (1) 104. Organizes bilingual curriculum for English-as-a-second-language students.
- (4) 105. Requests and pursues district or central resources for maintenance and repair of school plant.
- (4) 106. Explains reasons for district-level and federal rules and regulations to staff, students, and community.
- (6) 107. Supervises or provides for supervision of bus trips to special events or extracurricular activities.
- (1) 108. Reviews use of instructional materials (books, audiovisual equipment, etc.) in the school. 55
- (5) 109. Produces student handbook to explain students' rights and responsibilities.
- (3) 110. Develops relationships with local media to ensure exposure of school activities and needs. 56
- (1) 111. Evaluates curriculum in terms of objectives set by school or district.
- (3) 112. Develops communication channels for minorities to voice concerns.
- (5) 113. Trains and monitors students to keep them in line with the prescribed traffic and cafeteria flow charts.

- 
- (1) 114. Communicates the various roles of resource personnel (nurses, psychologists, curriculum experts, etc.) to the staff and the teachers. 57
- (4) 115. Involves professional and custodial staff members in school maintenance problems that affect them. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) 116. Interviews personnel to select people and/or provide input into the selection decision. \_\_\_\_\_
- (8) 117. Participates in professional growth activities: attends professional meetings, reads professional journals, takes classes, or attends seminars on relevant topics. 58
- (1) 118. Encourages involvement of the staff in professional organizations and supports involvement in workshops and classes. 59
- (7) 119. Serves on district-level curriculum and policy committees. 60
- (4) 120. Develops procedures for efficient office routine. 61
- (1) 121. Provides for meetings or training sessions in which people can share ideas they picked up from professional associations. \_\_\_\_\_
- (2) 122. Observes teachers' classroom performance for the purpose of evaluation and/or feedback to teacher. 62
- (4) 123. Develops a comprehensive plan for the orderly improvement of school plant, facilities, and equipment. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) 124. Provides structure for dialogue and cooperation between faculty and community groups. 63
- (3) 125. Prepares community for educational innovation. 64
- (4) 126. Involves staff and/or community in process to refine annual budget. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) 127. Confers with parents when they visit the school. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 128. Attends various student extracurricular events. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 129. Constructs a class schedule. 65
- (2) 130. Oversees the activities of the guidance counselor. 66
- (4) 131. Sets priorities for provisions of materials and resources according to financial limitations. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) 132. Evaluates new students to facilitate their integration into the school. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 133. Ensures that fire and tornado drills are carried out and reports their conduct to appropriate authorities. 67

- 
- (4) 134. Supervises ordering, receipt, and distribution of supplies. 68
- (3) 135. Attends parent-teacher organization meetings and other-wise supports similar groups. 69
- (5) 136. Establishes orientation activities for incoming students. 70
- (7) 137. Confers with district to determine how best to fulfill legal requirements of various programs. \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) 138. Exercises responsibility for teacher and parent meetings when a parent requests such a meeting. 71
- (4) 139. Monitors the enforcement of various health regulations involving immunizations, health standards in cafeteria, etc. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 140. Supervises the transportation of students. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 141. Meets with faculty representatives to discuss faculty problems. 72
- (3) 142. Writes and/or presents reports of school activities to community groups. 73
- (1) 143. Teaches class to serve as a model. 74
- (1) 144. Reviews and monitors educational programs to ensure that they meet various students' needs. 75
- (6) 145. Confers with coaches and other activity leaders to ensure space, time, and resource requirements for various activities. \_\_\_\_\_
- (7) 146. Coordinates testing programs required by the state or otherwise requested of the school. 76
- (3) 147. Establishes procedures and techniques for adequate plant security. \_\_\_\_\_
- (4) 148. Assesses physical plant and equipment needs in terms of school goals and objectives. \_\_\_\_\_
- (6) 149. Trains student leaders to be more effective student leaders. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 150. Meets with other colleagues to discuss problems, their solutions, and new developments in education. 77
- (6) 151. Plans student assemblies and cultural productions. \_\_\_\_\_
- (1) 152. Coordinates with local vocational education groups for cooperative programs. \_\_\_\_\_
- (5) 153. Meets with students to explain academic requirements and availability of various programs. \_\_\_\_\_

