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Darrell D. Druvenga
University of Northern Iowa

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A comparison of principals' and teachers' perceptions of administrative performance in Iowa senior high schools

Druvenga, Darrell D., Ed.D.

University of Northern Iowa, 1987

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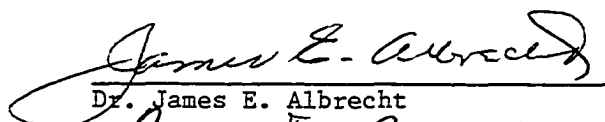A COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE

IN IOWA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Approved:

Dr. James E. Albrecht

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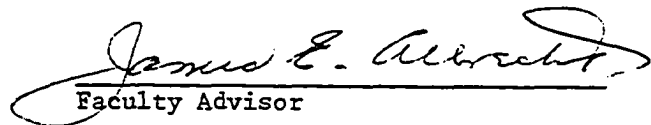
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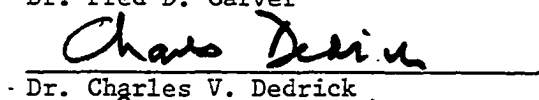University of Northern Iowa

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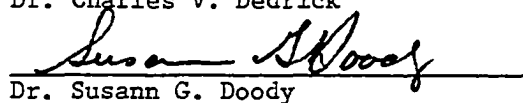
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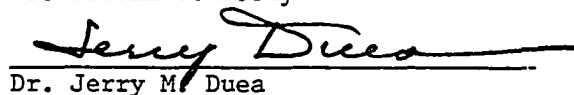
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Doctor of Education

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December 1987

ABSTRACT

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The study utilized the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument to assess perceptions of administrative performance. The instrument is produced by Human Synergistics, an international management consulting firm, under a grant from the Danforth Foundation.

A total of 566 individual assessments were included in the study. Completed survey instruments were received from 96 senior high school principals in Iowa, and from 470 teachers.

The chi-square test of independence was used to determine if significant differences at the .05 level existed between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the 11 categories contained on the EAEP instrument. Significant differences were evident between principals' and teachers' perceptions of principal performance in 10 of the 11 categories.

In order to determine the relationship between principals' willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 categories of the EAEP instrument, rank order correlations were calculated for each

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principal. These correlations were transformed using Fisher's

Logarithmic Transformation of r. This transformation resulted in a z

score of 1.1473, which is lower that the critical z value at the .05

level of significance (1.96). Therefore, the researcher concluded that

there is no relationship between a measure of principal's willingness to

participate in in-service programs and the assessments principals make

of their administrative performance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to formally express my appreciation to the members of my dissertation committee. Special thanks are reserved for Dr. James Albrecht, chairman of my dissertation committee, for the many hours he devoted to assisting me with this project, and to Dr. Fred D. Carver, co-chairman, for his assistance and guidance. I also express my gratitude to the other dissertation committee members, Dr. Charles Dedrick, Dr. Susann Doody, and Dr. Jerry Duea, for their support and encouragement. Special recognition is reserved for my parents, Joseph and Alice Druvenga, who have instilled in me a desire to learn, and have helped me understand more fully that the learning of learners never ends.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The early years of the 1980s have seen many individuals and organizations call for educational reform. The writings of Goodlad, Boyer and Sizer are often cited as examples of what must be done to improve American education. In addition, specific recommendations from several state and national reports on educational reform have been used by state legislators and local school boards to guide school districts in a search for "excellence in education." Some of the recommendations frequently mentioned include strengthening local graduation requirements, adopting more rigorous and measurable standards in schools, raising expectations for academic performance, or increasing the time devoted to learn what are referred to as "the new basics."

It is important to realize, however, that several of the specific recommendations have been ignored, or at the least, given less priority. One such recommendation deals with the need to provide for the professional development of school administrators. The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) stated:

> Principals and superintendents must play a crucial leadership role in developing school and community support for the reforms we propose, and school boards must provide them with the professional development and other support required to carry out their leadership role effectively. (p. 32)

Similarly, Ernest Boyer (1983) in his book entitled <u>High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America</u>, recommended:

> Rebuilding excellence in education means reaffirming the importance of the local school and freeing leadership to lead. In order to stay in touch with the latest developments in education, a network of Academies for Principals should be established. (p. 315)

In Iowa, the State Legislature created a special subcommittee to evaluate the status of education in the state. The Teaching Quality Subcommittee Report of the Iowa Legislative Council (1983) concluded:

> The rapidly expanding body of educational research makes it necessary for educators to continually upgrade their knowledge and skills if they are to remain current with new research findings and innovations in the field.
>
> The Subcommittee recommends that the Legislature provide the funds necessary for the Department of Public Instruction to develop a comprehensive program for providing training to Iowa's administrators, consultants, coordinators, and in-service directors on effective techniques and theory of planning and implementing change for staff development. (pp. 34-35)

In response to The Teaching Quality Subcommittee Report, the 1985 Iowa Legislature mandated the Iowa Department of Education to plan and implement a professional development program for school administrators. All administrative certificates and endorsements are now limited to five years, and the completion of a Department of Education-approved development program is required for renewal of administrative endorsements and certificates.

Interestingly, two recent studies have suggested that school administrators do not presently devote adequate time to their own professional growth and development. In a survey of Iowa school administrators conducted by the Educational Administrators of Iowa in 1985, principals were asked to rank order various administrative activities in terms of how they actually spent their time. From a list of ten specific administrative activities, professional growth and development was ranked last by a substantial margin. These results in Iowa were similar to findings in a national survey of school administrators conducted by McCleary in 1981, which also rated

principals' professional growth and development <u>last</u> among various administrative activities.

Recently, several efforts have been undertaken to determine how <u>best</u> to address the professional development needs of school administrators. Special attempts have been made by national professional organizations such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the American Association of School Administrators to offer conferences and workshops aimed at school administrators. Likewise, several major colleges and universities have established Principals' Centers to provide professional development opportunities. According to recent statistics, this approach has been adopted in at least 28 states since 1980 alone (Van Loon & Ver Bryck, 1985). Other colleges, universities, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals have made use of the Assessment Center concept to help assess the skills and aptitudes of potential school administrators.

It is clear from these examples that principals' self-assessment of in-service needs play an important role in current administrator professional development. Self-assessment is an important component of the Principals' Center concept, the Principals' Academy concept, and in administrator attendance and participation in conferences and workshops offered by the various professional organizations.

Similarly, much of current principals' professional development is based on skills and behaviors that have been identified by practicing administrators and administrator-preparation institutions. For example, the Assessment Center of the National Association of Secondary School

Principals has identified 12 specific skill dimensions as those most critical for successful school administration (Jeswald, 1977). These 12 specific skills are evaluated for each participant during a formal session in an Assessment Center.

Several authors have suggested, however, that a more appropriate method of analyzing administrators' professional development would be to give consideration to the problems and concerns of the "client system." The client system refers to the staff members with whom the administrator works. Sommerville (1976) described this approach:

> Most leadership in-service education activities I've experienced as a participant, focus on specific information, skills, and techniques one may use. Success is measured by feedback--often verbal--received from participating administrators. A very, very few have attempted to assess effectiveness of the program through communication with those who are the ultimate focus of the in-service activity--the subordinates of the participants.
>   The relationship between the in-service activities and the group served by the administrator must be one in which the reactions of the client system--the group, school or other institution under the leadership of the participant--influences, if not determines, the nature of leadership training. (pp. 2-3)

Similarly, Bailey (1984) endorsed the use of the client system as a means for school administrators to assess individual performance. Bailey preferred, however, to utilize the term faculty feedback which he defined as "the process of gathering information from faculty members for the purpose of improving leadership or administrative practices" (p. 5).

Need for the Study

The importance of giving consideration to the problems and concerns of the client system when planning for the professional development of school administrators has been emphasized recently in several prominent

publications. In 1986, for example, the National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary School Principals issued a joint publication entitled, <u>Ventures in Good Schooling: A Cooperative Model for a Successful Secondary School</u> (1986). The publication contained descriptions of specific practices that were common in effective schools, and emphasized the importance of teachers and principals engaging in cooperative actions at the school site. It was noted that in successful secondary schools, principals and teachers not only worked together to identify and plan professional development activities, but principals actively sought feedback from teachers about their own specific administrative performance (p. 23).

In 1987, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development also emphasized the importance of giving consideration to the unique problems and concerns of the client system. The Yearbook, <u>Leadership: Examining the Elusive</u>, encouraged principals to give careful attention to the school culture that is shared by students, teachers and administrators. Specifically, Guild (1987) stressed the importance of giving consideration to the impact that administrative performance could have on teachers and students. Guild stated:

> While I may see myself as thorough, careful, and attentive to detail, someone else may see exactly the same behavior as petty and rigid. While I may see myself as creative, enthusiastic, and a long-term planner, someone else may see me as impractical, a daydreamer, and careless. <u>Being aware of the potential impact I have on others can be an extremely important quality in working effectively with other people.</u> (p. 87) [Emphasis Added]

In that same year, Andrews and Soder (1987) described the findings of a two-year study concerning the importance of principal leadership behavior in schools. One of the interesting implications of their study

was that faculty can serve as a valuable resource in helping administrators assess their performance. Andrews and Soder concluded that "there has been a general reluctance to acknowledge the usefulness of teachers' observations of principals. Our findings tend to confirm what common sense has long since suggested: teachers are a legitimate source of data regarding principal behaviors" (p. 11).

Fraser (1980) even suggested that specific benefits would result if school administrators attempted to determine teacher attitudes toward administrative supervisory behavior. According to Fraser, not only would administrators be better able to focus on specific behaviors that could be addressed through professional development, but teachers' satisfaction would increase as a result of being able to share their perceptions of administrative supervisory behavior (p. 231). Both benefits are needed in schools today.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to determine if the perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals and those of their teachers differed significantly when applied to 11 categories of administrative performance. This study included a self-assessment of individual performance by each participating senior high school principal and feedback from five of the principal's faculty members who were familiar with each principals' administrative performance. This study utilized the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument to assess perceptions of administrative performance. The instrument is produced and marketed by Human Synergistics of Plymouth, Michigan. As two authors of the EAEP (Miller & Ruderman, 1985) stated:

Diagnosing administrators' professional growth needs and providing accurate feedback about the person's own view of his/her skills and that of others is an important first step in promoting professional growth. It is the starting place for improvement because the areas requiring attention have been specifically identified and communicated in a manner that is non-threatening. (p. 57)

The differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the 11 categories contained on the EAEP instrument were analyzed. In addition, the relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories assessed on the EAEP was also determined. Consideration was given to the implications of these principals' and teachers' perceptions for principals' professional development.

Objectives

In this study, an assessment of the perceptions of administrative performance of Iowa senior high school principals was conducted. The major objectives of the study were:

1. To compare principals' and teachers' perceptions of principal performance as measured by the EAEP instrument.

2. To determine the self-perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals regarding their administrative performance as measured on the EAEP instrument.

3. To determine if a relationship exists between principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/ behavior categories of the EAEP instrument.

4. To consider the implications these perceptions and differences have for principal beliefs about their own professional development.

Research Hypotheses

Twelve specific research hypotheses were tested in the study:

1. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Setting Goals and Objectives" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

2. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Planning" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

3. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Making Decisions and Solving Problems" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

4. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

5. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Assessing Progress" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

6. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Delegating Responsibilities" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

7. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Communicating" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

8. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Building and Maintaining Relationships" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

9. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

10. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Improving Instruction" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

11. There is a difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill area of "Developing Staff" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

12. There is a relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in eleven hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in each of the eleven skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument.

Assumptions

The first assumption of the study was that all respondents—senior high school principals as well as faculty participants—would provide honest responses to the questions contained on the instrument. It was also assumed that the faculty members selected by the principal to participate in the study would have good knowledge of their principal's administrative performance and be able to make objective assessments of that performance.

Limitations

The population of this study was limited to senior high school principals in Iowa. No attempt was made to include principals who had administrative responsibility for other grade organizational patterns (for example, Grades 7-12 or Grades 8-12). Likewise, the study included only public school principals. No effort was made to include principals who served non-public schools.

It was understood that the time required to complete the questionnaires and to make the necessary arrangements for faculty participation was considerable. The time factor and the length of the survey instruments may have resulted in some principals choosing not to participate in the study. As a result, this may have influenced the generalizability of the findings.

Definition of Terms

Faculty Feedback

"The process of gathering information from faculty members for the purpose of improving leadership or administrative practice" (Bailey, 1984, p. 5).

Feedback

"A non-evaluative perception and interpretation of an individual's behavior as it affects the person who receives it" (Havelock, 1973, p. 169).

Professional Development

"The totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute toward an individual's being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role" (Dale, 1982, p.31). In the professional

literature, the term was used interchangeably with in-service, staff development, or professional continuing education.

Senior High School

For the purpose of this study, a general term for a school having an organizational structure containing Grades 9-12 or Grades 10-12.

Senior High School Principal

For the purpose of this study, those school administrators who carry the title of principal and have administrative responsibility for Grades 9-12 or Grades 10-12 in their respective schools.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A variety of terminology was utilized in the literature to describe efforts directed toward the professional development of educators. Some authors used the terms "in-service education" or "professional development"; other authors used terms such as "staff development" or "professional continuing education." In most cases, the terms were used interchangeably.

Dale (1982) contended, however, that important distinctions do exist among the various terms and that these distinctions should not be overlooked. Dale defined staff development as "the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute toward an individual's being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role" (p. 31). Conversely, Dale defined in-service education as "but one of the several functions of staff development" (p. 31)--along with the other components of staff development such as consultation, communication, leadership, and evaluation.

Fielding and Schalock (1985) also suggested that it was appropriate to distinguish between the terms "professional development" and "staff development." They stated: "We generally prefer to use the term professional development rather than the more common term staff development because the former highlights the status of educators as professionals, rather than employees" (p. 5).

While minor differences existed in trying to adequately define what was meant by each of the respective terms, there seemed to be consensus regarding the purpose of any development effort. Rebore (1982)

asserted: "The primary purpose of a staff development program is to increase the knowledge and skills of employees and thereby increase the potential of the school district to attain its goals and objectives" (p. 171). Griffin (1983) defined professional development as an effort to "alter the professional practices, beliefs, and understandings of school persons toward an articulated end" (p. 2). Olivero (1982) saw the primary purpose of administrator development as an attempt to "increase professional and personal effectiveness while simultaneously increasing organizational effectiveness" (p. 341).

There also appeared to be general agreement regarding the characteristics that effective professional development should possess. Wood, Thompson and Russell (1981) conducted a comprehensive, nation-wide study of the professional development opportunities available to educators. This study resulted in a list of 11 basic assumptions which underlie effective staff development programs in education. The assumptions were:

1. All personnel in schools, to stay current and effective, need and should be involved in in-service throughout their careers.

2. Significant improvement in educational practice takes considerable time and is the result of systematic, long-range staff development.

3. In-service education should have an impact on the quality of the school program and focus on helping staff improve their abilities to perform their professional responsibilities.

4. Adult learners are motivated to risk learning new behaviors when they believe they have control over the learning situation and are free from threat or failure.

5. Educators vary widely in their professional competencies, readiness, and approaches to learning.

6. Professional growth requires personal and group commitment to new performance norms.

7. Organizational health including factors such as social climate, trust, open communication, and peer support for change in practice influence the success of professional development programs.

8. The school is the primary unit of change, not the district or the individual.

9. School districts have the primary responsibility for providing the resources and training necessary for a school staff to implement new programs and improve instruction.

10. The school principal is the gatekeeper for adoption and continued use of new practices and programs in a school.

11. Effective in-service programs must be based upon research, theory, and the best educational practice. (pp. 61-63)

It seems appropriate to give serious consideration to these eleven assumptions whenever professional development activities are considered in education--whether it be for school administrators or teachers.

Reactions to Typical In-Service Efforts

Several authors were critical of existing efforts to address the professional development of school administrators. Interestingly, most of the criticisms were based on perceived violations that had been made of the basic assumptions of effective staff development presented above. As a result, many authors offered specific suggestions regarding what must be done to improve these efforts. One suggestion dealt with the need for school administrators to play a much more active role in planning their own professional development (Barth, 1980a, 1985b, 1986; Carmichael, 1982; McIntyre, 1979).

In the past, the typical pattern of professional development was for central office personnel to decide when, where, and if professional

development was appropriate for school district administrators.
Generally, the central office decided what topics needed to be addressed
through the professional development effort. This pattern of planning
for professional development was openly criticized in the literature.

Barth (1980a, 1984) emphasized that it was the responsibility of
the principal—not the superintendent—to identify prospective areas of
principal professional development. Similarly, McIntyre (1979) related
that one recommendation he received from interviewing "sixty of the most
effective senior high school principals in the United States," dealt
with this issue. McIntyre stated, "The gist of their comments was that
principals should have a big hand in planning and conducting their own
programs" (p. 32).

