

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 359 624

EA 025 058

AUTHOR Harchar, Rayma L.
 TITLE Collaborative Power: A Grounded Theory of Administrative Instructional Leadership in the Elementary School.
 PUB DATE Apr 93
 NOTE 29p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Atlanta, GA, April 12-16, 1993).
 PUB TYPE Speeches/Conference Papers (150) -- Reports - Research/Technical (143)
 EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
 DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Effectiveness; Administrator Responsibility; Administrator Role; *Collegiality; Educational Cooperation; Elementary Education; *Instructional Leadership; *Leadership; Principals; *Teacher Administrator Relationship

ABSTRACT

Findings of a study that examined the key elements necessary for administrative instructional leadership in elementary schools are presented in this paper, with a focus on the conflict between the use of power and collaboration. Interviews were conducted with 8 elementary school principals (3 men and 5 women) who were identified as exemplary instructional leaders and with 16 teachers, all from one midwestern state. Observation and document analysis were also conducted. Findings suggest that the key elements for successful instructional leadership include visioning, supervising and evaluating, forming close personal relationships, communicating, conducting meetings, initiating programs, and soliciting parent involvement. Principals identified teacher mind sets, state department mandates, time constraints, and parent opposition as barriers to instructional leadership. The main problem lies in power inequities between the principal and teachers, between teachers, and between the school and community. A framework for instructional leadership, based on collaborative power theory, is presented, in which power inequities are filtered through a gate of action/interaction strategies. The strategies include trust, collegiality, empowerment, diplomacy, and visioning. Collaborative power can be used by administrators to create a quality school where the focus is on teacher collaboration and child development. One table and one figure are included. (Contains 21 references.) (LMI)

 * Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
 * from the original document. *

ED359624

COLLABORATIVE POWER: A GROUNDED THEORY OF
ADMINISTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Paper presented at the
American Educational Research Association
Annual Meeting
Atlanta, Georgia
April 12-16, 1993

Rayma L. Harchar
Hayward Smith Elementary School
Owasso Public Schools

Home Address:
12110 E. 76th Place North
Owasso, OK 74055
(918) 272-3836

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

- This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
- Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

R. Harchar

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

EA 025 058

Instructional leadership is a relatively new field of research, having emerged approximately 20 years ago (McCurdy, 1983). Most studies of instructional leadership have been quantitative in nature, emphasizing cause and effect relationships. Such issues as test scores, student retention, and principal/teacher accountability have been used as measurable outcome criteria in instructional leadership studies (McCurdy, 1983). Recently, particular attention has been paid to the principal, suggesting that s/he has a key role in establishing and promoting instructional improvement in the school setting. But, in order to elicit richer empirical data about this role and the phenomena of instructional leadership, research has now shifted from the quantitative to a qualitative approach (Foster, 1986).

In a qualitative approach, such corollaries as beliefs, relationships, and experiences of the people involved in education are used to study how the administrator meets the demands of instructional leadership. Hallinger (1990) stated, "we must argue that research on instructional leadership must address the thinking that underlies the exercise of leadership, not simply describe the discrete behaviors of effective leaders" (p. 89).

Current Perspectives of Instructional Leadership

Principals are considered good leaders if they are perceived by the teachers and the community to have a quality school (McCurdy, 1983). Numerous research studies have confirmed that the key element in a quality school is the principal's leadership role in assuring an excellent instructional program. Indeed, many textbooks cite instructional leadership at the beginning of the list of duties of a principal. But, what exactly is instructional leadership?

Traditionally, instructional leadership has been defined as those activities that foster the improvement of a person, group, or program (Gorton, 1983). To describe the literature associated with administrative instructional leadership, three topics will be presented: attributes of instructional leadership, tasks of the instructional leader, and existing models of instructional leadership.

Attributes

Some believe that instructional leaders are not born, but must have certain qualities which will enable them to reach the goal of instructional leadership (McCurdy, 1983). The research is limited in this area; however, a look at some demographics and perceptions of instructional leaders about their role reveal their attributes.

Sellers (1988) found a significant relationship between high ratings of principals by their teachers and that principal's prior job assignment and initial certificate. The teachers had more respect for those principals who had been in the classroom several years and had special certification, such as Learning Disabilities Specialist or Reading Specialist. It has also been found that women were more inclined to participate actively in instructional leadership than men; men preferred more traditional management duties (Wilson, 1988).

Deal and Peterson (1990) described an exceptional instructional leader from San Francisco by saying that she valued high academic performance, highlighting its foundation in reading skills, and linking it to students' self esteem. She held a unique value-based vision for her school. But, they went a step further in their

study to say that the specific content of the vision is not important, the simple existence of a vision is what counts.

Tasks

Bukowski (1989), in his study of Illinois principals and instructional leadership, took a random sample of 400 principals and their superintendents. When superintendents were asked about the principal's most important role they said that it was instructional leadership. However, this role was not at the top of the principals' list. Principals considered instructional leadership as moderately important, while other administrative duties, such as building manager and disciplinarian took the top of the list.

However, Cooper (1989) found different results, concluding that instructional leaders must be eager, critical learners. She selected 149 successful principals and asked them to describe their participation in professional development activities and how they had achieved their success. They did not debate whether they should be instructional leaders or chief executives. They consistently defined themselves as instructional leaders. They learned how to improve their schools by working with and learning from teachers, students, parents and the community members. They said that one of the most important aspects of instructional leadership is to transform "diffuse needs into focused problems" (p. 15).

Krug (1992) found similar results when he tracked 80 principals for two weeks. Principals were paged at five randomly selected times each day and asked to record their activity and its significance. He concluded, "What distinguishes effective instructional leaders from others is not a distinctive set of characteristics but an approach to their work that is guided by a distinctive set of beliefs about what is possible" (p. 441). Krug's research which was quantitative, but he suggested possible qualitative differences in principals' approaches to instructional leadership; qualitative research might shed additional light on this phenomena of beliefs and interpretation of actions.

Models

Reyes and Capper (1991) recommend structural change for instructional leaders by the use of the Intergroup Power Relations Model for Leadership. This model incorporates an interactive relationship between the principal's beliefs, the institution, and the community through the power relations within the school and the school's association with its community and the broader society. These relationships influence the instructional leadership of administrators as they shape the schools' culture and modify the instructional organization to affect student outcomes. Power relations in the school can be viewed as levels of power between superintendents, principals, teachers, and students; in the community, the power relations are between upper, middle and lower classes. Principals beliefs and attitudes were included as part of this framework. The purpose of Reyes and Capper's (1991) study was to explore the principals' perception of the student dropout problem and the solutions they proposed. To achieve the most desired student outcomes all the powers must be equalized. Since schools are entering an era in which more students are considered at risk, they recommend further research in

perceptions of school principals and how school culture and instructional organization can provide a relevant difference in the education of all children.

Heck, Larsen, and Marcoulides (1990) hypothesized that three latent variables were related to instructional leadership: school governance, instructional organization, and school climate. In the governance domain, principals involve teachers to a greater extent in instructional decision making. They also protect teachers from external pressures and interference from both the community and central office. In the student achievement domain, instructional leadership behaviors of the principal had a direct effect on students' standardized test scores. The principals had high expectations of students academic behavior and social behavior. The principals had a system of rewards and sanctions for those students achieving those expectations. In the domain of school climate, school goals were clearly communicated to everyone. Efforts by the principal were made toward maintaining faculty morale and enthusiasm. The principal was also highly visible in the community and was a communicator of those goals and achievements.