- 
- (3) 154. Informs parents of any disciplinary action involving students. —
- (7) 155. Defends budget needs to Board of Education or district personnel. —
- (5) 156. Implements program to provide additional instruction to students who do not pass minimal competency tests. —
- (5) 157. Resolves conflicts in class schedules; works with data processing and teachers to effect solutions. 78
- (6) 158. Authorizes and supervises field trips. —
- (6) 159. Attends banquets or special events to honor outstanding students and/or athletes. —
- (3) 160. Works with community to develop student activities. —
-

**Appendix D**  
**Zero Base Job Description Categories**



## ZERO-BASED JOB DESCRIPTION SCORE SHEET

CATEGORIES	Column N Task Count for Self	Column P Percentage of Time Commitment
1. Educational Program Improvement (the principal's role in academic matters, inservice programs, program evaluation, and curriculum appraisal)	_____	_____ %
2. Personnel Selection and Evaluation (the principal's role in the selection, improvement, and evaluation of certified and classified staff)	_____	_____ %
3. Community Relations (the principal's role in community activities, communication with parents, and the interpretation of the school to the community)	_____	_____ %
4. School Management (the principal's role in use and maintenance of facilities, record keeping, relations with the custodial staff, school supplies, and school budget)	_____	_____ %
5. Student Services (the principal's role in working with counselors, psychologists, student government, student discipline, and student counseling)	_____	_____ %
6. Supervision of Students (the principal's role in supervising halls, lunchroom, bus loading, playground, student activities and athletic events)	_____	_____ %
7. District, State, and Federal Coordination (the principal's role in completing district, state, and federal reports; attending meetings; and facilitating communication among these groups)	_____	_____ %
8. Professional Preparation (the principal's role in professional organizations; reading professional journals; and attending workshops, classes, and other professional growth activities)	_____	_____ %
TOTAL	_____	100%

NEW SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE - items are placed in their respective categories.

**Educational Program Improvement**

1, 5, 7, 15, 26, 40, 50, 55, 57, 59, 72, 74, 75, 77

**Personnel Selection and Evaluation**

20, 27, 35, 43, 53, 62, 66

**Community Relations**

3, 6, 17, 31, 39, 41, 42, 44, 52, 54, 56, 63, 64, 69, 71, 73

**School Management**

2, 8, 10, 12, 13, 19, 21, 25, 30, 34, 37, 51, 61, 65, 67, 68, 80

**Student Services**

4, 9, 16, 22, 28, 45, 47, 70, 78

**Supervision of Students**

11, 14, 23, 24, 33, 46, 48, 79

**District, State, and Federal Coordination**

18, 29, 36, 60, 76

**Professional Preparation**

32, 38, 58

## Appendix E

Survey Instrument: Secondary Principals' Perceived  
Responsibility Questionnaire

Smith, W., & Andrews, R. (1989). "Zero Based Analysis  
Questionnaire, Instructional leadership: How principals  
make a difference. Alexandria, VA: Association for  
Supervision and Curriculum Development, (modified  
version).

**DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF IOWA SECONDARY PRINCIPALS**

**DIRECTIONS: PLEASE RESPOND WITH INFORMATION THAT IS MOST ACCURATE FOR YOUR ADMINISTRATIVE POSITION:**

1. Are you a secondary principal? (01) Yes (02) No (If No, STOP! Place in envelope and return to sender!)
2. How many years have you served as a secondary principal, including this year? \_\_\_\_\_ (If you answered 1 year, STOP! Return to sender!)
3. How many years have you served as a secondary principal in your present district, including this year? \_\_\_\_\_
4. For what grade levels are you responsible? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Does your district share a superintendent? (01) Yes (02) No
6. How long has your district shared a superintendent including this year?  
(Leave blank if NO was your response for item #5.)  
  