Many of the authors agreed that it was very important to actively
involve principals in planning and managing their own professional
development efforts. When adult learners are actively involved in
planning their own development programs, the effort will be more
meaningful and end in more positive results. As Hersey and Blanchard
(1980) stated:

> Research indicates that commitment increases when a person is
> involved in his own goal setting . . . . On the other hand, if the
> boss sets the goal for him, he is apt to give up more easily
> because he perceives these as his boss's goals and not as his own.
> (p. 90)

A second concern regarding professional development efforts was
that, at the present time, superintendents and boards of education do
not show the necessary support and endorsement for these efforts
(Ehrgott, 1979; Fielding & Schalock, 1985; Mangers, 1979; Olivero,
1982). Strong, enthusiastic support for principal professional

development efforts by superintendents and boards of education is mandatory in order for these efforts to be meaningful.

Vann's study (1979) showed how influential central office administrators can be in regard to principal's actions. His study revealed that "principals allocated their time to virtually all functions according to the priority of those functions they perceived to be held by their superiors" (p. 405). Consequently, if professional growth and development efforts were held in high regard by superintendents and boards of education, they also tended to be held in high regard by school principals. At a minimum, adequate resources and released time need to be provided to encourage these efforts.

A third concern that was frequently cited concerned the need for professional development to provide an opportunity for a collegial network of administrators to develop. The goal of such a network is to provide administrators with an opportunity to share mutual problems and concerns (Barth & Deal, 1982; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; LaPlant, 1986; Long, 1985; Pitner & Auty, 1985; Wimpelberg, 1986).

The literature strongly suggested that school administration could be a lonely job; many principals have reported that they feel isolated from their peers. In most cases, school administrators worked alone and seldom had an opportunity to observe other administrators perform their duties. Barth and Deal (1982) described the principals' position as "being caught between administrators above and teachers below—as well as parents and community outside the school" (p. 30). In addition, Barth and Deal related that principals do not speak with colleagues

regularly, and are unlikely to spend time reflecting on the job they are called upon to do.

In an effort to better understand the frustrations and concerns of practicing school administrators, Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) interviewed several school principals when writing their well-known book entitled, The Effective Principal. Again, principals expressed a real need for higher-quality interactions with colleagues. These interactions were seen as "a critical factor related to their general level of motivation and psychological health. The lack of having someone to talk to who experiences similar problems was, indeed, seen as a major frustration" (p. 255).

Recognizing this virtual isolation of principals, the Instructional Management Program of the Far West Laboratory for Education Research and Development in San Francisco offered its own unique solution. Long (1985) described how the Far West Laboratory had produced two publications that provided useful information for principals and encouraged practicing principals to share information. The two publications, one for elementary administrators and one for secondary administrators, are entitled, The Principals' Yellow Pages: Solutions to Common Instructional Management Problems. Principals were encouraged to call or write to the principal listed in the Yellow Pages to obtain new information or share some of his/her expertise. According to Long, the publications served at least three specific functions. The publications suggested a variety of tested, practical solutions to common administrative problems, they encouraged principals to interact

with one another, and they allowed principals to recognize that other administrators faced similar problems (p. 575).

The opportunity to establish a collegial network of school administrators is obviously helpful in searching for solutions to mutual problems. There are other definite advantages, as well. As Pitner and Auty (1985) stated: "Solutions to problems are not the sole benefits of collegial interactions. Perhaps just knowing a problem is shared, but not solved, in another district is reinforcing to school administrators" (p. 16). Any well-conceived professional development program for school principals will give consideration to the issue of networking.

Two related areas of concern expressed in the literature were that present professional development programs were not done on a systematic basis and did not call for principals to apply new-gained knowledge and skill in their own school settings (Biles, 1979; Ehrgott, 1979; Gemar, 1979; Hord & Huling-Austin, 1985). Ehrgott (1979) addressed these issues by stating that for professional development to bring about real change in educational settings, it was necessary for the programs to be both systematic and on-going. He related that even though "one-shot" workshops may be fun to attend, they seldom bring about real change in educational settings. Instead, in-service programs that are planned on an "input-practice-application" cycle result in the acquisition of new skills (p. 9). Fielding and Schalock (1985) concurred:

> In-service training for principals has been characterized as a hodgepodge of 'quick fix' sessions designed to deal with discrete topics like handling stress and using microcomputers. Such topics are not unimportant, but they seldom represent the type of comprehensive professional development programs that are likely to increase substantially a principal's effectiveness. (p. 14)

Not only must administrators apply their new-gained skills in their respective settings, but it is also important to understand that change takes time to implement. Hord and Huling-Austin (1985) emphasized that all learning is incremental and that it was necessary to allow time for administrators to practice the new skills between training sessions. They stated, "It is tempting to believe that administrators can immediately implement a new role and use new tools that at first glance appear deceptively simple . . . . Administrators should not be expected to change their own administrative practice overnight" (p. 11). For professional development to be meaningful, principals must be given adequate time and opportunity to make application of new-gained knowledge and skill in their own unique school settings.

Still another area of concern is that existing professional development activities have not been available to all school administrators equally (Costa, 1979a, 1979b; Nudson & DeVries, 1979; Olivero, 1982). Specifically, small, rural school administrators are especially in need of professional development and some creative approaches are called for to address this unique need. Interestingly, Costa (1979b) compared providing effective professional development for rural school principals to "shopping for a sophisticated mechanical device in a country general store" (p. 14).

Olivero (1982) also described the unique challenges facing rural school administrators. He suggested that small, rural school administrators were more in need of professional development than any other site administrator. He based his views on the unique situations

which prevent many administrators in these districts from pursuing a program of professional development and growth. Olivero related that rural school administrators often share teaching assignments in their schools in addition to their administrative duties, and have limited funds to participate in in-service programs (p. 344).

Large, urban school districts are often capable of responding to the specific professional development needs of their school administrative personnel. Nudson and DeVries (1979), for example, described the steps that were taken by the Los Angeles Unified School District in planning and organizing an Academy for Management and Organizational Development within their own school district. This Academy was instituted "as a procedure to enable the district to respond to the training requirements and needs of management personnel" (p. 22). Unfortunately, small, rural school districts lack this capacity.

Costa (1979a), however, described an in-service model that was sponsored by the Association of California School Administrators which offered hope to rural, as well as urban, school administrators. The essentials of the Project Leadership Model called for a group of small districts, a county office of education, or a larger school district, to contract with a university to provide continuous in-service opportunities for school administrators. In return, the programs would be offered in the most central, easily accessible location in the areas represented by the participants, and would provide an opportunity for participants to earn an advanced degree—masters or doctorate—in a three or four year time span (p. 13).

In summary, the criticisms that have been made of existing efforts to provide professional development for school administrators need to be addressed. In the future, efforts must be made to provide school administrators with an opportunity to participate in planning professional growth and development experiences. Development efforts need to be endorsed by superintendents and boards of education, and the experiences will need to focus on allowing administrators to share common problems and concerns. Likewise, the programs must be on-going and systematic, and every effort must be made to allow administrators in small, rural districts to participate. The challenges, indeed, are great.

A Rationale for Principal Professional Development

In-service or professional development activities are of major importance in most professions. In particular, the legal and medical professions allocate considerable sums of money and large blocks of time to improve the on-the-job performance of their members. Likewise, major corporations in the United States such as the Bell System and IBM spend sizeable amounts of money to train their executives and leaders. Professional development for principals is also important because in education they are executives and leaders.

In 1977 California concluded that professional development for school administrators was critical and recognized the necessity of assisting school administrators acquire the skills necessary to provide effective school leadership. "A Task Force for the Improvement of Pre-Service and In-Service Training for Public School Administrators" was created by the California Legislature and was given the

responsibility to review the adequacy of pre-service training and continuing professional development for school principals (Mangers, 1979). This California Legislative Task Force (1978) issued its lighthouse report entitled, The School Principal: Recommendations for Effective Leadership which made several specific recommendations. The report concluded that major changes were necessary in the pre-service preparation programs of school administrators and that existing efforts to provide meaningful, comprehensive in-service for principals were inadequate. Continuing professional growth was termed critical to efforts directed toward school effectiveness, and principals were encouraged to assist superintendents and boards of education in establishing written policies that encouraged the professional growth of school principals. The report also encouraged principals to plan and initiate their own professional growth program (pp. 25-36).

The professional literature emphasized at least four specific reasons why professional development was of critical importance for school administrators. One reason to provide for the development of principals becomes apparent when the present demographic characteristics of practicing school administrators are analyzed.

Rebore (1982) emphasized the importance of giving consideration to the demographic characteristics of school administrators by suggesting that a variety of developments in the past decade had complicated the role of the school principal. Trends such as collective bargaining, special education and student rights were not included in the pre-service preparation programs of many practicing school administrators, and as a result, these trends represented competencies

that principals need to acquire through in-service education. Rebore added: "These trends, of course, are by no means the end, but rather just the beginning of even more dramatic changes taking place at an accelerated pace. We must be prepared to meet this on-going challenge in staff development" (p. 178).

Similar concerns were reported by the National Association of Secondary School Principals national study of The Senior High School Principal in 1979. McCleary and Thomson (1979) commented on the qualities which appeared to be essential for effective principals in the future and concluded that "The principal leads an educational institution committed to unending, continued learning; and the job itself will soon make obsolete the individual who does not continue professional and personal growth" (p. 62). Likewise, Hashim and Boles (1984) remarked: "Even if a fully qualified, ideally competent administrative staff were available, time would gradually erode competence as conditions change and old competencies become obsolescent" (p. 248).

Interestingly, a survey of Iowa principals conducted in February, 1985, by the Educational Administrators of Iowa revealed that the average responding principal had been in education 22 years and in school administration for 14 years. From these observations, it can be concluded that there is much to be gained from providing professional growth opportunities for school administrators.

A second reason to provide for the growth and development of school administrators is due to the important role that they play in their respective schools. Research has verified that the leadership of the

principal is one of the five key elements of effective schools and that there is a positive relationship between student achievement and principal leadership ability (Andrews & Soder, 1987; Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979; Rutter, Maughan, & Outson, 1979; Silver & Moyle, 1984). Principals need assistance in translating this research into practical approaches which lead to school improvement in their own settings.

Recognizing this relationship between student achievement and principal leadership, several members of Congress joined forces in 1985 to secure passage of federal legislation to enhance the leadership skills of school administrators. The Leadership in Educational Administration and Development Act (LEAD) provided $7.5 million to create principals' centers in all regions of the United States. As Cawelti (1982) stated: "If principals can improve their skills and if their leadership efforts focus on the characteristics of effective teaching, one can anticipate more successful schools" (p. 328).

A third justification for the professional development of school administrators is that there is a widespread belief that the pre-service education of school administrators does not adequately prepare them for the duties and responsibilities which will be required of them on the job (Barth, 1980b; Fahey, 1984; LoPresti, 1982; Peterson, 1986; Peterson & Finn, 1985). The entire pre-service preparation program for school administrators has come under direct attack by professor as well as practitioner. Fahey (1984) described the pre-service preparation of school administrators in these terms: "The gap between course work of the university, 'the ivory tower' and the practical concerns of school

administrators appears to widen in proportion to the increase in complexity of contemporary education issues" (p. 10). Peterson (1986) criticized the course work that was typically required of aspiring school administrators as being a conglomeration of courses ranging from a study of philosophy of education to school construction and building sites. He stated: "Licensing agencies generally do little in terms of quality control, content specification, or evaluation of these courses. Not surprisingly, school administrators often report that the courses are of little help in preparing them for their work" (p. 151).

Barth (1980a, 1982) and Olivero (1982) also expressed concern about the pre-service preparation of administrators. Barth (1982) related how he surveyed several principals and asked them the question: "What contributed most to your effectiveness as a principal?" According to Barth, academic preparation consistently rated at the bottom of the list. In short, there is a widely-held view that the best pre-service training takes place in the local school--not in the university class.

Similarly, Olivero described a study he conducted in California in 1982. Principals were provided with a list of 91 job-related competencies, and each principal was asked to indicate whether the competency was appropriate for pre-service study or was appropriate for in-service study. The principals identified 90 percent of the competencies as being appropriate for in-service study. As Olivero (1982) stated, "This illustrates the common sense notion that most people are not aware of what they will need until they are cognizant of a void" (p. 342).

Barth (1980b) summarized his concern over this issue when he characterized the pre-service preparation of school administrators by our nation's colleges and universities as "ineffective." He stated: "Despite university efforts to certify thousands of aspiring principals, their programs alone will never be sufficient, if only because no one knows what the principal will face until the situation or problem presents itself" (p. 14).

A fourth justification for the professional development of principals was emphasized because the demands on the position have changed so drastically in the past few years. In short, there has been a renewed emphasis placed on improved instruction in the individual classroom, and it has become the major responsibility of the school administrator to be knowledgeable in this area. Ehrgott (1979) remarked, "A new breed of administrator must function as a translator of educational research into actual classroom practices which help students learn more, faster, and remember it longer" (pp. 8-9).

Jacobson (1984) expressed concern that principals generally have not acquired the necessary skills to adequately assess the instruction that occurs in most classrooms. He was particularly concerned with the expectations facing high school principals where they were expected to know both content and teaching methodology for the numerous subject areas. He concluded that "even under the best of circumstances, and even with the best of principals, that expectation is unrealistic, unless the principal is trained to identify the aspects of effective teaching" (p. 41).

The question that might be asked is: Are practicing school administrators equipped to handle these new responsibilities and expectations? Our ability to give an affirmative answer to this question rests very much on our interest and ability to provide for the professional growth and development of school administrators through in-service education.

Efforts to Provide Principal Professional Development

In the past few years, numerous efforts have been made in a quest to determine how best to address the professional development needs of school administrators. Special attempts have been made by national professional organizations such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and the American Association of School Administrators to offer conferences and workshops aimed at school administrators. Likewise, several major colleges and universities have established Principals' Centers to provide development programs. Other universities have utilized the Assessment Center concept to help assess the skills and aptitudes of school administrators. In addition, many state legislatures and Departments of Education have become involved by changing the certification and re-certification requirements of school administrators.

Daresh and LaPlant (1983) have described what they consider to be the six most popular models being used for delivery of principal in-service:

1. The Traditional Model: This describes the practice of school administrators enrolling in classes at colleges and universities for

course credit. It was described as the most frequently used method of professional development for school personnel. Daresh and LaPlant concluded: "University courses are excellent for enabling participants to earn degrees, satisfy personal curiosity and interest, or meet certification requirements, but they are limited as long-term solutions to the need for effective on-going principal in-service" (p. 13).

2. The Institute: This approach is described as "a short-term, topic specific learning experience" (p. 13). Institutes can be planned to disseminate information whenever a topic arises. The major drawback of this approach is that "no great depth of treatment can be provided on any given topic during the few days--or hours--of an institute" (p. 14).

3. The Academy: This approach is "an arrangement where in-house learning experiences are provided on an on-going basis" (p. 14). It is most frequently available in large school districts such as Los Angeles, Chicago, or St. Louis. While the topics for the academy are usually based on need assessment of local participants, "the danger always exists that the focus will always be on the 'here and now', or current 'hot topics' and little emphasis will be placed on long-term solutions" (p. 14).

4. The Competency-Based Model: This approach to professional development is designed to "provide a useful framework of knowledge, attitudes, and skills toward which an effective school leader may strive" (p. 14). The authors related that two difficult issues regarding the competency-based model are: (a) who should provide the professional development, and (b) what target competencies should be emphasized in the program?

5. <u>Networking</u>: This model is defined as "the linking of individuals in different schools or districts for the purpose of sharing concerns and effective practices on an on-going basis" (p. 14). As with many of the other models, the individual administrator has the responsibility to organize meetings with other administrators to share mutual problems and concerns.

6. <u>A Collegial Model</u>: This approach is the last model described for the delivery of principal in-service. Daresh and LaPlant described this model as "an attempt to develop effective administrator in-service by focusing directly on the local school situation and the needs of local principals" (p. 14). The goal of this model is to assist in focusing administrator attention on the unique environment of the local school and to organize a collegial support group to bring about effective change.

In a later publication, Daresh and LaPlant (1985) concluded that each of the in-service models had much to offer. They emphasized, however, that the collegial model "appears to hold the most promise for helping principals do a better job over the long term" (p. 15).

As one analyzes the models presented by Daresh and LaPlant, it becomes evident that they all play a large part in how professional development is presently provided to school administrators. For example, some of the present development efforts for school administrators are based on self-assessment of need (i.e., Principals' Centers, the traditional model of taking college and university classes, or Institutes). Other efforts emphasize professional development based on skills and behaviors that have been identified by

practicing administrators or preparation institutions (i.e., the competency-based model, or the Assessment Center concept). Individual school districts and state legislatures have also become actively involved in prescribing appropriate in-service for school personnel.

Interestingly, another approach is often mentioned which, for some reason, has not received the attention of the other models. This approach has been described by a variety of terms, but all emphasize the importance of giving attention to the unique problems and concerns of the client system. Each of the approaches to professional development, including those based on the concerns of the client system, is examined in the following section of this chapter.

Self-Determined Principal Professional Development

Several of the in-service models described by Daresh and LaPlant (1983) depend heavily upon the in-service participants to assist in determining course offerings. This self-assessment approach is often practiced today, as administrator development programs are often based solely on the perceived needs of school administrators.