The researchers cautioned that there may be other behaviors of successful instructional leaders not found in this study and that there is a need to develop a set of informal instructional leadership behaviors that would impact student achievement (Heck, Larsen & Marcoulides, 1990).

In his Control Theory Model, Glasser (1986) notes the difference between "lead-managers" and "boss-managers." Lead-managers never coerce; they make an effort to talk to teachers about their grievances and are open to ideas about how the school may be improved. No two people share the same pictures, so people must work cooperatively with respect. Administrators must not waste time and effort trying to control people; instead they must help teachers determine for themselves what is quality and what they believe is the best way to reach that goal of quality. Glasser (1986) stressed that supervisors must be warm, friendly and concerned about their staff and let them say what they are doing and of what they are proud. Supervisors must take a proactive role in limiting teachers' self criticism and in promoting their self-praise and self-esteem.

Summary

The literature has supported various aspects of instructional leadership. Most of them focused on issues of school climate, teacher supervision, and students learning. Research shows that instructional leaders: 1) must have been successful teachers in the classroom; special certification in learning areas can also be an advantage; 2) are more likely to be women than men; 3) have a clear value-based vision for their school; and 4) explained all activities engaged in as meaningful for success. Sampling procedures may have had a bearing on the results found in some studies; random sampling techniques do not yield high rankings of instructional leadership among principals in the general population. However, when selective sampling was used (only those principals who are seen as successful), instructional leadership was ranked high on the list of duties of the principal.

Problems and Purposes

There appear to be two conflicting messages in the literature. One message implies that administrators

must be powerful and control teachers and students, while the other implies that they should listen and work collaboratively with teachers and students.

The purpose of this study was to examine this apparent conflict and determine, from those in practice, key elements required for administrative instructional leadership in the elementary school. Specifically, answers to the research questions were sought:

1. How do administrators define instructional leadership?
2. What are the roles of both teachers and principals as they contribute to the overall effectiveness of the instructional process?
3. What are the perceptions of teachers and principals about the administration process as it relates to the instructional process?
4. What advice can be provided for practice concerning ways in which to accomplish and improve instructional leadership?

Procedures and Theoretical Structure

In many research projects, as the problem becomes more clearly defined, strategies for examining the problem emerge. This study is no exception. However, this process resulted in the combination of the theoretical structure and procedural strategies needed to examine the problem.

The goal of this research was to uncover the nature of the principal's experiences with instructional leadership and provide basic knowledge to guide practice. It was hoped that novel ideas and fresh perspectives on the phenomena of instructional leadership would evolve.

To enable this uncovering process, in-depth and intricate details of practices were needed. It was not the intent of this study to search for a set of laws in the social world or to compare data against established standards. Therefore, an anti-positivistic approach seemed most appropriate. In this way, reality would drive the process. The move would be from data to generalization about practice. In essence, this study would result in theory, not verify existing theoretical assumptions (Conrad, 1982).

Given these needs, Grounded Theory served as both the theoretical structure and research design for this study. Grounded Theory is defined by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the use of a systematic set of procedures and analyses to develop an inductively derived theory about phenomena. It has three major parts: 1) gather data such as observations, interviews and documents; 2) analyze the data; and 3) interpret the data that will lead to theory development.

Procedures are reproducible, exact, creative and must be carried out precisely and with rigor. In order for a healthy balance between creativity and science to be maintained, the researcher must periodically step back and ask questions, maintain an attitude of skepticism and follow the research procedures. This strategy enables the researcher to ask pertinent questions about data and make comparisons found in data so that new insights and novel theoretical formulations can be made (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

For the reader to see veracity in the results of grounded theory, it is recommended that four criteria be used to judge the study: 1) a fit between the results and everyday life needs to be evident; 2) the findings must make sense to those practicing in the field; 3) the theory must be abstract; and 4) it must include a sufficient amount of variation to make it applicable to a variety of contexts (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

Data Needs

Data from and about exceptional instructional leaders were required by the research questions. From these administrators, viewpoints about instructional leadership and recognized educational issues, activities, and interactions with staff and students were needed. Viewpoints from teachers were also needed, so that the administrator's role in the instructional process could be verified. Concrete examples of this involvement with the instructional process were of necessity in grounding the research.

Population and Sample

Corbin and Strauss (1990) recommend that sites and respondents be chosen deliberately, because opportunities could be maximized to elicit data along the lines of the investigation more readily.

Administrators. Administrators from one midwestern state served as the population. The focus of this study is elementary principals alone, because they have a unique situation different from secondary principals. Elementary schools are not as departmentalized and focus on more holistic instructional methods; therefore, the principal can serve as facilitator in any classroom (Camborne, 1988). Additionally, because of a lack of research on the role of the elementary principal, this research would broaden the knowledge base (Sellars, 1988; Cooper, 1989; Bukowski, 1989; Krug, 1992; Reyes & Capper, 1991).

Three different types of administrators were sought: 1) Those new to administration, 2) those who had veteran experience, and 3) those who had gone on to central office positions and could reflect upon their experiences as elementary administrators.

Selection was based upon nomination by teachers, university professors, and other educators as exemplary instructional leaders. Each nominee was said to promote and demonstrate the following criteria: Close, friendly relationships with the students and teachers, possess a high regard for the achievement of each student and teacher, active in professional organizations, and well respected by their colleagues. Of those nominated, it was determined that theoretical saturation was reached after eight administrators were interviewed. Three were men and five were women.

Teachers. Teachers were selected from recommendations made by their principals. Sixteen teachers, two from each school, were interviewed.

Data Collection

The main method of data collection strategy was the semi-structured interview. Observations and the review of relevant documents were also employed.

The interviews. More complete data, interview rapport, and effective communication between the interviewer and the informant are advantages associated with the semi-structured interview (Issac & Michael, 1971). Because of these advantages and the requisite open nature of grounded theory, the open-ended, semi-structured interview data gathering method was used as the dominant data collection method in this study.

Interview protocols. A core of approximately 15 semi-structured questions were developed and used to aid in the interview process for administrators. The Grounded Theory method relies on creativity as a vital component; therefore, it is necessary that the researcher be able to alter the protocol and questions freely in order to elicit categories and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). The primary advantage of the interview protocol was that it helped the researcher initiate the interview. One group of questions centered on demographics, a second focused on perspectives of instruction, while a third converged on the perspectives of instructional leadership. The fourth group of questions focused on the relationship between the instructional process and instructional leadership.

The teacher protocol consisted of seven questions. These were developed for the purposes of grounding what principals purported to be true, corroborating principals' perspectives, and gaining faculty insight as to the instructional leadership qualities of the principal.

The protocols were developed through several stages as the questions and their organization were evaluated to meet data needs. To determine the decorum of the protocol questions, interview length, and the researcher's ability to obtain information through this data collection method, two pilot interviews were conducted, one with an administrator and one with a teacher in the same building.

The pilot interviews. The pilot administrative interview was video taped to capture completeness of responses to protocol questions by the informant. The tape was transcribed and the contents analyzed to determine if data could be obtained that meet the established needs. The teacher pilot interview was recorded in hand written notes and transcribed later that same day. Analysis of the pilot interviews resulted in only slight modifications of each Interview Protocol and a decision to video tape all administrative interviews.

Observations. Observations of each school site were used to reveal evidence of instructional leadership. The observations were recorded in handwritten notes which were used to compile typewritten field notes.

Documents. A variety of documents, including agendas of faculty meetings, memos, school newspapers, and grants proposals, were gathered for the purpose of tracking written evidence of administrative instructional

leadership. These data were included in the field notes.