(01) One year (04) Four years  
(02) Two years (05) Five years  
(03) Three years (06) More than five years
7. What is your gender? (01) Male (02) Female

**SECONDARY PRINCIPALS' PERCEIVED RESPONSIBILITY QUESTIONNAIRE**

**PLEASE RESPOND BY CIRCLING WHOLE RESPONSES AS THE FOLLOWING:**

- A. Circle 25, 50, or 75 to indicate the percentage that most accurately describes your perceived degree of responsibility for the prescribed task.
- B. Circle 0 if you perceive no responsibility for the prescribed task.
- C. Circle 100 if you perceive full responsibility for the prescribed task.

	PERCENTAGE OF PERCEIVED RESPONSIBILITY				
	<u>NONE</u>				<u>FULL</u>
1. Providing inservice training for teachers to increase their effectiveness.	0	25	50	75	100
2. Supervising job performance of support staff.	0	25	50	75	100
3. Communicating and interpreting school programs to the public.	0	25	50	75	100
4. Organizing a system for dealing with discipline problems.	0	25	50	75	100
5. Assigning teachers/professional staff to classes.	0	25	50	75	100
6. Working with booster clubs to raise money for various school needs or activities.	0	25	50	75	100
7. Informing and encouraging the faculty to develop innovative teaching methods.	0	25	50	75	100
8. Overseeing maintenance and repair of school equipment and facilities.	0	25	50	75	100
9. Developing standards, objectives, and procedures to maintain counseling services.	0	25	50	75	100
10. Overseeing free-lunch program to ensure that appropriate students receive lunches.	0	25	50	75	100
11. Coordinating with police to ensure smooth functioning of activities after school.	0	25	50	75	100
12. Following district procedures for selection of new support staff members.	0	25	50	75	100
13. Arranging transportation of students in all school situations.	0	25	50	75	100
14. Maintaining good conduct standards for participation in student activities.	0	25	50	75	100
15. Encouraging development and staff implementation of new courses.	0	25	50	75	100
16. Eliciting student participation in student government.	0	25	50	75	100
17. Participating in community service organizations and providing information about school programs.	0	25	50	75	100
18. Monitoring the racial/sexual composition of student groups.	0	25	50	75	100

	PERCENTAGE OF PERCEIVED RESPONSIBILITY				
	NONE				FULL
19. Ensuring that approved budget monies are received and spent appropriately.	0	25	50	75	100
20. Recruiting applicants for staff positions.	0	25	50	75	100
21. Reporting for the district when requests for information come from local, state, or federal level.	0	25	50	75	100
22. Using knowledge of students' behavior to consider their requests.	0	25	50	75	100
23. Overseeing student fundraising efforts.	0	25	50	75	100
24. Supervising the parking lots.	0	25	50	75	100
25. Providing teachers with uniform procedures for keeping and reporting attendance.	0	25	50	75	100
26. Helping faculty set professional goals.	0	25	50	75	100
27. Orienting new staff members.	0	25	50	75	100
28. Dealing with conflicts that arise between students/parents and teachers.	0	25	50	75	100
29. Writing grant proposals to seek money for programs.	0	25	50	75	100
30. Scheduling work hours of support staff.	0	25	50	75	100
31. Eliciting community sponsorship of school programs.	0	25	50	75	100
32. Maintaining current knowledge of master contracts for personnel procedures.	0	25	50	75	100
33. Supervising the lunchroom.	0	25	50	75	100
34. Arranging to notify parents when their child is absent from school.	0	25	50	75	100
35. Controlling vandalism by instilling pride in school facilities and equipment.	0	25	50	75	100
36. Attending district budgetary meetings and providing input to the Board of Education.	0	25	50	75	100
37. Structuring a cafeteria schedule and traffic flow chart.	0	25	50	75	100
38. Keeping informed about new staff development techniques.	0	25	50	75	100
39. Overseeing the school calendar and newsletter.	0	25	50	75	100
40. Defining and implementing the objectives of an effective library/media center.	0	25	50	75	100
41. Conducting orientation sessions for parents.	0	25	50	75	100
42. Organizing meetings with community advisory groups.	0	25	50	75	100
43. Soliciting substitute teachers and monitoring their classes.	0	25	50	75	100
44. Working to convince the public to pass bond issues or financial support referendums.	0	25	50	75	100
45. Developing programs to reduce absenteeism and tardiness.	0	25	50	75	100
46. Meeting with leaders of student organizations.	0	25	50	75	100
47. Applying student rights in explaining disciplinary codes to students and adults.	0	25	50	75	100
48. Supervising student activities.	0	25	50	75	100
49. Writing faculty handbook to describe school policies and procedures.	0	25	50	75	100
50. Monitoring and encouraging student progress.	0	25	50	75	100
51. Monitoring and keeping of student records.	0	25	50	75	100