Several recent studies have provided principals an opportunity to identify their in-service preferences (Bell, 1984; Parks, 1977; Wyant, Reinhard, & Arends, 1980). For example, Wyant, Reinhard, and Arends (1980) surveyed principals to determine what professional development programs most interested them. According to the study, principals expressed interest in topics such as exercising leadership when engaging in educational improvement, evaluating instructional programs and personnel, and maintaining good school-community relations (p. 208). Wyant et al. also attempted to ascertain from principals what kind of

in-service delivery they preferred. Principals expressed interest in in-service that would allow them to visit other schools, attend college and university courses for credit on a regular basis, or participate in small groups to share mutual problems and concerns (pp. 211-212). This information was then utilized in planning and providing principal professional development.

Bell (1984) surveyed the principals and assistant principals of the Los Angeles Unified School District to determine what their perceptions were regarding professional development needs. The survey results identified the following six critical issues as professional development topics: employee relations, legal issues, time management, improvement of instruction, budgeting, and stress management.

Another development effort which utilizes self-assessment by principals is the Principals' Center (Barth, 1985a). The first Principals' Center began at Harvard University in 1980, and the first director of the Harvard Principals' Center was Roland Barth. Barth (1981) emphasized the importance of the Principals' Center being principal-centered—its activities "emanating from the concerns, needs, and aspirations of the principals themselves" (p. 61). Membership in the Principals' Center is purely voluntary and the emphasis is on individual member professional growth.

It is evident that the Principals' Center model has been well received. Since the establishment of the first Center at Harvard in 1980, the model has been adopted in at least 28 states (Van Loon & Ver Bryck, 1985). As Fahey (1984) emphasized, "The significant growth of centers across the United States reflects not only an educational trend

of the eighties but an ever-increasing need for a bridge of relevant resources to help administrators as both leaders and learners" (p. 11).

Competency-Based Professional Development

Another approach to principal professional development is based on skills and behaviors that have been identified by practicing administrators and administrator-preparation institutions. That approach, the Assessment Center concept, has been utilized for many years in private industry to assist organizations assess the management potential of its employees. The concept has been used successfully by AT&T, IBM, Eastern Airlines, and the United States Army to choose leadership personnel (Ivancevich & Glueck, 1986; Yerkes, 1984). It was not until 1975, however, that the National Association of Secondary School Principals applied the Assessment Center concept to the education profession to assist in assessing the skills of potential principals and assistant principals.

Hersey (1982) stated that the Assessment Center of the National Association of Secondary School Principals is made up of three basic components: (a) a list of 12 skill dimensions to be assessed; (b) simulation techniques and exercises to be used in the assessment; and (c) a comprehensive program to train future assessment personnel (p. 370).

The skills relate to the most important characteristics of successful principals and assistant principals; each participant's performance in each skill area is assessed during the Assessment Center experience. The 12 skills that are assessed were described in a recent National Association of Secondary School Principals' publication

entitled <u>NASSP's Assessment Center: Selecting and Developing School</u>

<u>Leaders</u> (1986). They included:

1. <u>Problem Analysis</u>: The ability to seek out relevant data and analyze complex information to determine the important elements of a problem situation; searching for information with a purpose.

2. <u>Judgment</u>: The ability to reach logical conclusions and make high quality decisions based on available information; skill in identifying educational needs and setting priorities; the ability to critically evaluate written communications.

3. <u>Organizational Ability</u>: The ability to plan, schedule, and control the work of others; skill in using resources in an optimal fashion, ability to deal with a volume of paperwork and heavy demands on one's time.

4. <u>Decisiveness</u>: The ability to recognize when a decision is required (disregarding the quality of the decision) and to act quickly.

5. <u>Leadership</u>: The ability to get others involved in solving problems; ability to recognize when a group requires direction, and to interact with a group effectively and to guide them to the accomplishment of a task.

6. <u>Sensitivity</u>: The ability to perceive the needs, concerns, and personal problems of others; skill in resolving conflicts; tact in dealing with persons from different backgrounds; ability to deal effectively with people concerning emotional issues; knowing what information to communicate and to whom.

7. <u>Stress Tolerance</u>: The ability to perform under pressure and during opposition; ability to think on one's feet.

8. <u>Oral Communication</u>: The ability to make a clear oral presentation of facts or ideas.

9. <u>Written Communication</u>: The ability to express ideas clearly in writing; to write appropriately for different audiences, including students, teachers and parents.

10. <u>Range of Interest</u>: Competence to discuss a variety of subjects including educational, political, economic, and current events. The desire to actively participate in events.

11. <u>Personal Motivation</u>: The need to achieve in all activities attempted; evidence that work is important to personal satisfaction; ability to be self-policing.

12. <u>Educational Values</u>: The possession of a well-reasoned
    educational philosophy; a general receptiveness to new ideas
    and change. (p. 10)

It is apparent that the Assessment Center concept has been well

received by professional educators. It is estimated that there are over

30 Assessment Centers in operation throughout the United States and

more are planned for the future (Yerkes, 1984). In addition, several

cooperative arrangements have been developed between school

administrator-preparation institutions and the Assessment Center of the

National Association of Secondary School Principals. For example, the

University of Nebraska has contracted with the National Association of

Secondary School Principals to provide an assessment center in

conjunction with the public schools of Lincoln, Nebraska (Kelley, 1982).

This arrangement provides prospective administrators in the Lincoln

public schools an opportunity to assess their individual strengths and

weaknesses--a logical starting point as they identify their professional

development needs.

San Diego State University has also piloted an experimental program

using this concept to assess the skills of school administration

candidates. The results from such assessments are utilized to provide

specific, individualized training for all prospective administrators

(Yerkes, 1984).

In short, the Assessment Center approach is assisting aspiring

school administrators assess their individual strengths and weaknesses.

It is also assisting prospective school administrators to identify areas

of professional growth and development.

School District Efforts at Principal Development

Several authors described efforts that have been taken by individual school districts to organize professional development for teachers and administrators around Madeline Hunter's "Instructional Theory Into Practice" model (DeLacy & Rogel, 1981; Gerald & Sloan, 1984; Jacobson, 1984). While there were minor variations among the described programs, basically a three-step process was involved. First, principals were given a thorough introduction to the Hunter model (Hunter, 1976) which emphasized the principles of student learning such as motivation, reinforcement, teaching for positive transfer, and the retention of learning. Principals usually were required to apply their new learning by teaching sample lessons or units to students in their individual schools. These lessons were videotaped and used for small group analyses of teacher behaviors.

After principals learned the basic components of the Hunter Instructional Model, they usually were responsible for conducting in-service lessons for their faculty with the intent of having their faculty better understand the principles of the model. The third phase called for principals to learn the fundamentals of instructional conferencing and to make application of this model with faculty in their schools.

Several authors described the impact that the program had in individual schools. Results of surveys given to faculty and administrative participants were supportive of the model. Gerald and Sloan (1984) described the results of the professional development effort in Wheeling, Illinois, by stating that over 75 percent of the

principals participating in the program had "greatly increased their knowledge in every category in which they received training, particularly in areas related to planning an instructional conference and giving feedback to a teacher during a conference" (p. 13). Jacobson (1984) described the professional development results in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, by stating that school district research had concluded that "our many constituencies believe we're doing a better job of teaching" (p. 46). Similarly, DeLacy and Rogel (1981) described the positive results of the model in Bellevue, Washington, in these terms: "There is sufficient evidence to conclude that the Bellevue Administrative Professional Development Program was successful in its efforts to have Bellevue principals learn and apply the skills of clinical supervision" (p. 138).

When one considers how the demands on the principalship have changed so dramatically in the past few years, with a new emphasis being placed on improving the instruction that is taking place in individual classrooms, it is easy to understand why the Madeline Hunter Instructional Theory Into Practice Model has been so well received by school principals.

State Involvement in Principal Professional Development

In addition to all of the efforts undertaken to address the professional development needs of school administrators, other efforts have been taken in the various state governments to address this issue, as well. State governors, state legislatures, and state Departments of Education have all offered their own prescription of what steps must be taken to improve the administration of schools.

Bill Clinton (1986), the governor of Arkansas, summarized the present environment from a state government perspective when he remarked: "Led by governors, state boards, and legislators, states have mandated higher standards in elementary, secondary, and higher education. Lasting reform requires more than higher standards, however. Strengthening the leadership in schools is an essential next step" (p. 208).

Many states have chosen to "strengthen the leadership in schools," in part by changing the certification and re-certification requirements for school administrators. Jones, Gousha, and LoPresti (1986) described a national survey undertaken to determine how states have addressed the issue of administrative certification and re-certification. Of the 42 states represented in the survey, 18 states reported revised certification standards for administrators at least once since 1980, and 24 states indicated that additional revision was being considered (pp. 92-93).

Iowa's effort to address this issue appears to be typical of many states. The 1985 Iowa Legislature mandated the Iowa Department of Education to plan and implement a professional development program for school administrators. According to the legislative mandate, all administrative certificates and endorsements are limited to five years, and successful completion of a Department of Education-approved development program is required for renewal of administrative certificates and endorsements.

Some states have addressed the issue in other ways. One of the more innovative approaches is presently being offered to educators in

Louisiana. The Louisiana Educational Employees Professional Improvement Program was enacted by the Louisiana Legislature in 1980 with the intent of encouraging educators to continue their own professional growth and development. Broussard (1981) concluded that "the legislation provided for an individualized, incentive-based, statewide, in-service development program for school administrators" (p. 2).

The Louisiana Professional Improvement Program requires each participant to plan a five-year program of personal professional growth and development. Each participant is required to earn a total of 300 points during the five-year program--with a minimum of 50 points being earned each year. According to Broussard (1982), the necessary points can be earned each year by taking college or university courses for credit, preparing and conducting workshops, or supervising student teachers or administrative interns. Additional credit could be earned by attending approved conferences and workshops, or participating in task forces whose purpose would be to develop innovative educational programs (pp. 2-3).

The incentive behind this program is money. The amount of incentive pay ranges from $1100 to more than $3700 per year per participant. Broussard (1982) estimated that over 30,000 educators participated in the program and that the Louisiana Legislature had allocated over sixty million dollars to fund the Professional Improvement Program. Broussard surveyed school administrators after the program had been in operation for one year and concluded that over eighty percent of Louisiana administrators in the survey had enrolled in the program, and that the program had encouraged some school

administrators to participate in professional development who normally
would not have done so (pp. 9-10).

Mitchell and Cunningham (1986) described three other state efforts
undertaken to address the professional development needs of school
administrators. They included the state-sponsorship of conferences and
conventions, the recent establishment of requirements for Continuing
Education Units for educators in some states, and the state-mandated
evaluation and competency testing of school personnel. They warned,
however, that state governments must give consideration to the potential
negative impact that could result from these efforts to improve
principal effectiveness. They cautioned that school administration
could become "a less attractive career choice for bright and capable
people" (p. 213). Unfortunately, in many cases, state planning
officials may not have given enough careful consideration to these
concerns.

Principal Professional Development Based on "the Client System"

Much of principals' professional development has been based largely
upon principals' self-assessment. Self-assessment, for example, is an
important component of the Principals' Center concept, the Principals'
Academy concept, and recent state efforts to provide professional
development.

While it is appropriate for school administrators to play an active
role in planning their professional development, several authors have
emphasized the importance of giving consideration to the unique
problems and concerns of "the client system"--that is, the staff members
with whom the administrator works. It is interesting to note, however,

that assessing the professional development needs of principals based on the concerns of the client system is seldom utilized.

The concept of giving consideration to the problems and concerns of the staff members an administrator works with was described by a variety of terms in the literature. While Sommerville (1976), Bennis (1966), Wyant et al. (1980), and Drachler (1973) all utilized the term "client system," Bailey (1984) used the term "faculty feedback." Lovell (1979) preferred "a responsive in-service education model," Daresh and LaPlant (1985) wrote about "the collegial model," and Stanton (1980) described "the internal evaluation of school administrators." Regardless of terminology, all described, in effect, a system which is most widely and descriptively known as the client system.

Sommerville (1976) suggested that a more appropriate method of analyzing administrator professional development needs was to give consideration to the client system. He elaborated:

> Most leadership in-service education activities I've experienced as a participant, focus on specific information, skills, and techniques one may use. Success is measured by feedback—often verbal—received from participating administrators. A very, very few have attempted to assess the effectiveness of the program through communication with those who are the ultimate focus of the in-service activity—the subordinates of the participant.
> The relationship between the in-service activities and the group served by the administrator must be one in which the reactions of the client system—the group, school, or other institution under the leadership of the participant—influences, if not determines, the nature of the leadership training. (pp. 2-3)

Sommerville concluded that the effectiveness of administrative in-service needed to be upgraded and suggested two specific ways to accomplish this: first, to assess the impact of the leader's training on the group that he/she served, and second, to base in-service program

planning and evaluation specifically on the unique problems, needs, and concerns of the client group (p. 8).

Wyant et al. (1980) presented ideas similar to those expressed by Sommerville which also placed specific emphasis on the client system. They remarked that "there is no best content, format, or style for administrative in-service. It depends on a careful analysis of who the client is, what the tasks are, and what is the setting within which the in-service will occur" (p. 215).

Bailey (1984) also endorsed the use of the client system as a means for school administrators to assess individual performance. Bailey preferred the term "faculty feedback" which he defined as "the process of gathering information from faculty for the purpose of improving leadership or administrative practices" (p. 5). Bailey considered faculty feedback to be "one of the most valuable sources available to administrators who are engaging in such improvement practices" (p. 5). Bailey cautioned, however, that it was necessary to place the emphasis of the feedback on administrative improvement instead of administrative evaluation.

Lovell (1979) struck a similar note in her model of administrative in-service, which she referred to as a "Responsive In-Service Education Model." She stated that responsive in-service education was unique, in that in-service experiences were "planned for specific people in a specific site and takes into account the factors in that setting that differentiate it from others" (p. 14). In short, the clients and the providers of in-service interacted to provide in-service experiences.

The importance of giving consideration to the problems and concerns of the client system was emphasized recently in a joint publication of the National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Ventures in Good Schooling (1986) is a handbook for teachers and principals and is the first joint publication of the two organizations in over a decade. The purpose of the joint project was summarized in the Introduction:

> The National Education Association and the National Association of Secondary School Principals share the conviction that present circumstances demand a renewed sense of interdependence among all educators. The time is right for teachers and principals to strengthen their professional partnership at the school site, to tighten the bonds that unite them in common cause. (p. 2)

The publication contained descriptions of specific practices that were common in effective schools. Again, the importance of teachers and principals engaging in cooperative actions at the school site was emphasized throughout the book. Two recommendations seem especially significant, however. The publication stated that in successful secondary schools, principals and teachers worked together to identify and plan effective professional development activities, and that principals actively sought feedback from teachers about their specific performance (p. 23).

Principal and Teacher Perceptions of Principal Performance

The literature that emphasized the importance of utilizing the client system when designing and implementing professional development suggested that principals needed to give careful consideration to what role faculty feedback has played in their own professional development efforts. Do principals, even in successful secondary schools, seek

feedback from teachers regarding their professional performance? If such feedback is sought from teachers, how do teacher perceptions of their principal's performance and role compare with the principal's perceptions of performance and role? Several recent studies have dealt with those questions (Gaut, 1969; Grooters, 1979; Holtgren, 1983; Meyer & Van Hoose, 1981; Montague, 1983; Strother, 1983; Tracy, 1984).

Tracy (1984) suggested that a definite "perception gap" existed between the way principals and teachers viewed the role of the principal. In the literature, the debate seemed to focus on whether the appropriate role for the principal should be primarily manager or instructional leader. To further develop her view that a perception gap existed, Tracy described a survey which was taken to compare how principals believed their teachers saw them, as compared to how the teachers actually perceived the principal in the role of instructional leader. The survey concluded that there was almost no relationship between teachers' perceptions of the principal and principals' perceptions. She summarized: "While the principals most often saw themselves as strong instructional leaders, the teachers with whom they work indicated far different perceptions" (p. 9).

Similarly, McIntyre and Grant (1980) described a procedure referred to as a "discrepancy model" which allowed school principals to compare their perceptions of eight key areas of administrative performance to those of their teachers. Results from a study of 18 principals and 168 teachers in 18 schools revealed that significant differences existed between the responses of the two groups. While principals tended to rate the importance of the eight areas of their job higher than the

teachers, principals also rated their individual performance higher than did the teachers.

As a result of these differences in perception, Tracy (1984) suggested that it was necessary for principals to work hard to avoid the perception gap that exists between teachers' perceptions of the principal and how principals assume their teachers see them. One of her recommendations to reduce this perception gap was to "identify the staff's perceptions of the role of the principal." She emphasized that "unless administrators are well aware of their staffs' expectations in the first place, they will not be able to recognize if a perception gap exists" (p. 9). She suggested that a formal channel was needed in order to open up the lines of communication between principals and teachers.