Presentation of the Data

The data was presented through the first step of Grounded Theory called open coding. Open coding is a term that represents the process by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new ways by the use of induction (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). The steps in this analysis are: 1) labeling, 2) classification, 3) naming, and 4) developing categories in terms of their properties and dimensions. The analysis was carried out in two stages using these steps. Initially, four interview transcripts were read and the main categories were identified. Then the sub-categories were determined.

Three main categories and a variety of subcategories emerged from the administrators' interviews. The main categories were Administrative Beliefs, Administrative Goals and Instructional Leadership Strategies. Two categories were formed from the teacher interviews: Working Relationship and Problems Yet to be Solved.

Administrative Beliefs

Administrators have well defined but differing beliefs about learning, curriculum, children, teachers, and leadership. Each had their own set of beliefs and they were not in total agreement about what these beliefs should be.

Beliefs About Learning. Elementary administrators have developmental views of learning. They believed that learning must be developmental, active, varied, and experienced.

Most of the administrators believed that people learn developmentally, at certain right times for each individual. Randy said, "To say that a child will learn certain things by a given year is artificial." Jennifer believed in right times for learning for children. She said that you catch those times by getting "down on the floor with children and experiencing their play with them, guiding them."

Principals liked activity in the classroom. They recognized activity as a necessary ingredient of activity, and that if this activity was not present, children were more likely to be bored and daydream. Jennifer said, "Children have to be up out of their seats communicating and building language." Principals did not mind seeing a mess of paper on the floor, because it was evidence of needed activity.

The principals believed that people use different strategies for learning, and that as educators, one strategy cannot be dictated. For example, Jill said, "I believe that each person has their own strategy for learning. We must never discourage that."

The principals stated that all of their teachers did not hold this viewpoint which they valued so highly. Randy said, "If all educators could accept children as they are, we would be able to reach many more children.

Administrators believed that learning must be experienced. Randy said, "Until a child can use new

knowledge and internalize it first hand, he cannot call it their own. Plenty of opportunities for first hand experience are necessary for learning."

Administrator beliefs about learning appeared to follow developmental, rather than mechanistic, views of learning. They recognized that children learn most from developmental sequences, rather than from a prescribed set of grade level skills. Learning was also acquired differently for different people and activity was a necessary part of learning. Finally, experience was necessary for knowledge to be internalized.

Beliefs About Curriculum. Beliefs about curriculum generally followed the administrators' beliefs on learning. All attended seminars and workshops on current trends in curriculum development in attempts to find new ways to apply their beliefs about learning to the curriculum and bring new ideas to their schools.

Most of the administrators believed in a holistic, integrated curriculum. They described this curriculum in a variety of ways. Some talked about whole language; others talked about using basals as resource tools for researching certain topics of thematic units. Jennifer said, "I believe in an integrated curriculum. For instance, when you teach spelling, you teach spelling all the time, during reading, math, or whatever." Jill reinforced this same belief with an example from her years in the classroom, "I would use the textbooks as reference material, resources, rather than the gospel. For instance, the social studies book was just awful."

In the area of integrated curriculum, Martha said that one of the biggest disservices we do to kids is separating subjects. She would like to see integrated curriculum across grades K-12. She said, "Life is not scattered into subjects. It is important to make sure that education is relevant to the times and to the child."

They also recognized that much of what children learn in school is not taught in the classroom by the teacher. They believed that children come to school with knowledge and that this knowledge should be recognized, respected, and used. Sara said, "School is a total experience. Children learn what they want to whether its on the playground, in the halls or in the classroom. They quickly learn whether to listen or not."

Some believed that mandated state learner outcomes would interfere with integrated curriculum, while others thought the new state regulations would encourage more holistic learning. Martha said, "I don't know that we can teach an integrated curriculum with learner outcomes. An integrated curriculum makes learning more meaningful. You can take a pumpkin and teach the entire day."

Even though all the administrators appeared very knowledgeable about current trends in the development of curriculum, they did not have the same beliefs. It seemed that the subject occupied a substantial amount of their time.

Beliefs About Children. Strong beliefs were held about children. Administrators had not lost sight of the fact that the children were the reason that the elementary school existed. Their beliefs about children were in tune with their beliefs of developmental learning in that they believed that children have valuable experiences when they are young. They believed that children need structure, yet freedom to learn to make wise choices. They also believed that children could make important contributions to the school and their own learning.

The administrators believed that all children are good and capable of many wonderful acts. They believed that when provided with a nurturing environment these talents will emerge. Excessive control from the administrators and teachers could be harmful to the child's ability to exercise self control and natural exploration of curiosity. Administrators believed that as educators we need to let children be children and not small adults. Peggy expressed this belief in this way: "My philosophy of children is that they are all good and wonderful and that they can learn." Ted expressed his concern by noting that: "We expect children to grow up faster than when we were children. There is a paradox here. Don't get me wrong, I want to challenge kids, but pushing these learner outcomes is too much."

Most administrators believed children need discipline in the manner in which Martha described, "I do believe in structure for children. By structure I mean strictness. They need to know what is going to happen and how to evaluate its importance." Overall these administrators believed that children should be free to learn and exercise self control.

Administrators believed that children are capable of making contributions to their own education. Jill said, "If I were teaching in the classroom today, I would involve the children much more in curriculum decisions. I would be more of an advisor or a mentor to them, rather than the one who is supposed to have all the knowledge."

Overall, administrators believed that children should be allowed to be young, that they need structure, but have important ideas and should be involved in their educational process. They believed that if everyone held this viewpoint that they would be more successful at making learning relevant to children's lives.

Beliefs About Teachers. In schools where the administrator was firmly established and had hired and retained a highly professional staff, each appeared to share similar visions with the teachers. The administrators did not separate their vision from their teachers' vision.

Some administrators believed that teaching was a natural talent. One of those administrators was Jill who believed that teachers had natural gifts. Teachership is the "offering of a very special gift to someone. I don't know where it comes from. It must be in the blood. If it was, we could do a blood test on people when they enter teaching to see if they've got that stuff."

Jill also talked about a teacher she had to let go. "When I asked her if she had worked with this teacher to try to help him keep his job, she said that he just did not have any personal skills at all, or what it took to be a teacher; it would have been a waste of her time."

Administrators believed that teachers needed to keep up with new ideas about teaching. Jennifer stated, "I am a big believer in professional development of the teachers and myself. I also believe that I must keep abreast of all the new ideas too, like Whole Language." Professional development was believed to be necessary for teachers to maintain an awareness of current trends in education. Good teachers eagerly seek professional development. Sara said, "I have some teachers who go to every workshop that is offered and others who never go to anything. Those who go to workshops are also very energetic teachers. They love to learn new things."

Peggy believed that teachers are professionals and deserved professional recognition. Jennifer said that

she did not believe that elementary teachers receive the recognition that they deserve and that one of her reasons for becoming an administrator was to communicate that recognition.

All administrators believed that they had learned many things from their teachers and that teachers could help each other. Jennifer said; "I believe that all my teachers have important ideas about instruction to share." Dave said; "I believe that a great teacher is someone who is highly motivated and seeks out new knowledge and ideas. Teachers have a lot to share."

With most administrators, teachers were considered great if they had close relationships with their students and were highly motivated to seek new ideas and ways of teaching. Ted said, "If a teacher doesn't have that close relationship with the kids she is really missing the boat. Peggy said, "It is the classroom teacher who makes the difference in the quality of a child's education. You might like to think its the principal, but its not."