	PERCENTAGE OF PERCEIVED RESPONSIBILITY				
	NONE				FULL
53. Involving the faculty in the selection of new staff members.	0	25	50	75	100
54. Referring special needs students to community agencies.	0	25	50	75	100
55. Reviewing the use of instructional materials in the school.	0	25	50	75	100
56. Exposing school activities and needs to the local media.	0	25	50	75	100
57. Communicating the roles of special needs staff to the rest of the faculty.	0	25	50	75	100
58. Growing professionally by attending meetings, reading professional journals, etc.	0	25	50	75	100
59. Encouraging staff involvement in professional organizations and staff development.	0	25	50	75	100
60. Serving on district-level committees to determine how to best meet state standards.	0	25	50	75	100
61. Developing procedures for efficient office routines.	0	25	50	75	100
62. Evaluating teachers' classroom performance and providing feedback to the teachers.	0	25	50	75	100
63. Providing structure for dialogue and cooperation between faculty and the public.	0	25	50	75	100
64. Preparing the community for educational innovations.	0	25	50	75	100
65. Constructing a class schedule.	0	25	50	75	100
66. Overseeing the work of the guidance counselor.	0	25	50	75	100
67. Ensuring the implementation and reporting of fire and tornado drills.	0	25	50	75	100
68. Supervising, receiving, and distributing supplies.	0	25	50	75	100
69. Attending parent-teacher organization meetings.	0	25	50	75	100
70. Establishing orientation activities for new students.	0	25	50	75	100
71. Exercising responsibility for parent requested meetings with teachers.	0	25	50	75	100
72. Meeting with staff representatives to discuss faculty problems.	0	25	50	75	100
73. Writing and/or presenting reports of school activities to community groups.	0	25	50	75	100
74. Modeling effective teaching practices.	0	25	50	75	100
75. Ensuring educational programs meet various students' needs.	0	25	50	75	100
76. Coordinating school sanctioned testing programs.	0	25	50	75	100
77. Meeting with colleagues to discuss new developments in education.	0	25	50	75	100
78. Resolving conflicts in class schedules.	0	25	50	75	100
79. Monitoring hallways to prevent disruptions of the learning environment.	0	25	50	75	100
80. Making decisions on the cancellation or the postponement of school and school activities due to inclement weather.	0	25	50	75	100

Appendix F

Letter of Permission: ASCD

# EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Journal of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

May 8, 1991

Mr. Dale E. Greimann, Principal  
Independence High School  
500 Fifth Ave, SE  
Independence, IA 50644

Dear Mr. Greimann:

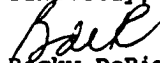
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We appreciate your interest in ASCD publications.

Sincerely,



Becky DeRigge  
Administrative Assistant  
Publications Department

\*Smith, Wilma F. and Richard L. Andrews (1989). "Zero-Based Job Analysis Questionnaire," Instructional Leadership: How Principals Make a Difference (modified version)

Ronald S. Brandt, Executive Editor  
1250 N. Pitt Street, Alexandria, VA 22314-1403