Other studies have compared principal and teacher perceptions of selected aspects of principal performance. Montague (1983), for example, conducted a study which examined the perceptions of teachers and principals toward the leadership practices of principals. The components of principal leadership were defined as principal efforts in the areas of curriculum development, staff relations, providing in-service, school and community relations, and performance evaluation. The findings from the study indicated that teachers and principals did not agree on the relative importance of these five aspects of instructional leadership practices, and it was suggested that principals should strive to be more aware of staff perceptions of the instructional leadership practices of the principal (pp. 101-102). Montague concluded that if principals were aware of their faculty's perceptions of their

strengths and weaknesses, they would be better able to strengthen those weak areas through professional development.

In a similar study, Holtgren (1983) studied 32 principals and a sampling of their teachers to determine if a discrepancy existed between the self-perceptions of principals as "affective educators" and their performance as viewed by teachers. Again, conclusions similar to the previous study were noted. Holtgren concluded that definite differences existed between the way principals perceived their affective performance and the reality of that performance as seen by teachers. The study suggested that even though principals perceived themselves as strong in the affective domains, their performance, according to teachers, did not support those perceptions (pp. 3-4).

One of the specific recommendations made in the Holtgren study was that: "Evaluations of the principals' performance should include specific feedback concerning his/her affective performance. The principal should be made aware of weak and strong areas within the academic domain and plans for improvement should be implemented" (p. 105).

Meyer and Van Hoose (1981) also conducted research which compared the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding the performance of middle school principals in South Carolina. Middle school principals and teachers were asked to respond to 12 items about instructional leadership skills, 14 items dealing with administrative service skills, and 11 items regarding interpersonal relationship skills. Statistically significant differences between teacher's and principal's perceptions were reported on each of the 12 items in the area of instructional

leadership, on 11 of the 14 items in the administrative service skills area, and on 8 of the 11 items on the interpersonal relationship skills area (pp. 69-70).

Meyer and Van Hoose concluded that the study emphasized that obvious perceptual differences existed between principals and teachers and that middle school principals "need to develop a clearer understanding of the perceptions of their teachers" (p. 72). They recommended that middle school administrators should regularly survey teachers to develop a better understanding of their perceptions—even if those perceptions were different than their own.

Two additional studies can be cited, however, which were not able to conclude that significant differences existed between the perceptions of administrators and their teachers regarding administrator performance. Grooters (1979), for example, conducted a study to determine if significant differences existed between the perceptions of teachers and their principals in various sized school districts in Nebraska. Data from the study revealed that there were no significant differences in the perceptions of teachers and principals when 30 statements of administrative performance were used to describe the performance of principals. Since no significant differences existed between principals and faculty, Grooters concluded that teachers should be included in assisting administrators define the "effective on-the-job performance of the building administrator" (p. 144).

A second study by Gaut (1969) attempted to determine the perceptions of teachers and principals in 12 large Oklahoma high schools. Principal performance was classified into four major

categories of administrative behavior. The categories were: practices in instruction and curriculum development, improving teacher effectiveness, improving staff relations, and assessing situational influences. The results of the Gaut study were similar to those reported by Grooters. Significant differences between principal and teacher assessment of administrative performance were not present in any of the four major categories of administrative behavior defined in the study. Gaut reasoned that there was more agreement between principals and teachers in their perceptions of the principals' role in the four major categories of administrative behavior than is commonly believed.

From the studies mentioned above, it is apparent that obvious discrepancies exist in the research concerning principal and teacher perceptions of administrator performance. It was evident in several of the studies that definite differences often existed in the way principals and teachers perceived principal performance. Other studies, however, were unable to reach this conclusion and actually suggested that there was more agreement between principals and teachers of administrative performance than is commonly believed. Nearly all of the studies suggested, however, that principals needed to be more aware of teacher perceptions of principal performance. As Tracy (1984) stated, "It is time that administrators dare to ask teachers how they believe they are doing on the job" (p. 10). This kind of feedback could assist principals in opening up the lines of communication that exist between principals and teachers.

The Value of Feedback

The importance of providing feedback is well-documented in the fields of business, psychology, and counseling. Ivancevich and Glueck (1986), for example, emphasized that feedback sessions between employees and managers have been encouraged by such major companies as Sears and Roebuck, Kraft, Inc., and Rockwell International in an attempt to better understand employee needs and develop more productive working relationships (p. 650). Similarly, Bunker (1982), writing in a handbook for human relations training, described feedback as "the major strategy available to us for straightening out misunderstandings" (p. 39).

The importance of feedback and the openness of the people making up a group was emphasized in a model of group behavior developed by Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham. The model (Luft, 1970) was referred to as "the Johari Window" and illustrated the significance of providing useful feedback in various settings.

The Johari Window is composed of four quadrants and represents the total person in relation to all others with whom that person works. The model represents a communication window through which information about oneself and others can be given or received. (Figure 1)

According to Luft, the "open self" quadrant of the Johari Window refers to ones behaviors which are known both to oneself and also to others. This area is sometimes also referred to as the public self. This quadrant increases in size as the level of trust increases and feedback with fellow employees becomes more commonplace. The "blind area" of the model refers to ones behaviors which are known to others

Known to Self   Not Known to Self

	Known to Self	Not Known to Self
Known to Others	1 THE OPEN SELF	2 THE BLIND SELF
Not Known to Others	3 THE CONCEALED SELF	4 THE UNKNOWN SELF

Figure 1. The Johari Window: A Model of Group Behavior.

but remain unknown to the individual. This area has also been referred to as the "bad breath" area—the people with whom one works know the individual has "bad breath" but the individual may not realize it. The "concealed self" area refers to things one knows about oneself but which are not revealed to others. This quadrant is sometimes described as "private information," and is information that is not shared with colleagues. The last quadrant of the model represents the "unknown self" and describes and refers to the area where neither the individual nor others are aware of certain behaviors or motives.

When applying the Johari Window to the operation of groups, the goal is to increase the area of the model referred to as the "open self" so that relationships become freer and more open. In order to increase

the "open self" quadrant of the model, the size of the other three

quadrants (the blind quadrant, the concealed quadrant, and the unknown

quadrant) must be reduced. According to Luft, to achieve this goal,

giving and receiving feedback is essential.

The benefits of utilizing feedback to enlarge the "open self"

quadrant were summarized by Luft (1970):

> An enlarged area of open activity among the group members implies
> less threat or fear and greater probability that the skills and
> resources of the group members can be brought to bear on the work
> of the group. The enlarged area suggests greater openness to
> information, opinion, and new ideas about each member as well as
> about specific group processes. (p. 16)

He also asserted that giving feedback provided "a greater likelihood of

satisfaction with the work and more involvement with what the group is

doing" (p. 16). An ideal Johari Window for a school administrator who

actively seeks and willingly accepts feedback from faculty and staff may

well resemble Figure 2.

The value to supervisors of obtaining feedback from subordinates

has also been recognized in business organizations (Bass, 1976; Hegarty,

1973, 1974; Nemeroff & Cosentino, 1979). Hegarty (1973) conducted a

study to determine what impact subordinate feedback to supervisors had

on supervisor behavior at the University of North Carolina. Results of

the study were interesting. Hegarty concluded that supervisors do want

to know where they stand with their employees and do welcome

constructive criticism from them. He also reported that supervisors

generally expressed a willingness to "take constructive action" when

they were made aware of how subordinates viewed their performance.

Hegarty also described the benefits that resulted from such a program

	Known to Self	Not Known to Self
Known to Others	1 THE OPEN SELF	2 THE BLIND SELF
Not Know to Others	3 THE CONCEALED SELF	4 UNKNOWN SELF

Figure 2. An Ideal Johari Window for School Administrators.

of subordinate feedback. Supervisors reported that such feedback resulted in "appreciably better employee-supervisor relations" and made better communications possible since employees were given an opportunity to express their attitudes toward their job, the company, and the people that they worked with (pp. 30-35). In short, employee morale was strengthened.

In corresponding research conducted in 1974, Hegarty tried to determine whether subordinate feedback to supervisors led to positive change in supervisor behavior. Again, Hegarty (1974) was able to conclude that "giving supervisors feedback reports improves the supervisors' performance in the eyes of their subordinates" (p. 765). Hegarty summarized his research by stating that "this project offers

strong evidence that positive change does occur when supervisors find out how their subordinates view their behavior" (p. 766).

While the literature dealing with the application of feedback by teachers to principals is extremely limited, three studies have focused on that concept (Blumberg & Cusick, 1970; Daw & Gage, 1967; Fraser, 1980). Daw and Gage (1967) described how one experimental group of elementary principals received feedback from faculty regarding both how the faculty rated their performance and how they rated an ideal principal's performance. Results similar to Hegarty were reported. Specifically, feedback regarding how others feel about one's performance did affect behavior. Daw and Gage summarized their study by stating that "further attention should be given to ways of enhancing the effectiveness of feedback. The behavior of teachers, principals, and persons in similar roles could be more effective by applying the results of such a program of research" (p. 188).

Fraser (1980) also related findings from research which emphasized the importance of faculty providing feedback to the principal regarding the principals' supervisory performance. In order to determine what kind of administrative supervision teachers preferred, Fraser surveyed 370 Montana public school teachers in 1979. A number of supervisory practices that had been recommended in the professional literature were included as items on the questionnaire. Teachers were asked both how they actually experienced these supervisory practices and how they would prefer to experience these practices. According to the results of the study, 93 percent of the teachers wanted the opportunity to give

feedback to their supervisor regarding the effectiveness of supervision. In addition, this supervisory practice was considered a "significant predictor of overall teacher satisfaction" (p. 230).

Fraser concluded the study by suggesting that at least two specific benefits would result if school administrators attempted to determine teacher attitudes toward administrative supervision in a particular school. First, administrators would be able to improve specific supervisory behaviors, and second, the degree of teacher satisfaction would increase as a result of being able to share their perceptions of supervisory behavior (p. 231). Both benefits are needed in schools today.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

This chapter provided an overview of the efforts that have been made to provide for the professional growth and development of school administrators. Special attention focused on the popular models presently being used for the delivery of administrator professional development.

Interestingly, one model of administrator professional development has not received the attention of the other models. While referred to by such varied terms as the collegial model, the client system, or faculty feedback, all emphasized the importance of giving consideration to the unique problems and concerns of staff members with whom the administrator works.

Daresh and LaPlant (1985) recognized the value of this model when they concluded that the client system model "appears to hold the most promise for helping principals do a better job over the long term"

(p. 15). In addition, several recent publications were cited in the chapter which emphasized the importance of principals actively seeking feedback from their faculty regarding administrative performance.

Research which compared principal and teacher perceptions of administrator performance was also reviewed. It was evident that obvious discrepancies existed in the research concerning principal and teacher perceptions of principal performance. Nearly all of the research, however, encouraged administrators to actively seek ways to become more aware of teacher perceptions of administrator performance.

The chapter concluded with a discussion of the importance of feedback. The value of giving and receiving feedback is well-documented in the areas of business, psychology, and counseling. Unfortunately, literature dealing with the application of feedback in educational settings is quite limited.

It was evident from a review of literature that additional research is needed regarding the importance of principals' utilizing faculty feedback in planning principal professional development. This valuable source of information has not been adequately utilized in the past, and increased attention must be given to the concept in the future if schools are to be the institutions they were meant to be.

Giving attention to the unique problems and concerns of the client system when planning principal professional development is an interesting concept that has obvious application for educational settings. As De Bevoise (1984) stated:

Research should help principals evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses and the constraints and opportunities posed by their environments. With an understanding of these factors, principals can look for ways to ensure that others on the staff or in the community provide resources complementary to their own.

Ultimately, the provision of instructional leadership can be viewed as a responsibility that is shared by a community of people both within and outside the school. Principals . . . still need a lot of help from others if improvement is to become the norm. (p. 20).

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The major purpose of this study was to determine if the perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals and those of their teachers differed significantly when applied to eleven categories of administrative performance. The study included an assessment of individual performance by each participating senior high school principal and feedback from five of the principal's faculty members who were familiar with each principal's administrative performance. This study utilized the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument to assess the perceptions of administrative performance.

The differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the 11 skill/behavior categories included in the EAEP instrument were analyzed. In addition, the relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories was determined. Consideration was given to the implications of these principals' and teachers' perceptions for principals' professional development.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of all senior high school principals in Iowa. For the purpose of this study, senior high school principal was defined as the administrator who carried the title of principal and who had administrative responsibility only for Grades 9-12 or Grades 10-12 in his/her respective school.

According to the <u>1986-87 Iowa Educational Directory</u>, which is published and distributed by the Iowa Department of Education, there were 198 senior high schools in Iowa with a Grade 9-12 or Grade 10-12 organizational pattern. Two of the senior high school principals had previously completed the EAEP instrument and, as a result, were not included in the study. This left a potential population of 196 senior high school principals.

Each participating principal was requested to identify five teachers who were familiar with the principal's work. Data were collected from these teachers on a companion instrument which paralleled the one completed by the principal in the study. The anonymity of individual teacher responses was assured.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

The data for this study were collected by utilizing the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument (Appendices D, E). The EAEP was developed by Human Synergistics of Plymouth, Michigan, an international management consulting firm. The EAEP was developed under a grant from the Danforth Foundation of St. Louis, Missouri, in an effort to "assist school leaders to assess, analyze, and strengthen the skills and behaviors crucial to success as an educational administrator" (Miller & Ruderman, 1985, p. 54).

A nationally-recognized panel of experts in the areas of educational administration and leadership was given the responsibility of guiding the development of the instrument. The panel was composed of the following individuals: Lavern L. Cunningham of The Ohio State University; Richard Leroy Foster, a member of the Executive Committee of

the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Lawrence

Lezotte, Professor of Educational Psychology and Associate Director of

the Institute on Research on Teaching at Michigan State University;

Richard Manatt, Professor of Education at Iowa State University; and

Neal Schmitt, Professor of Psychology at Michigan State University.

The EAEP instrument is made up of a total of 120 items and is

designed to be completed in less than 30 minutes. Eleven specific

skill/behavior categories are included in the EAEP instrument. The

categories are:

1. Setting Goals and Objectives.
2. Planning.
3. Making Decisions and Solving Problems.
4. Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs.
5. Assessing Progress.
6. Delegating Responsibility.
7. Communicating.
8. Building and Maintaining Relationships.
9. Demonstrating Professional Commitment.
10. Improving Instruction.
11. Developing Staff (Miller & Ruderman, 1985, pp. 55-56).

Since the Danforth Foundation grant in 1981, Human Synergistics has

conducted several nation-wide field tests of the EAEP instrument. These

studies were done to provide better understanding of the statistical

properties of each instrument, to identify confusing or poorly worded

items and instructions, and to evaluate the format of the instrument.

Revisions were made in the original format and in the wording of several

questions on the EAEP. Statistical analyses were conducted to ascertain

whether it was necessary to add, omit, or revise any of the items.

Additional efforts have been undertaken to examine the reliability

and validity of the EAEP instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficient, a

measure of reliability, was computed for all of the skill/behavior

categories. This information was used to identify items that were important to retain and items which needed to be revised or omitted.

Additional studies have examined the validity of the instrument. In a Human Synergistics (1984) publication entitled <u>Final Report: The Development of an Educational Administrator Self-Assessment Instrument</u>, validation studies of the EAEP instrument that were conducted by Manatt and Palmer were described (p. 38). Data gathered from these efforts have been utilized by Human Synergistics to revise the <u>self</u> and <u>other</u> versions of the instrument. In this same publication, the following summary statement was provided: "Evaluations to date prove that the EAEP does identify effective educational administrators and can diagnose levels of proficiency in the domain areas assessed" (p. iii).

Data Collection

Introductory letters (Appendix A) were mailed to all 196 eligible Iowa senior high school principals in early February, 1987. This introductory letter served several fundamental purposes. The letter briefly explained the purpose of the study and the format of the EAEP instrument. This letter also described the expectations held by the researcher for those principals who chose to participate. Special efforts were made to explain the time required of principals who chose to participate in the study.

A preliminary survey (Appendix B) was included with the introductory letter so principals could express their willingness to participate in the study. Potential participating principals were provided a list of the 11 skill/behavior categories included in the EAEP instrument and were asked to identify their willingness to

participate in hypothetical in-service activities in these areas by ranking the categories on a scale from <u>eager to participate</u> (1) to <u>not at all interested in participating</u> (11).

Follow-up letters (Appendix C) were mailed to all non-responding principals three weeks later in an effort to increase participation. If a principal chose not to participate in the study or failed to respond to the follow-up letter, no further contact was made.

Each participating principal was mailed a packet of materials in early March. The packet contained one copy of the EAEP <u>self</u> assessment instrument (Appendix D) which was to be completed by the principal and five EAEP <u>other</u> assessments (Appendix E) which were to be completed by high school faculty who had been identified by the principal. According to EAEP instructions, principals were encouraged to choose teachers whose opinions they valued and trusted and who could accurately assess their on-the-job performance. Five envelopes were also included in the mailing to aid the principal in the collection of faculty assessment instruments. These envelopes were included to protect the anonymity of the individual faculty responses. A self-addressed, stamped mailing envelope was also included to aid the principal in returning all of the materials to the researcher.

All assessment materials were to be returned to the researcher by March 20. High school faculty participants were requested to complete their version of the instrument, place their answer sheet in the envelope that accompanied the EAEP instrument, and return the sealed envelope to their principal. All principals were asked to gather those envelopes and to mail their completed self-assessment instrument, with

those of the faculty, to the researcher. In early April, a follow-up letter (Appendix F) was sent to all principals who had agreed to participate in the study but had not yet returned the assessment materials.