Principals valued their teachers to a high degree. They recognized teachers professionally and the importance of their relationships with children. They believed that teachers were important resources and that they could benefit from their input.

Beliefs About Leadership. These "instructional leaders" had strong beliefs about people, students and education. They believed that their success flowed from being focused on objectives which support these beliefs. They know successful strategies for achieving those goals. They do not become distracted by "petty and trivial details" related to authoritarian management techniques. One principal said, "As an instructional leader you need to make sure that you carry the vision forward. You need to make sure that unimportant things don't get in the way." The interweaving of beliefs, goals, and strategies appears to guide the thinking of these administrators.

The administrators differed greatly in their beliefs about leadership. Some believed that leadership was a natural talent with which only certain people were born, while others believed that leadership talents were natural gifts to everyone.

Several believed that leadership was a special trait with which they were born, like blue eyes. Dave said, "A person soon learns whether they are a follower or a leader. Do you like doing what someone else tells you to do? You cannot have two leaders, you can only have one." Randy said that he knew that he was born to lead, because he never had any doubt while he was young that he would be a manager of some kind. When he entered teaching, he knew he would be in the classroom only a short time before moving into the principalship.

How administrators viewed their role as leaders differed accordingly. In other words, how they lead and what they thought of the people whom they were leading differed. Jill said, "As a leader, I view my role as an initiator. I see my leadership capacity as being strengthened by participation of others."

Some administrators believed that leaders were the ones in control and that they organized and changed institutions. This belief was brought out when administrators explained the reason they wanted to enter administration. Some said that they wanted to be in a position of influence over others and that they believed that they could accomplish their goals more efficiently as an administrator. Reasons for leaving the classroom to enter the principalship became evident during these interviews. Some administrators wanted to have control and be in

a position to make changes, as Randy said. "I thought I would like to be in control and be in a position to organize and change things." Others talked about having an influence or an effect on a wider range of students, teachers, and the community. Jennifer stated, "I didn't get burned out or anything in the classroom. I still love the classroom. I wanted something more." Administrators believed that they had a definite influence on classroom activities and that this influence was the reason that they were in the principalship.

Beliefs about leadership differed greatly with the administrators. Some believed that there were born leaders and followers; that they were the chosen ones. Some believed that leadership occurred when power was shared with others, while others believed that power should be used to control others.

Summary. Administrators held strong beliefs about education and the people in schools. They believed that learning must be experienced first hand. It is something that cannot be told or lectured about. They believe that a modified integrated curriculum could best serve the needs of most children. Teachers are the ones who have the main responsibility for the children's learning. Their knowledge needs to be sought out and welcomed. They also believe that leadership is to some degree a natural inclination. Administrators duties as leaders in the school setting required a great deal of inspirational guidance, clerical ability, and diplomatic skills.

Administrative Goals

These administrators had definite goals for their schools, teachers, students, and themselves. They were revealed as outcomes and processes they desired for various aspects of education.

Goals for school, community, and state. Administrators were involved in community and state issues which affect their schools. They knew that they must be actively involved in order to have an impact on these issues and bring this information to their schools. Three categories were found under this area: local control, site-based decisions, and partnerships.

These administrators were in tune with the political implications of the instructional process at the community and state levels. Their degree of involvement in this political process was determined by the level of their administrative position. All were involved politically and had very firm goals for their building and education. Martha said, "I am for local decision making, so that we can determine what is appropriate for our students. Maybe we could have some general guidelines at the state level. Then let the local districts have their own curriculum."

Some administrators thought that the new laws at the state level could work toward developmental goals. Jennifer was against laws and rules to force the issue of developmental learning. She said, "If we can get people who are oriented toward early childhood education in kindergarten through third grade that would be great." However, she did not mean they needed certification.

At the school level, administrators had goals which centered around funding, after school child care, and class size. Ted said, "I would like to see more funding for the teacher resource center." Peggy said, "I would like to

see school age child care, here at school. I am very concerned about children who are at home alone before and after school. I think that is lost time for them." Jennifer said, "I would like to see each classroom have less than 20 students with a full time assistant in each classroom."

Other goals centered around partnerships with social services and businesses. Peggy said, "A dream that I have is that all social workers who work with children be placed in the schools, child abuse cases, etc. We know all the inner workings of the family here at school and I feel that we could serve children better if we work together." She said, "I would like to see us have more business-school partnerships. We have stuck to our territory too long and we need to reach out to include the community and businesses.

Goals for school, community, and state issues broke down into three areas, local control, site based management, and partnerships. Administrators were politically aware and acted politically, because of the implication of politics within their school.

Goals for Teachers. Administrators have goals and expectations for the teachers in their buildings. Martha said, "I tell my teachers that our school is going to be academically superior. We are going to have an atmosphere in which parents and children feel comfortable."

Communication skills and collaborative teaching were among goals that administrators wanted for the teachers. Ted stated that he wanted teachers to develop good communications skills with each other and parents. He said that he wanted teachers to get together on their own, without prompting from him. "I would like to see teachers become close and develop a team approach."

Other goals were about mottoes and teamwork. Peggy happily quoted the school motto made through a collaborative effort by the teachers and herself: "Learn, laugh and love." "That is my expectation of the school where learning is the focal point, but we do it cooperatively and with good cheer." Ted's goal was for learning and teaching in his school to be a "combination of efforts - teamwork between parents, teachers and administration. They all must work together to make sure learning experiences are provided for the students."

Expectations for teachers centered around developmental learning. Randy said, "I expect a teacher to be able to take a child and what he comes to school with and move him as far as possible and instill in him the desire to learn." Ted supported this statement by saying, "I expect a teacher to help a child develop academically and socially." Martha said that teachers must "see where a child is developmentally and teach them from that point."

Along with goals toward developmental learning, administrators expected teachers to teach holistically. Jennifer clarified this point further, "I expect my teachers to integrate the curriculum. I want them to teach math, reading and science through the same subject." Jennifer's frustration mirrors the teachers' frustration in teaching learner outcomes. She tells them, "Step back and take a look at what is really important. You can cover a lot of material without ever zeroing in on skills." She asserts that the child's development and self esteem are what are really important.

Jill stated that she wanted teachers to think about new ways to present curriculum, to use outside resources, to go to workshops and other schools to observe. Then, her own teachers could give their peers

inservice workshops. Another goal for the teachers in her district was to get parents into the classroom.

Administrators wanted the teachers to take the initiative to come up with new ideas. Jill said, "I encourage risk taking in order for growth and development of goals to occur." Peggy talked about expectations, "They (the teachers) know what the expectations are and they have high expectations of teachers coming in."

Goals for teachers included supporting developmental and holistic learning. Administrators also wanted their teachers to work collaboratively together and think and act for themselves. Administrators believed that if these ingredients were present that the school would achieve an excellent standing in the community.

Goals for Students. All administrators had goals for students. These reflected their beliefs about students and their important contribution to their own success. Administrators wanted students to achieve academic and social success, be lifelong learners, learn self control, be cooperative learners, and learn to be happy.

Administrators had high expectations of students, both academically and socially. These expectations were verified by the interactions with students which were observed during school visitations. Students were anxious to tell their principals about their accomplishments and share the classroom work that they had done.

Administrators had goals for students that include being self learners and lifelong learners. Martha said, "I promote self learners and expect the children to exercise self control. I never did things for children that I thought they could do for themselves."

Many principals had a social goal for students to set the rules for themselves, in the classroom and school wide. Jennifer stated, "Students come up with the rules and consequences themselves. One is 'Don't bug your buddy.' I expect the children to follow these rules, because they were their ideas."