Each principals' self-assessment scores for each of the 11 skill/behavior categories were calculated. These scores were recorded on the Administrative Skills Profile (Appendix G). The scores of the five faculty participants for each principal were also calculated and recorded on the Administrative Skills Profile. This completed profile presented a comparison between principal self ratings and the faculty other ratings of principal performance and showed those discrepancies which existed between the two groups.

These Administrative Skills Profiles were returned to all participating principals in early May, with a letter thanking them for their participation (Appendix H). Information was also shared in this letter on how to interpret the data—especially any discrepancies that might exist between the self and other ratings. A comprehensive Self-Development Guide describing the 11 categories was also included in the final mailing. In addition to containing support materials for each of the 11 skill/behavior categories, information was shared on implementing a plan of action for improving the administrative performance of school administrators. A suggested readings section was also provided in the guide.

Analysis of the Data

The raw data were processed for computer analysis at the Academic Computing Center on the University of Northern Iowa campus. Utilization

was made of the SPSS-X (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)
program. In addition, the Steinmetz statistical package (Steinmetz,
Romano, & Patterson, 1981) was used to compute Spearman's rho rank order
correlations between principal willingness to participate in 11
hypothetical in-service programs and the assessments principals make of
their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP
instrument.

The demographic data collected from participating principals were
tabulated. In addition to typical data such as the age and sex of
participating principals, data were also collected regarding the number
of students enrolled in the principal's school, the level of educational
attainment for each principal, and the number of years of experience in
the field of education and as a school administrator.

The EAEP instrument requested participants to describe
administrative behavior on a seven-point scale, ranging from almost
never (1) to always (7). Ten questions made up each of the 11
skill/behavior categories that were assessed on the EAEP. Descriptive
statistics such as means, standard deviations, and frequencies were
computed for each of the categories. Separate statistics were
calculated for principal self-assessments and teacher assessments of
administrative performance. These 11 skill/behavior categories were
ranked by size of mean to indicate the principals' performance in each
behavior area according to their self-perceptions.

Borg and Gall (1983) recommend that when data are in the form of
categories, frequency counts, or ranks, a nonparametric statistic should
be used in data analysis (p. 559). Since the data were in the form of

frequency counts, the decision was made to use the chi-square test of independence in order to test Statistical Hypotheses 1 through 11. The chi-square test of independence was performed for each of the 11 hypotheses to determine if statistically significant differences existed between principals and teachers in their perception of principal's performance.

In order to test Statistical Hypothesis 12, Spearman's rank order correlations were computed to determine the relationship between a principals' willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP. In order to normalize these data, the Fisher's Logarithmic Transformation of r was performed on these correlations. These data were utilized to determine whether a significant relationship exists between a principal's measure of willingness to participate in hypothetical in-service activities and that principal's self-assessment of performance.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The major purpose of this study was to determine if the
perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals and those of their
teachers differed significantly when applied to 11 categories of
administrative performance. Each senior high school principal was
requested to complete a self assessment version of the Educational
Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument. Each principal
also requested five of his/her faculty to complete a parallel version of
the EAEP instrument which provided feedback to the principal of faculty
perceptions of his/her administrative performance. A comparison was
made of these principals' and teachers' perceptions to determine if any
differences in perception were statistically significant.

A potential population of 196 senior high school principals was
identified from the 1986-87 Iowa Educational Directory which is
published by the Iowa Department of Education. Of this potential
population, 126 principals expressed a willingness to participate in the
study. This represented 64.28% of the initial population. Each of
these principals was mailed the EAEP materials.

The initial principal returns and the responses generated by a
follow-up letter resulted in 98 complete survey instruments from the 126
principals who had originally expressed a willingness to participate in
the study. Twenty-six principals who had originally agreed to
participate, failed to respond after receiving the EAEP materials and
follow-up letter. Two principals offered the EAEP instruments to

Associate Principals in their school to complete. These instruments were scored and the results returned, but the data were not included in the research. This resulted in a total of 96 senior high school principals participating in the study.

In addition, 470 teacher assessments of principal performance out of a possible 490 teacher assessments were included in the study. This represented 95.92% of all prospective faculty participants. As a result, a total of 566 individual assessments were included in the study.

<div align="center">Chapter Organization</div>

This chapter is comprised of five major sections. The first section restates the 12 specific statistical hypotheses that were tested in the study. All hypotheses are restated in the null form and correspond to the 12 research hypotheses that were listed in Chapter One.

The second section of this chapter provides a demographic description of the Iowa senior high school principals who participated in the study. Data were collected regarding the student enrollment at each principal's location, the level of educational attainment of each principal, and the number of years of experience in the field of education and in the specific area of educational administration.

The third section of the chapter presents the data that were collected from the principals' self-assessment. These data provide a description of the perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals of perceived areas of strength and weakness in their administrative performance.

Section four of the chapter is devoted to an analyses of the first 11 statistical hypotheses considered in the study. Use was made of the chi-square test of independence to determine if a significant relationship existed between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the 11 specific skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument. Each of the statistical hypotheses is restated and the results of the chi-square test of independence presented in table form.

The final section of the chapter describes the procedures used to determine if a relationship exists between a measure of principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument. Spearman's rho correlations will describe the strength of this relationship.

Statistical Hypotheses

Corresponding to the 12 research hypotheses contained in Chapter One, the following statistical hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Setting Goals and Objectives" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

2. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Planning" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

3. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the

skill/behavior category of "Making Decisions and Solving Problems" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

4. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

5. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Assessing Progress" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

6. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Delegating Responsibilities" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

7. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Communicating" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

8. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Building and Maintaining Relationships" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

9. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

10. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Improving Instruction" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

11. There is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Developing Staff" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

12. There is no significant relationship between a measure of a principal's willingness to participate in eleven hypothetical in-service programs and the self-assessment of the principal's performance in each of the 11 skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument.

Demographic Data

A total of 90 principals completed the demographic section of the EAEP instrument. These demographic data were tabulated and are presented in Table 1.

The demographic data revealed that the vast majority of participating principals were male (98.9%) and white (98.9%). Nearly 38% of the principals reported ages of 40-49 years, while an additional 34% reported ages of 50-59 years. Less than 6% of the principals reported ages of 60 years or more.

Nine of the 90 principals reported holding the doctorate. Nearly three-fourths (72.2%) reported having completed the Masters Degree, and another 17.8% have completed the Specialist Degree.

Two distinct patterns of school district enrollment were evident. Approximately two of five principals reported that they served in school

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participating Principals (N = 90)

Variable	Number	Percentage
Sex		
Male	89	98.89
Female	1	1.11
Race		
White	89	98.89
Black	1	1.11
Age		
20-29 years	0	0.00
30-39 years	20	22.22
40-49 years	34	37.78
50-59 years	31	34.44
60 + years	5	5.56
Level of Education		
Masters Degree	65	72.22
Specialists Degree	16	17.78
Doctorate	9	10.00
School District Enrollment		
Fewer than 399 students	5	5.56
400-799 students	26	28.89
800-1199 students	16	17.78
1200-1599 students	7	7.78
1600-1999 students	13	14.44
Over 2000 students	23	25.55
Student Enrollment at Principal's Location		
Fewer than 100 students	2	2.22
100-499 students	57	63.33
500-1000 students	17	18.89
Over 1000 students	14	15.56

(table continues)

Variable	Number	Percentage
Years in Education		
6-10 years	2	2.22
11-20 years	34	37.78
21-30 years	35	38.89
More than 30 years	19	21.11
Years in Educational Administration		
1-5 years	13	14.44
6-10 years	18	20.00
11-20 years	38	42.23
21-30 years	18	20.00
More than 30 years	3	3.33

districts enrolling at least 1600 students. The second largest student enrollment category was from 400 to 799 students. This enrollment category encompassed 28.89% of the study population.

Recently, attention has focused on the aging of our nation's educational administrators. For example, the 1985 survey conducted by the Educational Administrators of Iowa revealed that the average responding principal had been involved in education for 22 years and had served 14 years as a school administrator. Demographic results from this study revealed that 39% of the principals had been involved in education for 21-30 years while another 38% reported a tenure of 11-20 years in education. Interestingly, 21% of participating principals reported careers in education of "more than 30 years." The largest group of principals (42.23%) also reported administrative careers of from 11-20 years.

Principal Perceptions of Administrative Performance

In order to determine the self-perceptions of administrative performance held by Iowa senior high school principals, each participating principal was requested to complete the "self" version of the EAEP instrument. Mean scores were calculated for each of the 11 skill/behavior categories included in the instrument. The highest mean scores reflect skills and behaviors which are almost always practiced by Iowa senior high school principals participating in the study. Similarly, the lowest mean scores reflect skills and behaviors that are practiced less frequently. A ranking of mean scores of the 11 skill/behavior categories is presented in Table 2.

According to the survey results, principals perceived their greatest strengths to be in the categories of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment," "Building and Maintaining Relationships," and "Delegating Responsibility." The "Demonstrating Professional Commitment" category was defined as the efforts taken by the principal to improve his/her own professional skills and abilities by participating in professional growth experiences, being active in community governmental and political affairs, and modeling behaviors that are to be encouraged in others. "Building and Maintaining Relationships" was characterized by efforts made to demonstrate a caring attitude toward people, respecting confidences, and providing recognition and positive reinforcement to staff and students. The category of "Delegating Responsibility" contained behaviors such as fully explaining the results expected from an assignment and providing the necessary support and authority to complete a task.

Table 2

Principals' Perceptions of Administrative Performance and Rank of

Willingness to Participate in Hypothetical In-Service Activities

Skill/Behavior	Mean	SD	Rank*
Demonstrating Professional Commitment	5.95	0.53	9
Building and Maintaining Relationships	5.75	0.65	7
Delegating Responsibility	5.54	0.61	10
Planning	5.42	0.69	5
Communicating	5.40	0.57	6
Improving Instruction	5.36	0.63	1
Assessing Progress	5.36	0.73	3
Making Decisions and Solving Problems	5.29	0.61	8
Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs	5.28	0.72	11
Developing Staff	5.08	0.68	2
Setting Goals and Objectives	4.99	0.75	4

Note. *Rank Order of Principal Willingness to Participate in Inservice.

Principals were most critical of their efforts in the areas of

"Developing Staff" and "Setting Goals and Objectives." Characteristics

of the "Developing Staff" category include assisting staff to identify

prospective areas of improvement, creating opportunities for staff to

engage in professional growth and development, and involving staff in

planning professional growth experiences. Characteristics of the

"Setting Goals and Objectives" category included efforts to assure that school goals and mission statements are established, setting goals which could be observed and measured, and working to establish short, medium and long-range goals and objectives.

Analysis of the Data

For each of the survey questions, principals were asked to describe their administrative style and behavior by completing the phrase: "To what extent do I . . ." perform a certain behavior or skill. Principals were given seven options ranging from Almost Never to Always. For example, principals were asked the question, "To what extent do I give staff concrete feedback about their performance." If a principal perceived that he/she almost never performed that behavior, the principal was requested to designate the almost never column on the answer sheet. Likewise, if the principal perceived that he/she always performed that behavior, the always column on the answer sheet was to be chosen.

Using the same seven-point scale, teachers were requested to describe the administrative style and behavior of their principal. If teachers perceived their principal almost never performing that behavior, they were requested to mark the almost never column on the answer. These principal and teacher response patterns were analyzed in the study.

To test the first 11 statistical hypotheses of the study, the chi-square test of independence was utilized. These 11 hypotheses stated that there were no significant relationships between principals' and teachers' perceptions of administrative performance of the 11

skill/behavior categories assessed on the EAEP instrument. The chi-square statistic tests the independence of two variables through comparison of observed and expected frequencies. While testing the independence of two variables, chi-square reflected differences between teachers and principals in their perceptions of principal performance. The results of these 11 chi-square tests are presented below.

Hypothesis 1

Statistical Hypothesis 1 stated that there was no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Setting Goals and Objectives" as measured on the EAEP instrument. The results of this chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 3.

The chi-square analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between the responses of principals and teachers regarding their perceptions of administrative performance in the area of "Setting Goals and Objectives." The chi-square analysis resulted in a score of 21.725 (5, $N = 566$) which is too large to occur by chance. The analysis also resulted in a significance level (p) of 0.0006, which is far below the .05 significance level of the study. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis One was rejected.

When the percentages of the almost always and always columns in Table 3 were combined, over 47% of the teachers, compared to only 25% of the principals, perceived principals performing this skill or behavior this frequently. Different perceptions of administrative performance were evident between principals and teachers in the category of "Setting Goals and Objectives."

Table 3

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Setting Goals and Objectives

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.0	1.7	2	0.4
Sometimes	2	2.0	2.7	14	3.0	13.3	16	2.8
Often	21	22.0	17.5	82	17.4	85.5	103	18.2
Very Often	49	51.0	34.1	152	32.3	166.9	201	35.5
Almost Always	24	25.0	34.1	177	38.0	166.9	201	35.5
Always	0	0.0	7.3	43	9.2	35.7	43	7.6
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 21.725   df = 5 p = 0.0006

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

Hypothesis 2

Statistical Hypothesis 2 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Planning" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of this chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Planning

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Sometimes	1	1.0	1.8	5	1.0	5.0	6	0.4
Often	5	5.2	8.7	46	9.8	42.3	51	9.0
Very Often	46	47.9	35.4	163	34.7	173.6	209	36.9
Almost Always	41	42.7	42.4	209	44.5	207.6	250	44.2
Always	3	3.2	8.5	47	10.0	41.5	50	8.8
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 9.958   df = 4 p = 0.0411

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

The information in Table 4 reveals a chi-square score of 9.958 (4, N = 566). This score is higher than the critical chi-square value at the .05 level of significance (9.49) and is too large to occur by chance. Since the probability level (p = 0.0411) is below the accepted .05 level of the study, Statistical Hypothesis 2 was rejected. Stated another way, significantly different perceptions of administrative

performance were evident between principals and teachers in the skill/behavior category of "Planning."

Hypothesis 3

Statistical Hypothesis 3 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Making Decisions and Solving Problems" as measured on the EAEP instrument. The results of this chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 5.

The data in Table 5 reveal a significant relationship between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Making Decisions and Solving Problems." A chi-square score of 20.147 (4, N = 566) is significantly larger than the critical chi-square value at the .05 level of significance (9.49). Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

As was evident in the previous tables, when the percentages of the almost always and always columns were combined, teachers actually perceived principals performing this behavior more frequently than principals perceived themselves performing the behavior.

Hypothesis 4

Statistical Hypothesis 4 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 6.

Table 5

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Making Decisions and Solving Problems

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Sometimes	0	0.0	2.4	14	3.0	11.6	14	2.5
Often	8	8.3	13.7	73	15.5	67.3	81	14.3
Very Often	52	54.2	36.6	164	34.9	179.4	216	38.2
Almost Always	36	37.5	37.8	187	39.8	185.2	223	39.4
Always	0	0.0	5.4	32	6.8	26.2	32	5.7
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 20.147   df = 4 p = 0.005

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

The chi-square analysis in Table 6 reveals that a significant relationship does not exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs." A chi-square score of 7.958 (5, N = 566) is too small to suggest a significant difference in perception between principals and teachers. For a significant relationship to exist between principals and teachers

perceptions, a chi-square score of 11.07 was necessary at the .05 level of significance. The corresponding probability level ($\underline{p}$ = 0.1585) is above the .05 level, and suggests that the differences in perception are not significant. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 4 was not rejected. Significantly different perceptions of administrative performance were not evident between principals and teachers in the skill/behavior category of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs."

Table 6

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.4	1.7	2	0.4
Sometimes	0	0.0	1.9	11	2.3	9.1	11	1.9
Often	13	13.5	14.8	74	15.8	72.2	87	15.4
Very Often	45	46.9	38.2	180	38.3	186.8	225	39.8
Almost Always	36	37.5	34.6	168	35.7	169.4	204	36.0
Always	2	2.1	6.3	35	7.5	30.7	37	6.5
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 7.958   df = 5 $\underline{p}$ = 0.1585

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

Hypothesis 5

Statistical Hypothesis 5 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Assessing Progress" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the Category: Assessing Progress

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.4	1.7	2	0.4
Sometimes	0	0.0	2.5	15	3.2	12.5	15	2.7
Often	10	10.4	14.4	75	16.0	70.6	85	15.0
Very Often	45	46.9	33.4	152	32.3	163.6	197	34.8
Almost Always	37	38.5	35.3	171	36.4	172.7	208	36.7
Always	4	4.2	10.0	55	11.7	49.0	59	10.4
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 14.384   df = 5 p = 0.0133

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

The chi-square analysis in Table 7 reveals that a significant relationship does exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Assessing Progress" assessed on the EAEP instrument. A chi-square score of 14.384 (5, N = 566) is too large to occur by chance. The probability level (p) of 0.0133 is also below the accepted level of .05. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 5 was rejected. Significantly different perceptions of administrative performance were evident between principals and teachers in this category of "Assessing Progress."