Being able to work cooperatively in groups was a goal for students. Ted said that they would need these skills in order to be successful in the workplace. Randy also wanted students to learn to get along in groups and work toward a common goal.

All administrators wanted the students in their school to learn to overcome the overwhelming number of hardships they face and learn to live better, happier lives. They need to be challenged, but not pressured. Dave said, "My goal for children is that they learn to live happy lives. They need to learn in order to be happy and successful."

Goals for students centered around a bright future for children. Administrators wanted a life for their students where a person can work with others and help her/himself.

Goals for Parents. Goals for parents included more school-parent partnerships. Administrators felt that it was unfair to expect schools to carry all the burden of child rearing. Ted asserted that we are not a "military school" and when we are finished with a child we can send him home. All of the administrators wanted parents to become more involved in the school process. Dave summarized this concept by saying, "Committed parents lead to successful children."

Summary. All of the administrators interviewed had goals and processes for achieving those goals. However, administrators did not talk about the same outcomes and processes. The administrators were involved in the formation of these goals at all levels, from their school building, to the community, and the state level. They had goals for teachers, students, and parents.

Instructional Leadership

Each administrator had their own definition and ideas of instructional leadership. Each had different ideas about how to use control and power in their role as instructional leader; while, strategies for success and barriers to success appeared to be similar.

Definitions. Two of the administrators believed that there was no such thing as instructional leadership. They attempted to define what they did to help the school, teachers and students, but emphasized that in their minds this was not instructional leadership. Randy said, "I work with parents, teachers and individual students to find the best solution for an educational program for that child. To that extent I may be an instructional leader."

Ted called himself a facilitator for instruction, "I am a facilitator for instruction, not an instructional leader. The teachers are the ones in the trenches, so they need the support to do what they do from day to day."

Others believed that instructional leadership was a very real quality of an excellent principal and that schools cannot perform adequately without it. Dave said, "Instructional leadership is a role that must be in place. School cannot work without it. A principal has to be so many different things to so many people."

Whatever the definitions, all administrators involved their staff in making decisions about how to run the school. Many of these decisions centered around the instructional process.

Control/Power. Administrators were assertive, yet friendly. The manner in which they used the control and power of their position as instructional leader may have had a bearing on the success of their school. Some used it assertively, by modeling and controlling; others attempted to share that power by empowering others. The power category broke down into two subcategories: take power/be assertive, give/share power .

Martha was firm in her conviction that the teachers needed to know how to set goals. Then each teacher was required to prepare their own goal setting statements. She said that many teachers did not know what goal setting was. Some really resisted it. Martha said that the teachers in her building were highly creative, but had never been channeled. She said, "I wanted to pull on those creative talents that I knew were there and let them know what they could do; let them broaden their vision; let them set the goal that they were the best teachers in the world."

Administrators talked about directing teachers on the classroom instructional process. There was a difference of opinion about how to exercise this control. Dave said, "I have to be an assertive principal. I have to know what is going on in the classroom. I advise them all the time on what has worked for me."

Martha modeled a strategy for both teachers and students in an assembly. The strategy showed teachers how to maintain classroom control. It also provided expectations for student's social skills; "I told the teachers I wanted everyone to come down to the gym, so I could talk to them. As the students started coming in I started complimenting them on self control."

Give/share power. Some of the administrators used the strategy of team work to a greater degree than others. They emphasized working in harmony with their staff. Shared decisions were common threads.

Administrators said that their strategy for initiating change began with teachers. Teachers need to use new ideas in their classrooms. Several talked about "planting a seed" with the teachers or putting a "bug in their ear." They would give out articles from professional magazines and write notes on them about the things that are already happening in the school. Peggy shared ideas with her teachers about how to achieve their goals by sharing her personal strategy; "I get ideas through by perseverance. You can never give up. I plant a seed and talk to people, work with them as a team." Jennifer gives the power back to her teachers in many ways. One of those ways is through lesson plans. As a teacher Jennifer did not see the value in lesson plans, so she tells the teachers not to worry about lesson plans. The teachers at her school turn in a sample lesson plan once a year. She said, "If my teachers turned in lesson plans all the time it wouldn't make them better teachers. Its silly. They wouldn't have the opportunity to be spontaneous and have time to do the good job they do."

They said that it was difficult to maintain balance between supervisor and mentor. Jill described control and power of the instructional leaders in this way; "Openness makes great instructional leaders. They offer leadership in a non-judgmental way. The instructional leader keeps them open to possibilities."

The power category is an important one for instructional leaders. The teachers have power and control over the classroom and the principal has power and control over the school. Obviously the principal cannot be at all places at all times, so at least some of that power must be shared with the teachers. Teachers must be empowered to make decisions in their classrooms, yet other degrees of power are left up to the principal.

Strategies for Success. Strategies for reaching the goals administrators had set for instructional leadership were very creative and diverse. They included visioning, supervision, close relationships, communicating, gatherings, programs, and parent involvement.

Randy stated, "I believe that we have to have a unanimity of what we (administrators and teachers) expect as a group; an unified vision. That's absolutely necessary if we are going to accomplish anything at all." Martha said, "As an administrator you are the keeper of the vision of all those people you represent. It is your responsibility to communicate that vision and keep it moving forward and changing as needed." Maintaining a vision was a constant process for all of these administrators. They appeared to keep the school on certain visionary tracks.

Peggy's strategy for instructional leadership began with supervision and evaluation, "I work with individual teachers to improve their performance very gently . Through the normal evaluation process and follow

up interview I pick out a couple of very strong characteristics."

The administrators were unanimous about the fallacy in following a regimented style of evaluation, where certain behaviors of teachers and students are observed and checked on a chart. Randy expressed what good teaching was to him: "A good classroom cannot be judged by what you see. Its hard to judge what is good in teaching. Its in the air and effort. It can't be any particular pattern of teaching."

At evaluation meetings, teacher instructional goals would also be addressed. Martha told about this encounter: "Sometimes I would start out in evaluations by saying "Have you ever given a thought to going self contained?" They would frown and say, 'OK, I'll think about it.' This was how we got rid of departmentalizing."

Jennifer had a unique outlook on the strategy for reaching teachers. She appeared to view herself as one of the teachers when she said, "I go to workshops right along with my teachers." Jennifer's strategy for instructional leadership was to form close personal relationships with the staff. The staff admired and appreciated her concerns for them and her work. Jennifer's approach was to be totally aware of her teachers' needs in and out of the classroom. She was able to look beyond immediate problems to the source. In this way, she supported a dual role of friend and assertive leader.

One of my teachers has preschool children at home. I noticed that she was really feeling on edge with the students in her classroom. I asked her what she thought could be causing all of this stress and she proceeded to tell me her frustrations with her own children and her home life. I suggested that she join two other teachers who go to the high school track and walk every day after school. She has joined up with that group now and walks with them. She has made some good friends, gets some exercise, and goes home relaxed, ready to face her children. She told me that they have a much better relationship now and she seems to be a better teacher, too. I really believe that she will come to me again if she has any problems.

Jennifer's teachers trust her to help them improve the quality of their lives. For this teacher who Jennifer helped, she has a better quality of life in teaching in Jennifer's school than she would if she stayed at home with her children. The teacher had felt torn between her love for teaching and being a loving parent. Now, with Jennifer's help she can have both; she loves teaching students and mothering her own children.

Of the administrators studied, all talked about the importance of hiring good teachers from the onset. Randy said, "I would much rather hire a teacher who is kind and understanding over one who is highly knowledgeable." Peggy stated, "I try to hire an excellent staff by being tenacious. I interview a lot of people. I have developed some techniques that work for me. Once you have a staff established you have a network to get goals accomplished."