Hypothesis 6

Statistical Hypothesis 6 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Delegating Responsibility" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 8.

The chi-square analysis in Table 8 reveals a significant relationship between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Delegating Responsibility." The chi-square analysis resulted in a score of 14.913 (5, N = 566) and is too large to occur by chance. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 6 was rejected. Interestingly, however, when the percentages of the almost always and always columns were combined, principals perceived themselves behaving more frequently in this category than did their teachers.

Hypothesis 7

Statistical Hypothesis 7 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the

Table 8

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Delegating Responsibility

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.4	1.7	2	0.4
Sometimes	0	0.0	1.2	7	1.5	5.8	7	1.2
Often	3	3.1	10.5	59	12.6	51.5	62	11.0
Very Often	41	42.7	35.1	166	35.3	171.9	207	36.6
Almost Always	49	51.0	41.0	193	41.1	201.0	242	42.8
Always	3	3.1	7.8	43	9.1	38.2	46	8.1
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 14.384   df = 5 p = 0.0107

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

principal's performance in the behavior category of "Communicating" as measured on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 9.

The chi-square data in Table 9 reveal that a significant relationship does exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category of "Communicating" on the EAEP instrument. The

chi-square analysis resulted in a score of 29.671 (5, N = 566) which is too large to occur by chance. The analysis also resulted in a significance level ($\underline{p}$) of 0.0001, which is far below the .05 significance level of the study. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 7 was rejected. Significantly different perceptions of administrative performance were evident between principals and teachers in the skill/behavior category of "Communicating."

Table 9

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Communicating

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.2	1	0.2	0.8	1	0.2
Sometimes	0	0.0	2.2	13	2.8	10.8	13	2.3
Often	4	4.2	11.7	65	13.8	57.3	69	12.2
Very Often	50	52.1	33.6	148	31.5	164.4	198	35.0
Almost Always	42	43.7	39.3	190	40.4	192.7	232	41.0
Always	0	0.0	9.0	53	11.3	44.4	53	9.4
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 29.671   df = 5 $\underline{p}$ = 0.0001

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

Hypothesis 8

Statistical Hypothesis 8 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Building and Maintaining Relationships" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the Category: Building and Maintaining Relationships

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.4	1.7	2	0.4
Sometimes	0	0.0	1.2	7	1.5	5.8	7	1.2
Often	3	3.1	9.8	55	11.7	48.2	58	10.2
Very Often	26	27.1	24.3	117	24.9	118.7	143	25.3
Almost Always	59	61.5	44.8	205	43.6	219.2	264	46.6
Always	8	8.3	15.6	84	17.9	76.4	92	16.3
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 17.615   df = 5   p = 0.0035

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

The information in Table 10 reveals a chi-square score of 17.615 (5, N = 566) in the category of "Building and Maintaining Relationships." Such a score is higher than the critical chi-square value at the .05 level of significance (11.07) and is too large to occur by chance. Since the probability level (p = 0.0035) is below the accepted .05 level of the study, Statistical Hypothesis 8 was rejected. The information in Table 10 was consistent with that in Table 8, since when the percentages of the almost always and always columns are combined, principals perceived themselves behaving more frequently in this category than did their teachers.

Hypothesis 9

Statistical Hypothesis 9 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment." The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 11.

The data in Table 11 reveal that a significant relationship does exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Demonstrating Professional Commitment" on the EAEP instrument. A chi-square score of 32.5419 (4, N = 566) is significantly larger than the critical value at the .05 level of significance (9.49). The corresponding probability level (p = 0.0001) suggests that there is less than one chance in ten thousand that such a large difference between the observed and expected frequencies could have occurred due to chance. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 9 was rejected. As in Tables 8 and 10, when the percentages of the almost always and always columns are

combined, principals perceived their own behavior in this category more frequently (83.3%) than did their teachers perceive this behavior in their principals (71.9%).

Table 11

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the Category: Demonstrating Professional Commitment

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Sometimes	0	0.0	0.3	2	0.4	1.7	2	0.4
Often	0	0.0	6.8	40	8.5	33.2	40	7.1
Very Often	16	16.7	18.0	90	19.1	88.0	106	18.7
Almost Always	69	71.9	45.8	201	42.8	224.2	270	47.7
Always	11	11.4	25.1	137	29.1	122.9	148	26.1
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 32.5419   df = 4 p = 0.0001

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

Hypothesis 10

Statistical Hypothesis 10 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the

principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Improving Instruction" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the Category: Improving Instruction

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0.0	0	0.0
Seldom	0	0.0	0.2	1	0.2	0.8	1	0.2
Sometimes	0	0.0	2.4	14	2.9	11.6	14	2.5
Often	7	7.3	12.6	67	14.3	61.4	74	13.1
Very Often	48	50.0	31.4	137	29.1	153.6	185	32.7
Almost Always	40	41.7	39.3	192	40.9	192.7	232	41.0
Always	1	1.0	10.2	59	12.6	49.8	60	10.6
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 26.6023   df = 5 p = 0.0001

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

The analysis in Table 12 reveals that a significant relationship does exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the

category "Improving Instruction." A chi-square score of 26.6023 (5, N = 566) is much too large to occur by chance. In addition, the probability level (p) of 0.0001 is also below the accepted level of .05. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 10 was rejected. Significantly different perceptions of administrative performance were evident between principals and teachers in the skill/behavior category of "Improving Instruction."

Hypothesis 11

Statistical Hypothesis 11 stated that there is no significant relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Developing Staff" as assessed on the EAEP instrument. The results of the chi-square test of independence are presented in Table 13.

The chi-square analysis in Table 13 reveals that a significant relationship does exist between the perceptions of principals and teachers in the category "Developing Staff." The chi-square score of 22.7753 (6, N = 566) is too large to occur by chance. The analysis also resulted in a probability level (p) of 0.0009. This probability level suggests that there are less than nine chances out of ten thousand that such a large difference between the observed and expected frequencies could have occurred due solely to chance. Therefore, Statistical Hypothesis 11 was rejected. In this situation, when the almost always and always percentages are combined, teachers perceived principal performance in "Developing Staff" more frequently than principals perceived their own performance in this category.

Table 13

Chi-Square Analysis of Principal and Teacher Responses in the

Category: Developing Staff

Response	Principal			Teacher			Total	
	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%(o)	f(e)	f(o)	%
Almost Never	0	0.0	0.3	1	0.2	0.8	1	0.2
Seldom	0	0.0	0.7	4	0.8	3.3	4	0.7
Sometimes	0	0.0	5.1	30	6.4	24.9	30	5.3
Often	17	17.7	16.6	81	17.2	81.4	98	17.3
Very Often	55	57.3	38.3	171	36.4	187.7	226	39.9
Almost Always	23	24.0	28.7	146	31.1	140.3	169	29.9
Always	1	1.0	6.4	37	7.9	31.6	38	6.7
Totals	96			470			566	100.0

Chi-Square = 22.7753   df = 6 p = 0.0009

Note. f(o) = Observed Frequency and f(e) = Expected Frequency.

Summary of Chi-Square Analysis

This section of the chapter was devoted to an analysis of the first 11 statistical hypotheses considered in the study. Use was made of the chi-square test of independence to determine if significant relationships existed between the perceptions of principals and teachers of the 11 skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument.

Each of the statistical hypotheses was restated and the results of the chi-square test presented in table form.

A summary of the chi-square analysis is presented in Table 14. It is apparent that significant differences did exist between principals' and teachers' perceptions of principal's performance in 10 of the 11 skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument.

Table 14

Summary of Chi-Square Values and Significance Levels Between

Principal and Teacher Responses

Category	Value	Significance
Setting Goals and Objectives	21.725	0.0006 *
Planning	9.958	0.0411 *
Making Decisions and Solving Problems	20.147	0.0005 *
Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs	7.958	0.1585
Assessing Progress	14.384	0.0133 *
Delegating Responsibility	14.913	0.0107 *
Communicating	29.671	0.0001 *
Building and Maintaining Relationships	17.616	0.0035 *
Demonstrating Professional Commitment	32.542	0.0001 *
Improving Instruction	26.602	0.0001 *
Developing Staff	22.775	0.0009 *

Note. * Significant at the .05 level of significance.

In order to gain additional insight from the data, efforts were made to further analyze the response patterns of teachers and principals. Special attention was focused on the frequency of each skill/behavior as it was perceived by both principals and teachers. To facilitate this effort, observed percentage columns were developed for both principals and teachers and were included in the chi-square tables presented in this chapter.

The examination of the observed percentage columns of principals and teachers was not particularly instructive. It was apparent, though, that when the percentages of the almost always and the always columns were combined, teachers perceived principals performing the following 8 skills or behaviors more frequently than principals perceived themselves performing them: Setting Goals and Objectives, Planning, Making Decisions and Solving Problems, Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs, Assessing Progress, Communicating, Improving Instruction, and Developing Staff. Only with regard to Delegating Responsibility, Building and Maintaining Relationships, and Demonstrating Professional Commitment did principals perceive themselves to behave more frequently than their teachers.

While neither the chi-square analysis nor the additional examination of the data disclosed the specific nature of the differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions of administrative performance, the data disclosed that significant differences existed in the two groups' perceptions of principals' performance in 10 of the 11 EAEP categories. The why of this difference in perception is interesting but, of course, study data are silent. It is apparent that

one must examine the perceptions <u>in the local school</u> if one hopes to isolate the precise nature of those differences.

<u>Hypothesis 12</u>

Statistical Hypothesis 12 stated that there is no significant relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals made of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument. Rank order correlations were calculated for each principal's rating of willingness to participate in in-service programs and the self-assessment scores on the EAEP instrument. The measure of principal's willingness to participate in in-service programs was collected before the EAEP instruments were completed. The purpose of this exercise was to determine if principals expressed a willingness to participate in in-service programs based on areas they assessed to be "weak" on an administrative assessment instrument. Table 15 displays the distributions of correlations.

Arkin and Colton (1964) suggest that when working with sample correlations, an adjustment is necessary since the sampling distribution departs from normality. They stated: "Since the sampling distribution of the coefficient of correlation is non-normal . . . the standard error of the coefficient of correlation is not considered a valid measure for use in testing the significance or reliability of that measure" (p. 16). Blommers and Lindquist (1960) also recommended that:

> If the population correlation differs from zero, the sampling distribution departs from normality in form unless the sample is <u>extremely</u> large. This departure becomes more and more marked as the value of the correlation approaches plus or minus one. (p. 462).

Table 15

Distribution of Rank Order Correlations Between a Principal's

Willingness to Participate in In-Service and Self Assessment of

Performance (N = 91)

Correlation	Frequency
.60 to .69	4
.50 to .59	9
.40 to .49	7
.30 to .39	8
.20 to .29	10
.10 to .19	10
.00 to .09	8
.00 to -.09	10
-.10 to -.19	11
-.20 to -.29	2
-.30 to -.39	5
-.40 to -.49	4
-.50 to -.59	3

Note. Correlations range from .6898 to -.5864.

In order to test Hypothesis 12, the decision was made to utilize
transformed scores. Therefore, it was necessary to transform the
correlation values shown in Table 15 by making use of the procedure
known as Fisher's Logarithmic Transformation of r. Each correlation

value was transformed into a value known as the Fisher's z, the value of which would be normally distributed with a variance equal to $1/(N-3)$.

These transformed scores were added (11.1283) and divided by the number of cases in the study (91) to yield an average transformed score of 0.1223. In order to test Hypothesis 12, this average transformed score was divided by the standard error (0.1066) to obtain a transformed z score of 1.1473.

In order to reject Statistical Hypothesis 12 that there is no significant relationship between a measure of a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the self assessment of principal's performance in each of the 11 skill/behavior categories on the EAEP, a z score larger than the critical z value at the .05 level of significance, 1.96, was necessary. Based on the information above, we cannot reject Hypothesis 12. Stated another way, there is no relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument. It does not appear to be true that principals are willing to attend in-service programs based solely upon their own perceived professional growth and development needs.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if the perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals and those of their teachers differed significantly when applied to 11 categories of administrative performance. The study included a self-assessment of individual performance by each participating senior high school principal and feedback from five of the principal's faculty members who were familiar with each principal's performance. A comparison was made of principals' and teachers' perceptions of administrative performance in each of the 11 skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument to determine if any differences in perception were significant. The study also determined the relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals made of their performance in the 11 categories contained on the EAEP instrument. Consideration was given to the implications of these principals' and teachers' perceptions for principals' professional development.

Hypotheses

Twelve hypotheses were tested in the study:

1. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Setting Goals and Objectives" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

2. There is no difference between principals' and teachers'

perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Planning" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

3. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Making Decisions and Solving Problems" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

4. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

5. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Assessing Progress" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

6. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Delegating Responsibility" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

7. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Communicating" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

8. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior category of "Building and Maintaining Relationships" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

9. There is no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior

category of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment" as measured on the
EAEP instrument.

10. There is no difference between principals' and teachers'
perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior
category of "Improving Instruction" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

11. There is no difference between principals' and teachers'
perceptions of the principal's performance in the skill/behavior
category of "Developing Staff" as measured on the EAEP instrument.

12. There is no significant relationship between a principals'
willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and
the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11
skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument.

Conclusions

The major portion of this study was devoted to an analyses of the
first 11 hypotheses. Use was made of the chi-square test of
independence to determine if a significant relationship existed between
principals' and teachers' perceptions of administrative performance in
the 11 skill/behavior categories contained on the EAEP instrument. The
chi-square statistic was calculated on the differences between the
observed and expected frequency counts. Based on the data gathered from
96 Iowa senior high school principals and 470 faculty responses, the
following conclusions were drawn:

1. Significant differences were evident between principals and
teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the
skill/behavior category of "Setting Goals and Objectives."

2. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Planning."

3. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Making Decisions and Solving Problems."

4. Significant differences were not evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs."

5. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Assessing Progress."

6. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Delegating Responsibility."

7. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Communicating."

8. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Building and Maintaining Relationships."

9. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Demonstrating Professional Commitment."

10. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Improving Instruction."

11. Significant differences were evident between principals and teachers in their perceptions of administrative performance in the skill/behavior category of "Developing Staff."

Based on the chi-square analyses, it is apparent that significant differences did exist between principals' and teachers' perceptions of principals' performance in 10 of the 11 skill/behavior categories on the EAEP instrument. The tendency was for teachers to perceive more frequent behaviors than principals perceived.

12. There is no relationship between a principal's willingness to participate in 11 hypothetical in-service programs and the assessment principals make of their performance in the 11 skill/behavior categories of the EAEP instrument.

Discussion

Recent efforts have focused on how best to address the professional development needs of school administrators. Special attempts have been made by national organizations such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, and the American Association of School Administrators to offer conferences and workshops. Several major colleges and universities have established Principals' Centers to provide growth opportunities for school administrators, and other universities have made use of the National Association of Secondary

School Principals' Assessment Center to help assess the skills and aptitudes of potential school administrators.

Several authors have suggested, however, that a more appropriate method of analyzing administrator professional development needs would be to give consideration to the unique problems, needs, and concerns of the staff members with whom the administrator works. Meyer and Van Hoose (1981) stated, for example, that it was imperative for principals to determine teacher perceptions of administrative performance and suggested regularly-scheduled surveys of teacher perceptions for that purpose. Tracy (1984) argued that a formal channel was needed if principals hoped to reduce the documented perception gap that existed between principals and teachers regarding administrative performance. Earlier, Grooters (1979) and Gaut (1969) both spoke of the value to principals of actively seeking ways to determine teacher perceptions of administrative performance.

The concept of utilizing input from teachers to assist in the professional development of principals has recently received renewed attention. Brandt (1987) described research being conducted by the College of Education at the University of Washington. In an innovative program involving 64 school districts in the state of Washington, long-term improvement plans for school districts are being developed which specifically call for teachers and principals to share perceptions of the principals' performance in nine behavior categories. In the program, principals are encouraged not only to determine why teachers hold the perceptions they do, but also to use this teacher

feedback to help determine personal growth and development plans for principals.

Another recent application of the use of teacher feedback to school administrators was described by Hallinger and Murphy (1987). They related the steps that were taken to develop the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale, an instrument used to assess principal leadership performance. Principals and teachers are asked to describe administrator style and behavior by using a five-point Likert scale ranging from Almost Never (1) to Almost Always (5). The instrument is administered to both teachers and principals to determine their perceptions of administrative performance. As Hallinger and Murphy explained, "When used in conjunction with training, this systematic, research-based tool provides information principals can use to identify areas of their own professional development and to make decisions regarding the school program" (p. 61).

These recent efforts, in conjunction with the conclusions reached in this research project, appear to confirm the importance of determining the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding administrative performance, since it is clear that sharp differences exist in these perceptions. These perceptual differences hold important implications for programs aimed at improving the performance of principals. While it is not possible to identify from a general study like this one the exact nature of those differences, it is clear they exist. As suggested in Chapter IV, the local setting is obviously the key to understanding the specifics of these differences. Therefore, it is imperative for school administrators to attempt to determine what

perceptions teachers may have of their administrative performance and work to better understand those perceptions.

Until very recently, attempts to determine areas of prospective professional development for school administrators based on the concerns of the client system were seldom utilized. Instead, it was much more common for states to mandate professional development, which typically failed to take into account the unique needs of the client system. Similarly, attending workshops or taking university courses for credit may fulfill the continuing education requirements many states require for school administrators, but those activities may also fail to provide any long-term change at the local school level. As Gaut (1969) stated:

> Different investigations of the principalship neglect to a large degree the interdependency of his roles, and the way in which he and his faculty perceive his performance. Many such studies also fail to analyze the influence of the environment in which his performance is case. (pp. 8-9)

For these reasons, this study was conducted to determine if the perceptions of Iowa senior high school principals and those of their teachers differed significantly when applied to administrative performance in 11 skill/behavior categories. Based on results of that study, which involved 96 Iowa senior high school principals and 470 teachers, the following recommendations are made.

<div align="center">

Recommendations
</div>

1. High school principals should give consideration to the unique problems, needs, and concerns of their teachers in designing their own professional growth and development programs. Input from faculty has been shown in the professional literature to be mutually advantageous to both principals and faculty. Such feedback should provide

administrators the opportunity to address <u>specific</u> supervisory behaviors through professional growth and development programs.

2. The Iowa Department of Education, the Iowa Principals' Academy, the Area Education Agencies, and administrator-preparation institutions should recognize the benefits principals could receive by giving consideration to the unique problems, needs, and concerns of each administrative setting. These agencies should encourage principals to collect feedback data from their clients regarding their perceptions of administrative performance, and monitor the incorporation of this information as a focus for administrator professional development programs.

3. While this study was able to conclude that significant differences existed between the perceptions of teachers and senior high school principals in Iowa regarding administrative performance, it also seems appropriate to utilize the client system to assist superintendents of schools, elementary principals and middle school principals in planning for professional growth and development. Significant differences in perceptions about administrative performance between teachers and administrators are probably not unique to senior high school principals. Studies comparing the perceptions of teachers with those held by superintendents, with those of elementary principals and with those of middle school principals should also be very instructive in helping those administrators plan for their continued professional growth and development.

4. The ranking of principals' mean scores in the 11 skill/behavior categories (Table 14) revealed that principals were most critical of

their efforts (i.e., their mean scores were lowest) in the areas of "Developing Staff" and "Setting Goals and Objectives." Characteristics of the "Developing Staff" category include assisting staff to identify prospective areas of improvement and creating opportunities for staff to engage in professional growth and development. Characteristics of the "Setting Goals and Objectives" category include initiating efforts to assure that school goals and mission statements are established and working to establish short-range, medium-range, and long-range objectives.

Since the state of Iowa has recently embarked upon a multi-million dollar effort to provide for the professional development of teachers, it is evident that assistance must be provided principals in establishing appropriate goals and objectives for their professional development efforts, and in identifying prospective areas of professional growth for their faculty and staff. It is strongly recommended that the Area Education Agencies, the Iowa Principals' Academy, and administrator-preparation institutions provide guidance and assistance to school administrators in the areas of "Developing Staff" and "Setting Goals and Objectives."

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Introductory Letter

February 2, 1987

Dear Principal:

I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at the University of Northern Iowa, where my advisor is Dr. James Albrecht. I intend to conduct a study that compares the perceptions of principals and their faculty regarding principal performance. I hope the information generated from the study will be useful both to participants and perhaps, to the Iowa Principals' Academy.

Since the population in this study will include all of the senior high school principals in Iowa, I am writing to request your participation. The following information will help you to understand the procedures for carrying out this study and your prospective role in it:

A. Instrumentation: The data for this study will be collected by utilizing the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile, an instrument which was developed to assist school administrators assess, analyze, and strengthen the skills and behaviors that are crucial to their success as school administrators. The Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile is composed of 120 items and is designed to be completed in 20-25 minutes.

B. Procedures: 1) Each senior high school principal will complete his/her self-assessment instrument. 2) Each principal will request five faculty members in his/her school to complete a companion instrument which parallels the one completed by the principal. Principals are encouraged to choose teachers whose opinions they value and trust and who can accurately assess their on-the-job performance. 3) Each of the five faculty participants will complete the instrument, place the answer sheet in an accompanying envelope, seal the envelope and return it to the principal. 4) Principals will gather all envelopes and return them to me in a self-addressed, stamped envelope I will provide.

C. Feedback: Each principal will receive a Visual Comparison Profile which will graphically show a comparison of principal "self ratings" and their faculty ratings of principal performance. This profile will reveal any discrepancies that might exist between the two groups. As the creators of the instrument state: "With this new information, the administrator can make a more enlightened decision about where to start a professional development process."
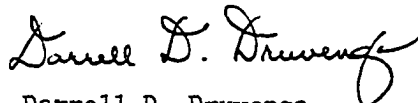
Please understand that your participation in this study will be of **mutual benefit.** While I gather data for my dissertation, you will directly benefit in the following ways:

1. You will receive a FREE professional assessment of your administrative performance on an instrument that would cost $25 per instrument if you chose to utilize the instrument yourself. You will receive this assessment FREE OF CHARGE simply by participating in the study.

2. You will obtain a Visual Comparison Profile of how you view your performance as an administrator compared to how your faculty view your performance. This information could be helpful to you in planning your own professional development.

3. You will receive a copy of the 71 page Educational Administrator Effectiveness Self Development Guide. This guide contains a wealth of information about analyzing and assessing your individual performance as a school administrator.

I hope that I have adequately described my proposed study and explained how your participation will be professionally beneficial to you. Please let me hear from you within the next few days by responding to the enclosed questionnaire and returning it to me in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at the Northern University High School in Cedar Falls at (319) 273-6028.

Thank you for considering my request. I hope that you will be able to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

Darrell D. Druvenga
Doctoral Student, University of Northern Iowa

APPENDIX B

Preliminary Survey

_____ YES, I will participate in the study. (PLEASE COMPLETE THE REMAINDER OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.)

_____ NO, I will not participate in the study.   (SIMPLY RETURN THIS SHEET IN THE ACCOMPANYING ENVELOPE.)

_____

DIRECTIONS:

Listed below are eleven hypothetical in-service programs which might be offered to senior high school principals. Please *rank order all* of them according to how willing you would be to participate in each: the activity that you would be "eager" to participate in should receive a "1"; the activity that you would "not be at all interested in participating in" should receive an "11".

Hypothetical In-Service Programs

_____ 1. *Setting Goals and Objectives.* (Establishing procedures for developing and prioritizing goals; involving faculty, community and students in developing objectives.)

_____ 2. *Planning.* (Anticipating future developments and using this knowledge for the benefit of the organization.)

_____ 3. *Making Decisions and Solving Problems.* (Identifying and defining factors which inhibit or facilitate the progress of the organization.

_____ 4. *Managing Business and Fiscal Affairs.* (Deploying resources to support the educational and human values held by the organization.)

_____ 5. *Assessing Progress.* (Establishing high but realistic expectations for students and staff; supervising staff and evaluating their performance.)

_____ 6. *Delegating Responsibilities.* (Providing the necessary authority, support and resources when delegating; using delegation as a way to motivate employees.)

_____ 7. *Communicating.* (Communicating effectively orally and in writing; encouraging the sharing of information and ideas throughout the organization.)

_____ 8. *Building and Maintaining Relationships.* (Dealing effectively with individual staff members, students, parents, and with organized employee and community groups.)

_____ 9. *Demonstrating Professional Commitment.* (Modeling behaviors you want to encourage in others; improving yourself by engaging in formal and informal growth activities.)

_____ 10. *Improving Instruction.* (Using sound educational research and theory in stimulating and supporting instructional improvement.)

_____ 11. *Developing Staff.* (Conducting and facilitating on-going needs assessments to identify staff development areas which require attention.)

APPENDIX C

Follow-Up Letter

February 23, 1987

Dear Principal:

Three weeks ago, I sent a preliminary questionnaire to all senior high school principals in Iowa and requested their participation in my doctoral dissertation study. My records show that I have not received your reply. Perhaps the initial questionnaire was lost in the mail, or it is possible, that you did not receive the initial mailing. As you know, the greater the response that I generate for my study, the more valid the results. Your assistance is greatly needed and appreciated.

I am a doctoral student in Educational Administration at the University of Northern Iowa, where my advisor is Dr. James Albrecht. I intend to conduct a study that compares the perceptions of principals and their faculty regarding principal performance. The data will be collected on the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile, an instrument which was developed to assess, analyze, and strengthen the skills and behaviors that are crucial to the success of school administrators.
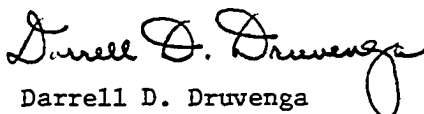
In addition to the principal "self-assessment," each principal will request five faculty members to complete a companion instrument which parallels the one completed by the principal. You will receive a Visual Comparison Profile of how you view your performance compared to how your faculty view your performance.

Please take a few minutes to respond to the enclosed questionnaire. If you agree to participate, please rank order all of the hypothetical in-service activities from "1,2,3...9,10,11" according to how willing you would be to participate in each activity. If you choose not to participate, simply mark "No" on the questionnaire.

Please return all questionnaires in the enclosed envelope before March 4, 1987. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at the Northern University High School in Cedar Falls at (319) 273-6028.

Again, thank you for your assistance in this matter.

Sincerely,

Darrell D. Druvenga

APPENDIX D

EAEP Principal Assessment Package

March 4, 1987

Dear Principal:

THANK YOU for your willingness to participate in my study! As I
mentioned in my previous letter, my study will compare the perceptions
of principals and their faculty regarding principal performance. This
study is designed to provide you with confidential feedback on your
specific administrative skills and behavior.
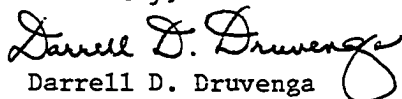
PROCEDURE:

1. Please find six questionnaires enclosed in this packet—one
called "Self Description" to be completed by YOU, and five
questionnaires called "Description by Others" to be completed by five
of your faculty.

2. An answer sheet upon which you record your responses is found
under the flap at the back of your questionnaire. For each item on the
answer sheet, circle the checkmark in the column that you believe best
describes your administrative style and behavior. Please make every
effort to respond to all items as frankly as possible.

3. Please complete the back side of your answer sheet which calls
for general demographic information.

4. Distribute the five "Descriptions by Others" questionnaires
(and the envelopes they are contained in) to five faculty in your
school whose opinions and judgments you respect and from whom you would
like objective feedback. Ask the faculty to complete their
questionnaire describing your administrative behavior.

5. Request the faculty participants to place only their answer
sheets in the accompanying envelope, seal the envelope, and return it
to you. You are requested to return them, along with your answer sheet
to me in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. Return the
materials to me at your earliest convenience.

Feedback on how your faculty, as a group, described your
administrative behavior will be returned to you later this Spring. To
be certain that you receive prompt feedback, please be sure to return
the materials no later than March 20, 1987.

If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at the Northern
University High School in Cedar Falls at (319) 273-6028.

Sincerely,

Darrell D. Druvenga

123

Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile
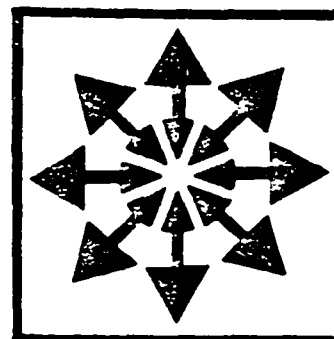
Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile

INSTRUCTIONS:

The purpose of this inventory is to help you diagnose your administrative behavior as an aid to your self-improvement efforts. Getting to know more about yourself will help you increase your job performance. To become a better administrator you need to know what to strengthen as well as what you currently do well. The quality and utility of the feedback you receive from this survey will be directly related to how accurate and open you are in choosing your answers. *Read each question carefully.* Not all items describe effective administrative behavior.

An answer sheet upon which you record your responses is found under the flap at the back of this inventory. For each item on the answer sheet circle the checkmark in the column which best describes your administrative style and behavior. When an item in this instrument asks a question about "staff" it refers to those individuals for whom you have direct responsibility. When the term "unit" is used it refers to that part of the organization for which you are responsible. If an item is totally inappropriate to your area of responsibility you may leave it blank, but please make every effort to respond to all items as frankly as possible.

SAMPLE ITEM:

To what extent do I . . .

151. . . . solve problems effectively.

If you feel you "almost never" solve problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column.

If you feel you "often" solve problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column.

If you feel you "always," without fail, solve problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column.

To what extent do I . . .

1. ...fail to assure goals and objectives are developed.

2. ...develop short-term objectives which contribute little to long-range goals.

3. ...encourage setting objectives which are stated in concrete, measurable, or observable terms.

4. ...anticipate the need for resources to carry out plans.

5. ...move ahead without securing sufficient information upon which to base plans.

6. ...work systematically on factors which affect the progress of the organization.

7. ...identify several tentative solutions before selecting one to act on.

8. ...pursue problem solving alone without involving appropriate others.

9. ...place a low priority on securing resources to provide necessary programs and services.

10. ...establish and carefully implement fiscal controls.

11. ...carry out my present assignment well.

12. ...give staff concrete feedback about their performance.

13. ...see that students are reaching expected levels of achievement.

14. ...see that student progress is assessed regularly.

15. ...adequately explain the responsibilities involved when delegating tasks.

16. ...encourage staff to use their own judgment once responsibilities have been determined.

17. ...fail to establish effective two-way communication.

18. ...assure that communication within my part of the organization is open and flows freely.

19. ...fail to listen carefully to others.

20. ...give attention to staff needs without neglecting task accomplishment.

21. ...behave in ways that show I value people.

22. ...accept and act on feedback about my performance.

23. ...devote time and effort to appropriate school-community activities.

24. ...attend and, when appropriate, take an active role in school-sponsored events.

25. ...fail to actively seek opportunities to improve my knowledge and skills.

26. ...initiate instructional improvement efforts based on educational research and proven methods.

27. ...place a low priority on curriculum development activities.

28. ...show little interest in development of staff.

29. ...help staff define their professional development needs and goals on both a scheduled and on an "as needed" basis.

30. ...help coordinate individual staff member's professional development objectives with the goals of the organization.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent do I . . .

31. ...develop objectives with input from appropriate individuals and groups.

32. ...develop and prioritize goals and objectives using well-conceived procedures.

33. ...actively and effectively marshal support for goals and objectives.

34. ...consider both the quality and the acceptability of a plan as it is developed.

35. ...plan things to death.

36. ...make decisions based on established criteria.

37. ...evaluate suggestions on the basis of who the ideas came from rather than on their merit.

38. ...implement agreed-on decisions effectively.

39. ...inform staff about fiscal procedures and their rationale.

40. ...develop fiscal procedures without input from others.

41. ...manage people effectively.

42. ...assure that my performance is reviewed and evaluated regularly.

43. ...assure short-term results support long-term gains.

44. ...actively seek feedback about my professional performance.

45. ...demonstrate an overconcern with checking on people who have been given responsibilities.

46. ...take into account staff skills when delegating tasks.

47. ...assess and react appropriately to verbal and non-verbal cues.

48. ...give convincing presentations and speeches using language and media appropriate to the audience.

49. ...communicate the mission of the organization so that staff is inspired to work toward accomplishing the mission.

50. ...encourage competition rather than cooperation among staff.

51. ...build a cooperative work team.

52. ...have a vision of what could be and help others work toward it.

53. ...stand up for what's good for education.

54. ...devote time and effort to professional organizations.

55. ...behave in ways that show commitment to quality education.

56. ...encourage the use of new instructional techniques.

57. ...actively assess staff's understanding of effective teaching and learning practices.

58. ...fail to involve staff in planning their growth and development experiences.

59. ...view staff growth as important to developing and maintaining an effective organization.

60. ...regard staff professional growth as the total responsibility of the individual.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent do I . . .

61. ...neglect to initiate activities which accomplish goals and objectives.

62. ...base goals and objectives on accurate information about needs.

63. ...devote appropriate time and effort to planning.

64. ...consider the task is done once goals are determined.

65. ...make realistic estimates of the time and resources needed to get things done.

66. ...use creative approaches to solving problems.

67. ...have problems choosing the course of action that will best lead to desired results.

68. ...allocate funds among units based on fair, well-understood criteria.

69. ...seek resource alternatives inside and outside the school system when funds are needed.

70. ...demonstrate concern for the cost-effectiveness of programs.

71. ...relate effectively to staff.

72. ...hold unrealistic expectations for what the unit I'm responsible for should accomplish.

73. ...see that staff evaluation takes place regularly.

74. ...give others authority to get the job done when delegating tasks.

75. ...fail to consider staff motivation when delegating tasks.

76. ...delegate tasks as a way to improve staff skills.

77. ...produce written communications which are clear.

78. ...fail to communicate educational accomplishments and needs to the community.

79. ...favor some staff but strictly apply rules and policies to others.

80. ...keep my word and stick to agreements made.

81. ...note, praise, and reward peoples' positive contributions.

82. ...convince staff that their effort makes a difference.

83. ...model the behavior I want to encourage in others as a way of improving their behavior.