Communication was a key element in reaching teacher and student goals. It was accomplished by individual face to face communications, faculty meetings, memos, and newsletters. Most administrators preferred talking to teachers directly, rather than sending memos. However, memos and teacher newsletters were an integral part of achieving group goals. Dave said, "I don't like to have teacher's meetings. If you have one you had better have a strong agenda."

Strategies used by the administrators for affecting students' learning were accomplished through class scheduling, whole school assemblies, classroom visitations, and individual student counseling. Some administrators took an active interest in matching personalities of students and teachers, and believed that this played an important part of the student's success in the classroom.

Peggy's strategy for influencing students is accomplished by visiting the classrooms and talking about the school motto: learn, laugh and love. "I tell them that their responsibility is to learn. Each day they are to bring a smile on their face. Love is not the sticky gooey kind, but a genuine caring for each other."

Peggy initiated a program called TLC. It means touching, listening and caring. Its a one-on-one program, putting teacher volunteers into a mentoring relationship with at risk students. Each teacher stays with that student all through the elementary school years.

Ted has the principal's lunch bunch. Each teacher chooses an outstanding student. Then the students sit down to lunch and discuss problems that the children see as important. "I take their suggestions very seriously."

Randy has a student council, made up of two 5th graders from each of three classes, where they discuss things they want to do or problems they would like to tackle. They have an on going fund raiser in their student store. They use the money on the school in any fashion the students want. "This year they decided to buy newspapers once a week for classroom use. The teachers were very excited that the students wanted to spend the money for this exciting form of classroom learning experience." Randy calls this his form of cooperative learning, because kids can learn to get along in groups and work toward a common goal.

Parent goals were met by direct contact with parents. Jennifer appeared very energetic when she told about the parent workshops she conducted in the evenings on parenting skills. Most of the administrators had programs similar to Ted's VIP program where parents come to the school to help teachers. Parents were included in Randy's "I See You Reading Program." Parents were called at random times to catch their children reading. Parental support played an important role in successful instructional leadership. Parents need to be sought out and made to feel important in their child's school.

Instructional leadership varied with each administrator. Each had strategies for instructional leadership even though they did not all acknowledge the existence of the term instructional leader. Some were more actively involved in the instructional process than others. The manner in which each was involved also differed. All of the administrators actively pursued the principal objective of educating the students in their schools.

Barriers to Success. Barriers to success focused on four main categories; mind set of teachers, state department mandates, time constraints, and parent opposition.

One of the largest barriers to success for principals was the mind set of certain teachers. Jill explained it this way, "Those who are creative are critiqued much more harshly by their peers than a principal could ever critique them. What concerns me is a lack of collegiality; those with this mind set are not willing to let anyone else try anything new."

Others talked about negative attitudes of certain teachers; those who complained about everything.

Administrators also said that some teachers were unwilling to go to workshops, or share ideas with other teachers. Jill stated, "We have some teachers who are so set in their ways, that they refuse to try anything new. They have been teaching the same way for years." Jennifer agreed with this point by saying, "Sure, I have teachers who do not want to go to workshops, but I don't press the issue."

Some administrators believed that the state department mandates were barriers to developmental learning. These mandates were forcing teachers to separate subjects and abandon holistic learning methods. Teachers were frightened that they would be accused of not teaching specific knowledge. It was very hard to convince teachers that there was freedom of interpretation in the new laws.

Some administrators said that it was difficult to find space and training courses for teachers to learn computer literacy, so that they could teach this new subject to their students. Principals from rural districts said that the state had mandated certain curriculum areas be covered, but had not provided the money to pay for the teachers to attend the workshops.

Most administrators said that they did not have enough time in the day to do everything. Jennifer said that she used to be able to get into the classrooms more to talk and read to children, but pressures of paperwork, discipline problems, and administrative meetings were taking up most of her time. Sherry said, "I have many interruptions during the day. I have a list of classroom visitations and other things I need to do with teachers, but I count myself lucky if I get to do one of them."

Parent opposition was mentioned by all the principals. Peggy talked about a child who the school recommended as needing special education. The parents refused services and took the child out of school. Dave talked about parents who were refusing to help their child at home. Other comments were about non-support from the public and parents who complain.

Barriers to success was an area that administrators did not like to talk about. They were hard pressed to come up with solutions to these barriers. Barriers were seen as mind set of teachers, state department mandates, time constraints, parent opposition.

Summary. Instructional leadership was divided into four subcategories; definitions, control/power, strategies for success, and barriers to success. It appears that instructional leadership is a role that includes all roles of the principal.

Teachers' Perceptions of Administrators

The grounding process was established when the administrators' statements were confirmed by the teachers. Both had similar beliefs about learning and the instructional process. The teacher's interview was set up similar to the administrator's interview. However, the teachers did not respond in the same manner. They were more concerned about their working relationship with the administrator and his/her involvement in their

classroom. This may emphasize how important the administrator is in providing instructional leadership. How teachers interface with their administrators may be a key factor to their performance in the classroom.

Working Relationship . The working relationship emerged as a main category in the teacher interviews. Simply being aware of situations both in the classroom and personally appeared significant to each teacher . The working relationship went even further in that several teachers wanted to know what the administrator was thinking; if the administrator talked to them and involved them, their relationship was good. If their administrator was silent, it worried some teachers.

One of Ted's teachers said that he gives us support emotionally and monetarily. "He has the best combined characteristics of all the administrators I have had. He is very organized. He is not nosy, just involved. I like that." A teacher from Dave's school stated, "I transferred to this school from another school in the district. I really like it here. I have the freedom to try new ideas in my classroom without being ridiculed by other teachers. Mr. Finn likes my ideas and encourages me to try them."

One of Jennifer's teachers said that everyone liked Jennifer because "she watches out for us. I am never scared of getting in trouble. She always seems to know the smallest things about us."

Each administrator was involved in the classroom to some extent. The degree of this involvement may play an important part in the degree of successful instructional leadership. One of Jennifer 's teachers said, "We don't have to involve her, she is always around taking part in what we do." One of Jennifer 's teachers said that she did not know how an administrator could always be there like Jennifer was for them.

Nearly all of the teachers interviewed said that they involved their administrator during special functions, such as a class play or award presentations. One activity initiated by teachers in Ted's school went like this: "We have Read Aloud Day when all of the teachers, including the principal, dress up as story book characters." One of Randy's teachers said, "I don't involve my administrator in discipline situations. I ask him to play a positive role in my classroom. I have him come to my room when I have caught someone being good." One of Martha's teachers said, "I ask a bunch of questions. How I grade today is a result of her working with me." One of Jill's teachers stated that he was included in everything that went on and that he liked Jill's participative management style.

One of Ted's teachers said, "The climate here is good; it's pretty unstructured." One of Sara's teachers said, "The school is so much better since she came. We've done a lot of things this year with Sara. We don't just stay in our own little world like we did in the past." One of Dave's teachers said, "I enjoy teaching here because we have the freedom to teach like we want to. Our principal has high levels of expectations for us. You can sense the professionalism here." One of Peggy's teachers said, "We have a shared philosophy. The principal backs the teachers to the hilt. There is a lot of learning going on here. Everyone wants to please her." A teacher from Dave's school stated, "I transferred to this school from another school in the district. I really like it here. I have the freedom to try new ideas in my classroom without being ridiculed by other teachers. Mr. Finn likes my ideas and encourages me to try them."