84. ...criticize my organization inappropriately.

85. ...seek to enhance student growth by providing opportunities for staff to gain new skills.

86. ...fail to assure that curriculum content relates to the established goals and objectives.

87. ...work to establish a good learning environment for students.

88. ...provide ways for staff to share new skills and describe growth experiences.

89. ...reward staff who obtain and use knowledge and skills which are of value to the organization.

90. ...strive to assure staff enjoys their work and is excited about teaching.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent do I . . .

91. ...disseminate information widely about established goals and objectives.

92. ...assure objectives speak to all major goals.

93. ...keep track of the progress of staff planning efforts.

94. ...seek relevant input from staff in the planning process.

95. ...wait for things to take care of themselves.

96. ...use group concensus appropriately in decision making.

97. ...identify the causes of problems through collection and analysis of pertinent information.

98. ...exercise control over the inventory of materials and supplies.

99. ...assure that physical facilities are well maintained.

100. ...allocate funds without considering overall priorities.

101. ...seek to improve my performance.

102. ...fail to assure that established goals for my unit are met.

103. ...tell people in my work group about their performance only when something goes wrong.

104. ...provide feedback about how well individuals are carrying out tasks delegated to them.

105. ...think no one else can do jobs as well as I can.

106. ...make certain needed support is available to carry out work assignments.

107. ...use suggestions from others about ways to improve communication.

108. ...hold tightly controlled staff meetings characterized by one-way communication.

109. ...actively work on establishing and maintaining trust.

110. ...manage staff conflict ineffectively.

111. ...establish effective relationships with the community.

112. ...inspire staff to feel more hopeful about the future.

113. ...help out when special problems arise that require extra effort.

114. ...volunteer to do tasks that will strengthen the organization.

115. ...fail to make appropriate efforts to provide resources for improving instruction.

116. ...provide additional instructional opportunities for students who are not progressing at expected levels.

117. ...regularly review instructional programs to insure they meet student needs.

118. ...take advantage of opportunities to turn staff mistakes into learning experiences.

119. ...fail to work with staff on aspects of their performance that need strengthening.

120. ...provide a work environment where people care about each other.

APPENDIX E

EAEP Faculty Assessment Package

March 4, 1987

Dear Faculty Participant:

Your principal has agreed to participate in my doctoral study that compares the perceptions of principals and their faculty regarding principal performance. A <u>critical</u> part of this study is the need for a <u>realistic assessment</u> of your principal's relative strengths and weaknesses as a school administrator.

Your principal has been asked to seek the opinions and judgments of at least five faculty who are aware of his/her administrative style. You are one of the five faculty chosen to participate in this study.

Please fill out this survey describing the way <u>you</u> see your principal behaving on the job. It is very important to be <u>candid</u> and <u>objective</u> in your responses. Please realize that your survey will be scored and the results combined with those of other faculty in describing your principals' behavior. Your principal will receive <u>only</u> the averaged scores, <u>not</u> your individual responses.

PROCEDURE:
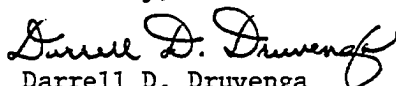
1. An answer sheet upon which you record your responses is found under the flap at the back of your questionnaire. For each item on the answer sheet circle the checkmark in the column which best describes your principal's administrative style and behavior. Please make every effort to respond to all items as frankly as possible.

2. You are requested to place <u>only your answer sheet</u> in the accompanying envelope, <u>seal the envelope</u>, and <u>return it to your principal</u>. Your principal will return the <u>sealed</u> envelopes to me.

In order for your principal to receive prompt feedback, please be sure to return your questionnaire to him at your earliest convenience—hopefully by <u>March 13, 1987</u>.

Thank you for your participation in this study!

Sincerely,

Darrell D. Druvenga
Doctoral Student, University of Northern Iowa

Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile
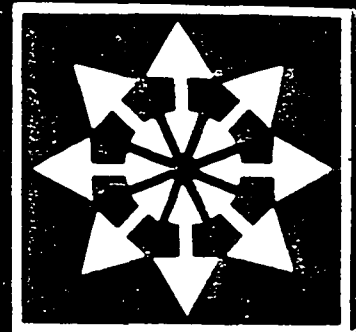
Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile

INSTRUCTIONS:

You are one of a number of people selected to participate in a program which will help an individual assess how he/she functions as an administrator. This inventory is a part of this administrator's self-improvement effort. Please fill out this survey describing the way you see this person behaving on the job. *Read each question carefully.* Not all items describe effective administrative behavior.

This survey will be scored and the results combined with those of other people describing this person's behavior. The administrator will see only the averaged scores, not your individual responses. Do *not* return this survey to the person you are describing.

An answer sheet upon which you record your responses is found under the flap at the back of this inventory. For each item on the answer sheet circle the checkmark in the column which best describes this person's administrative style and behavior. Please keep in mind the scope of this administrator's responsibilities. When an item in this instrument asks a question about "staff" it refers to individuals for whom this administrator has direct responsibility. When the term "unit" is used it refers to that part of the organization for which this administrator is responsible. If an item is totally inappropriate you may leave it blank, but please make every effort to respond to all items as frankly as possible.

SAMPLE ITEM:

To what extent does this administrator . . .

151. . . . solve problems effectively.

If you feel this administrator "almost never" solves problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column. ————————————

If you feel this administrator "often" solves problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column. ————————————

If you feel this administrator "always," without fail, solves problems effectively, you would circle the checkmark in this column. ————————————

To what extent does this administrator . . .

1. ...fail to assure goals and objectives are developed.

2. ...develop short-term objectives which contribute little to long-range goals.

3. ...encourage setting objectives which are stated in concrete, measurable, or observable terms.

4. ...anticipate the need for resources to carry out plans.

5. ...move ahead without securing sufficient information upon which to base plans.

6. ...work systematically on factors which affect the progress of the organization.

7. ...identify several tentative solutions before selecting one to act on.

8. ...pursue problem solving alone without involving appropriate others.

9. ...place a low priority on securing resources to provide necessary programs and services.

10. ...establish and carefully implement fiscal controls.

11. ...carry out his/her present assignment well.

12. ...give staff concrete feedback about their performance.

13. ...see that students are reaching expected levels of achievement.

14. ...see that student progress is assessed regularly.

15. ...adequately explain the responsibilities involved when delegating tasks.

16. ...encourage staff to use their own judgment once responsibilities have been determined.

17. ...fail to establish effective two-way communication.

18. ...assure that communication within his/her part of the organization is open and flows freely.

19. ...fail to listen carefully to others.

20. ...give attention to staff needs without neglecting task accomplishment.

21. ...behave in ways that show he/she values people.

22. ...accept and act on feedback about his/her performance.

23. ...devote time and effort to appropriate school-community activities.

24. ...attend and, when appropriate, take an active role in school-sponsored events.

25. ...fail to actively seek opportunities to improve his/her knowledge and skills.

26. ...initiate instructional improvement efforts based on educational research and proven methods.

27. ...place a low priority on curriculum development activities.

28. ...show little interest in development of staff.

29. ...help staff define their professional development needs and goals on both a scheduled and on an "as needed" basis.

30. ...help coordinate individual staff member's professional development objectives with the goals of the organization.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent does this administrator . . .

31. ...develop objectives with input from appropriate individuals and groups.

32. ...develop and prioritize goals and objectives using well-conceived procedures.

33. ...actively and effectively marshal support for goals and objectives.

34. ...consider both the quality and the acceptability of a plan as it is developed.

35. ...plan things to death.

36. ...make decisions based on established criteria.

37. ...evaluate suggestions on the basis of who the ideas came from rather than on their merit.

38. ...implement agreed-on decisions effectively.

39. ...inform staff about fiscal procedures and their rationale.

40. ...develop fiscal procedures without input from others.

41. ...manage people effectively.

42. ...assure that his/her performance is reviewed and evaluated regularly.

43. ...assure short-term results support long-term gains.

44. ...actively seek feedback about his/her professional performance.

45. ...demonstrate an overconcern with checking on people who have been given responsibilities.

46. ...take into account staff skills when delegating tasks.

47. ...assess and react appropriately to verbal and non-verbal cues.

48. ...give convincing presentations and speeches using language and media appropriate to the audience.

49. ...communicate the mission of the organization so that staff is inspired to work toward accomplishing the mission.

50. ...encourage competition rather than cooperation among staff.

51. ...build a cooperative work team.

52. ...have a vision of what could be and help others work toward it.

53. ...stand up for what's good for education.

54. ...devote time and effort to professional organizations.

55. ...behave in ways that show commitment to quality education.

56. ...encourage the use of new instructional techniques.

57. ...actively assess staff's understanding of effective teaching and learning practices.

58. ...fail to involve staff in planning their growth and development experiences.

59. ...view staff growth as important to developing and maintaining an effective organization.

60. ...regard staff professional growth as the total responsibility of the individual.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent does this administrator...

61. ...neglect to initiate activities which accomplish goals and objectives.

62. ...base goals and objectives on accurate information about needs.

63. ...devote appropriate time and effort to planning.

64. ...consider the task is done once goals are determined.

65. ...make realistic estimates of the time and resources needed to get things done.

66. ...use creative approaches to solving problems.

67. ...have problems choosing the course of action that will best lead to desired results.

68. ...allocate funds among units based on fair, well-understood criteria.

69. ...seek resource alternatives inside and outside the school system when funds are needed.

70. ...demonstrate concern for the cost-effectiveness of programs.

71. ...relate effectively to staff.

72. ...hold unrealistic expectations for what the unit he/she is responsible for should accomplish.

73. ...see that staff evaluation takes place regularly.

74. ...give others authority to get the job done when delegating tasks.

75. ...fail to consider staff motivation when delegating tasks.

76. ...delegate tasks as a way to improve staff skills.

77. ...produce written communications which are clear.

78. ...fail to communicate educational accomplishments and needs to the community.

79. ...favor some staff but strictly apply rules and policies to others.

80. ...keep his/her word and stick to agreements made.

81. ...note, praise, and reward peoples' positive contributions.

82. ...convince staff that their effort makes a difference.

83. ...model the behavior he/she wants to encourage in others as a way of improving their behavior.

84. ...criticize his/her organization inappropriately.

85. ...seek to enhance student growth by providing opportunities for staff to gain new skills.

86. ...fail to assure that curriculum content relates to the established goals and objectives.

87. ...work to establish a good learning environment for students.

88. ...provide ways for staff to share new skills and describe growth experiences.

89. ...reward staff who obtain and use knowledge and skills which are of value to the organization.

90. ...strive to assure staff enjoys their work and is excited about teaching.

Be sure your responses are marked for the correct item number.

To what extent does this administrator . . .

91. ...disseminate information widely about established goals and objectives.

92. ...assure objectives speak to all major goals.

93. ...keep track of the progress of staff planning efforts.

94. ...seek relevant input from staff in the planning process.

95. ...wait for things to take care of themselves.

96. ...use group concensus appropriately in decision making.

97. ...identify the causes of problems through collection and analysis of pertinent information.

98. ...exercise control over the inventory of materials and supplies.

99. ...assure that physical facilities are well maintained.

100. ...allocate funds without considering overall priorities.

101. ...seek to improve his/her performance.

102. ...fail to assure that established goals for his/her unit are met.

103. ...tell people in his/her work group about their performance only when something goes wrong.

104. ...provide feedback about how well individuals are carrying out tasks delegated to them.

105. ...think no one else can do jobs as well as he/she can.

106. ...make certain needed support is available to carry out work assignments.

107. ...use suggestions from others about ways to improve communication.

108. ...hold tightly controlled staff meetings characterized by one-way communication.

109. ...actively work on establishing and maintaining trust.

110. ...manage staff conflict ineffectively.

111. ...establish effective relationships with the community.

112. ...inspire staff to feel more hopeful about the future.

113. ...help out when special problems arise that require extra effort.

114. ...volunteer to do tasks that will strengthen the organization.

115. ...fail to make appropriate efforts to provide resources for improving instruction.

116. ...provide additional instructional opportunities for students who are not progressing at expected levels.

117. ...regularly review instructional programs to insure they meet student needs.

118. ...take advantage of opportunities to turn staff mistakes into learning experiences.

119. ...fail to work with staff on aspects of their performance that need strengthening.

120. ...provide a work environment where people care about each other.

APPENDIX F

Follow-Up Letter II

April 3, 1987
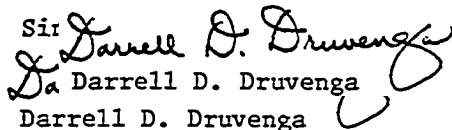
Dear Principal:

Last month, I sent a packet of material to all of the senior high school principals in Iowa who agreed to participate in my doctoral dissertation study. Included in that packet was a copy of the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile—an instrument which was developed to assess, analyze, and strengthen the skills and behaviors that are crucial to the success of school administrators.

According to my records, I have not received your responses. If you and your five faculty members have recently returned your responses, please ignore this letter and accept my apology for troubling you again. If you have not returned the six answer sheets, your prompt cooperation would be appreciated. As you know, the greater the response that I generate for my study, the more valid the results. Your assistance is greatly needed and appreciated!

Feedback on how your faculty, as a group, described your administrative behavior will be returned to you in May. To be certain that you receive this prompt feedback, please return the materials to me no later than April 17.

If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at Northern University High School in Cedar Falls at (319) 273-6028.

Sincerely,

Darrell D. Druvenga
Darrell D. Druvenga
Doctoral Student, University of Northern Iowa

APPENDIX G

Administrative Skills Profile

Visual Comparison Profile

Name / Code #_____ Self Description & Description by_____ Others   Date_____

Categories and scales:

STRATEGIZING
- Setting Goals & Objectives — SELF / OTHER
- Planning — SELF / OTHER

IMPLEMENTING
- Making Decisions & Solving Problems — SELF / OTHER
- Managing Business & Fiscal Affairs — SELF / OTHER
- Assessing Progress — SELF / OTHER
- Delegating Responsibilities — SELF / OTHER

RELATING
- Communicating — SELF / OTHER
- Building & Maintaining Relationships — SELF / OTHER

EDUCATING
- Demonstrating Professional Commitment — SELF / OTHER
- Improving Instruction — SELF / OTHER
- Developing Staff — SELF / OTHER

APPENDIX H

Final Letter to Participants

May 8, 1987

Dear Principal:

THANK YOU for participating in my doctoral dissertation study. I realize that it took a great deal of time and effort to complete the instrument and arrange the faculty participants. I hope the feedback you receive with this letter will help you to become the more effective educational leader you want to be!

The Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) instrument is a diagnostic tool which provides feedback on how you and other faculty members perceive your effectiveness in eleven administrative skill areas. It is important to remember that the nature of this feedback is directly related to who filled out the "other" questionnaires. The feedback must be received in the context of its origin. If you asked for responses from five faculty you work best with, the feedback will look different than if you had picked your five worst critics.

INTERPRETING THE RESULTS

The grid entitled Visual Comparison Profile reflects how you, and four or five faculty rated your administrative performance:

1. Scores in <u>blue</u> are your own "self" reports; scores in <u>red</u> represent the average of the "others" reports.

2. Scores to the <u>left</u> on the grid are "low"; scores to the <u>right</u> are "high."

3. The range of scores possible run from 1.0 to 7.0. Since the majority of administrators' scores fall between 3.0 and 7.0, only this range is shown on the profile sheet. Scores below 3.0 indicate a serious problem area.

4. Please realize that there will probably be discrepancies between "self" and "other" ratings. The following are basic (but flexible) guidelines for what constitutes a significant discrepancy between "self" and "others":

      a. Differences of <u>.2 point</u> are "relatively insignificant."
      b. Differences of <u>.2 to .4 point</u> are "worth examining and working on."
      c. Differences <u>greater than .4 point</u> are "very important."

5. Pay particular attention to areas where large discrepancies occur between "self" and "other." These differences in perception could create problems at work.
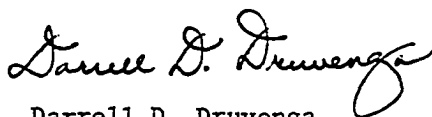
THE NEXT STEP

1. Identify specific areas you wish to improve. These areas could be based on lowest scores (or "self" or "other" ratings), largest discrepancies between "self" and "others," or areas where improvement would make the greatest impact on your job. You are encouraged to make a challenging plan for self-development.

2. To assist you in your goal-setting effort, I have enclosed the EAEP Self-Development Guide, a valuable, comprehensive guide which contains a wealth of information about each of the eleven skill domains assessed on the EAEP instrument. Separate sections in the Guide explain how the EAEP was scored, describe the characteristics of "achieving administrators" and offer steps to follow in the preparation of an effective plan for your professional growth.

Perhaps it would be possible to spend some time with this EAEP Self-Development Guide in the Summer, when the hustle and bustle of end-of-year activities is not so pressing. The Guide would be especially valuable as you give consideration to the development of new "Administrative Goals for 1987-88."

Thank you, again, for your participation in this study. If I can be of any additional assistance, feel free to call or write.

Best Wishes!

Darrell D. Druvenga

Darrell D. Druvenga
Doctoral Student, University of Northern Iowa