In sum, classroom involvement was a key factor for instructional leadership in the minds of these

teachers. They saw their principal providing praise and constantly being there for them.

Not All Roses: Problems Yet to be Solved. Teachers expressed a thankfulness for being where they were, suggesting that other schools were much worse; that they were in the best of a troublesome situation. They talked about the teacher's union and political concerns, but were mainly concerned about their principal controlling negative teachers, and the collegiality that they desired to have with their principal.

Teachers wished that their principal exercised more power in troublesome situations. They wished that he/she could control other negative and resistant teachers. One of Randy's teachers said, "I feel lucky to be here. We have a lot of positive leadership, but I am in a very negative wing though. I wish that he could get the cooperation he expects." Others talked about teachers ostracized other teachers with good ideas.

The teachers at most of the schools said that they worked in an atmosphere of collegiality with their principal. One of Sherry's teacher said, "Sherry works with us to solve our problems. She has some different ideas for old problems. That gets the rest of us thinking, too. However, one of Randy's teachers said that he was friendly, but that he liked to maintain a distance with his teachers. She said, "I worry sometimes about what he thinking about me and the job I do."

Teachers praised their principals. They believed that each had been successful in the area of instructional leadership, but wanted their principal to have more power to control negative teachers and get instructional ideas across. The grounding process began with the recommendations and was completed through the teacher perceptions of their administrators. It was evident that the teachers admired and respected their principal by the positive comments that were made, which supported these administrators being recommended as instructional leaders. There were problems which seemed to interfere with the role of instructional leader.

Summary. The data presented here in the form of open coding provide the basis for this research. The main categories of administrators' perceptions of education were beliefs, goals, and instructional leadership. The main categories for teacher's perceptions of administrators were working relationship, problems of administrators.

These administrators were not in total agreement about issues of and strategies for instructional leadership. Instructional leadership was not defined in the same way by these administrators. Some did not believe that they were instructional leaders and instead told what they did to facilitate instruction. Perhaps instructional leadership is so entwined with other roles of the elementary administrator that it is not perceived as a separate entity and relies on the interpretation of the principal.

Analysis of the Data

The more detailed steps of Grounded Theory are axial and selective coding. Data analysis or coding is a term that represents the process by which data are broken down, conceptualized, and put back together in new

ways by the use of induction. Induction is a process which enables the researcher to move from specific facts or data to general conclusions, unlike the deductive process in which analysis moves from general premises to specific conclusions (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

Axial Coding

In axial coding, categories and subcategories are taken from open coding and linked to a new category through a set of relationships by use of the following paradigm model.

Causal condition refers to event(s) or incident(s) that lead to the development of a phenomena. Phenomena is the occurrence under study. Context represents the particular set of conditions in which the action/interaction strategies are carried out. Intervening conditions act to either facilitate or constrain the action/interaction strategies. Action/interaction strategies are aimed at managing, handling, carrying out, or responding to the intervening conditions as it exists under a specific set of conditions. Consequences refer to the outcomes which result according to action/interaction strategies (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

There were four distinct steps performed simultaneously for linking and developing these categories: 1) hypothetically relating subcategories by explaining their relationships; 2) verification of these hypotheses against actual data; 3) continued search for properties of categories; and 4) initial exploration of variation in phenomena. Through the use of this model new categories were developed which will form the theoretical basis for the ultimate theory which will be revealed through selective coding (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

Axial coding resulted in this paradigm model: The causal condition which led to the phenomena of instructional leadership was power balancing. Instructional leadership was defined by Gorton (1983) as those activities that foster the improvement of a person, group, or program. Power balancing occurred from principal to teacher, teacher to teacher, and school to community. Action/interaction strategies led to the consequences of collaborative teaching and developmental learning. The action/interaction strategies were trust, collegiality, empowerment, diplomacy, and visioning. Intervening conditions were power inequities, time limitations, and limited staff development. Contextual conditions which may affect intervening conditions and action/interaction strategies were the community, the staff, and the state department.

Selective Coding

Selective Coding is the integrating of categories to form Grounded Theory. The core category, Power Inequities, was systematically related to other categories so that a phenomena about instructional leadership could emerge. The story line was told narratively, then the story was told analytically, which resulted in an instructional leadership theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990).

Story Line

In spite of the overwhelming number of power struggles within the school and school community, many

elementary administrators have developed strategies that neutralize these struggles. These strategies clear the path to successful instructional leadership. Each administrator who was interviewed in this research was recommended as being an outstanding instructional leader. Fulfilling this role seems to be the primary force motivating them to do whatever is necessary to keep the school progressing and serving the needs of the students. These administrators understand the communication process and use information to strengthen the organization within the school community.

Instructional leaders must be people who are kind, yet assertive; they get their way through listening and meeting the needs of people rather than using coercive means of manipulation. They must shield the teachers from pressures of the community and the central office, yet appease all of these groups with sensitivity and diplomacy. Since a school's main function is instruction, an effective principal is an instructional leader in everything that s/he does.

It is interesting to note how administrators define instructional leadership. They gather data from their school settings and combine it with their own beliefs to define their goals. Some said that they were facilitators for instruction. Others said that they were coaches for the staff, the parents, and the students. Still others said that they were definitely instructional leaders and had a direct impact on classroom activities. But, however they defined their role, they were definitely leaders of the school and the instruction which occurred there. Instructional leader is another term for school administrator and cannot be separated from other duties and roles. Instructional leadership transcends all roles of the elementary administrator.

Since, the administrators in this study were different people with different personalities, it stands to reason that they would choose different strategies for instructional leadership based on their unique intervening conditions. However, there were commonalities present which helped each of these administrators achieve excellence.

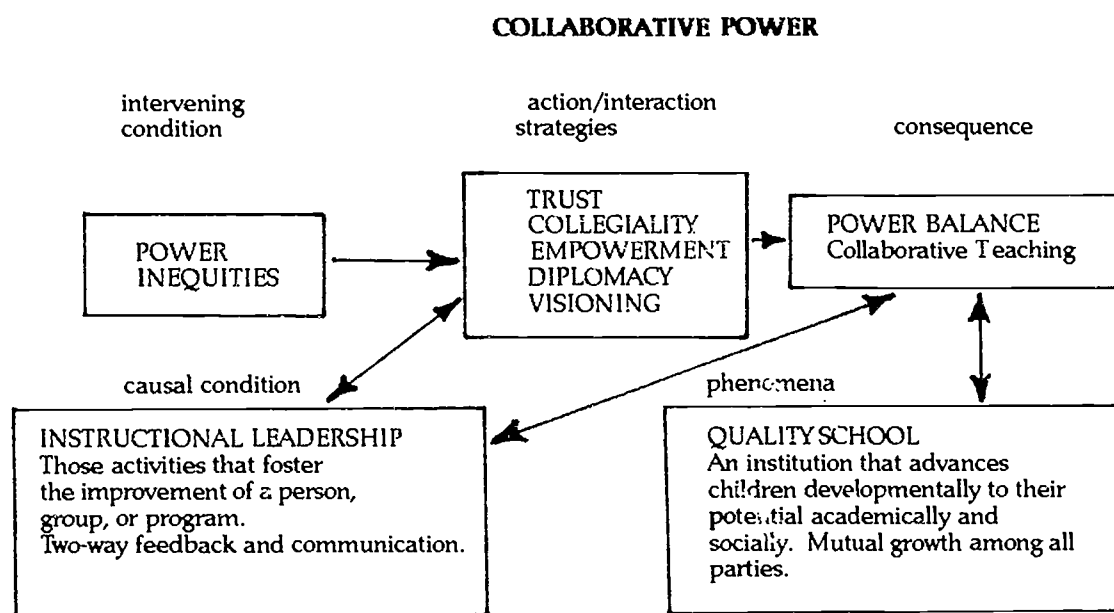
Analytic Story. If power struggles within the school community are dealt with effectively, the elementary administrator will be able to fulfill the role of instructional leader. Power balancing with and between teachers and community led to a special type of management called Collaborative Power. It signifies that there is a power continuum along which the principal places her/himself and others in the school community. Collaborative Power was seen as a strategy to bridge the phenomena of instructional leadership and the quality school. Collaborative Power and innovative programs were the primary strategies used by principals to create a successful school.

Collaborative Power Theory

Collaborative Power is the term that will be used for strategies that the instructional leader employs to manage the staff, the students and the school community. During the research process three criteria emerged that would define an excellent school: 1) The principal and teachers work together as equals when educating the children, 2) Teachers work together in harmony when educating the children, and 3) The students receive

developmental instructional programs. The first two criteria define collaborative teaching. The third item refers to a quality school. Trust, collegiality, empowerment, diplomacy, and visioning were seen as salient conditions between quality schools and the power inequities context. Keeping the power factors within the school and school community balanced will be a major factor in establishing the basis for a quality school. After this, various activities which the principal and faculty undertake will have greater chance for success.

A diagram which illustrates Collaborative Power is shown as Figure 1. Collaborative Power is accomplished when: Power inequities (intervening condition) are filtered through a gate of action/interaction strategies, which include trust, collegiality, empowerment, diplomacy, and visioning. This leads to a power balance, where collaborative efforts of principals, teachers, students, and parents clear the way for a quality school. A quality school is defined as an institution that advances children's development to their potential both socially and academically.



Through Collaborative Power, instructional leaders can balance power inequities in the school and school community.

Figure 1: Collaborative Power

Tasks for Collaborative Power. The most significant information emerging from this research were the ways that elementary administrators balanced power inequities within their school and community. Until these power inequities were solved, all efforts of the instructional leader were in vain.

Even though all principals did not use the same strategies, there were general tactics used to balance the power. The steps to achieve this Collaborative Power are presented as Table 1.

TABLE 1
TASKS FOR COLLABORATIVE POWER

1. The principal must develop the trust of teachers and students by being consistently honest, supportive, and available.
2. The principal must work with each teacher as an equal, especially when classroom instruction is involved.
3. Those teachers who criticize/ridicule others must modify their behavior .
4. Teachers must respect each other and work collaboratively together toward the common goal of educating all children.
5. The principal must encourage all teachers to voice their opinions and ideas about quality schools.
6. The principal must involve the parents and the community to the best extent possible in the educational process of the children.
7. The principal must maintain the vision of the desired outcomes for the students.

Implications

In light of the current literature of instructional leadership, many implications can be made from this study. These implications support and refute existing research; some implications serve as grounds for further research.

Administrative Instructional Leadership

An examination of the data both supports and rejects current studies which revealed attributes, tasks, and models for instructional leadership.

This study supported Sellars (1988) study which implied that teachers respected their principal according to their classroom experience. One teacher said that her principal could not be an instructional leader, because he did not have elementary experience. She said that he was a good manager of people, but that he did not know what teachers were talking about in elementary school. In the same school, another teacher said that she was glad that her principal took a course in early childhood development, because they could now communicate about her instructional goals.

The issue of gender may or may not be an implication for this study. The data revealed that both men and women participated in instructional leadership activities, which was contrary to Wilson's 1988 study . However, this study was not the result of random sampling techniques like Wilson's study. A gender issue may be implied, because five women in contrast to three men were recommended as instructional leaders.

Studies that listed strategies/activities for success were not the same when compared with each other and none were the same as this study. This implies that the specific types of activities may not matter and that their

presence is a result of combined efforts of principals and teachers. In other words, the activities will differ according to the contextual conditions of the people who create them.

Administrators used supervision as a strategy for success of instructional leadership, but did not believe in a checklist. For example, one principal said, "You can tell a teacher is doing a good job when you walk into the classroom. It's in the air; it's a feeling of excitement about learning."

Reyes and Capper's (1991) Intergroup Power Relations Model for Leadership had an impact on this study, however there were differences. Power was also determined to be an important issue for elementary administrators. This study also implied that elementary principal's beliefs and attitudes have a bearing on the functioning of the school. However, this study concentrated on the elementary school and instructional leadership; their study concentrated on the high school and dropout rates. There is an implication that there are significant differences between power inequities/balancing in elementary schools and high schools. This study also implied that teachers should be included in a model for instructional leadership; they were not included in Reyes and Capper's (1991) model.

Some administrators did not have a consistent thread between beliefs, goals and strategies. Their goals and strategies contradicted their beliefs of education. For example, one believed that teachers were professionals, but used coercive means to correct their behavior, rather than sharing and empowering. The implications would be that some of these administrators were more successful than others and/or that some may have been practicing instructional leadership, while others were not. If they would learn to use reflective practice, they could bring their beliefs in line with their goals and strategies (Schon, 1990). Krug's study of instructional leadership was also verified in this research. Interpretations of actions rather than the actions themselves appeared to have more of an impact on instructional leadership. Those principals who could interpret normally mundane actions such as cafeteria duty as practicing instructional leadership were more in tune to practicing instructional leadership. In the busy lives of the elementary school principal it is often difficult to schedule instructional leadership activities.

This study implied that Glasser's Control Theory can be used in education, especially administration. It was seen as being used by both powerful teachers and administrators for both negative and positive results. Belonging was withheld by powerful teachers from those with new and creative ideas if the principal did not intervene with Collaborative Power. Empowerment, freedom and fun were provided by the administrators who acted as lead-managers. Administrators motivated teachers by talking to them and being open. It was implied that administrators can be most successful when they help the people around them improve the quality of their life.

Administrative instructional leadership is a very important and vital part of an effective school. It was also implied that quality teachers want to be a part of these organizations and often seek to find the best one in which to work. Excellent instructional leaders are needed to bring schools up to the high standards our children deserve, the community demands, and all educators strive to achieve. Administrative instructional leaders are needed to formulate that collaborative vision and exercise Collaborative Power.

Conclusion

Instruction is the main goal of the elementary school and the job of the elementary administrator is to facilitate that instruction. The instructional leader leads the teachers, the students, and the community in creating their combined vision of an excellent school.

There are key elements that are required for successful instructional leadership. These key elements are visioning, supervising/evaluating, forming close personal relationships, communicating, conducting gatherings, initiating programs, and soliciting parental involvement. Key elements were also found that served as barriers to success. These were the mind set of teachers, state department mandates, time constraints, and parent opposition.

From the examination of these strategies and barriers, one main problem was found the most difficult to handle. This problem centered around power inequities between principal and teachers, between teachers, and between school and community. A theory was developed to deal with these power inequities and foster instructional leadership practices.

Improved practice for elementary administrators can be achieved through the use of Collaborative Power Theory. Use of this theory will ensure that progressive ideas have a chance to spring forth so that the school may serve the children in the best way possible by serving their dynamic needs. When varying contextual conditions are taken into account, the administrator uses trust, collegiality, empowerment, diplomacy, and visioning to achieve a quality school where the teachers teach collaboratively and the children learn developmentally. If key elements of successful instructional leaders and Collaborative Power Theory are used the elementary administrator may be able to achieve success at instructional leadership.

REFERENCES

- Bukowski, R. G. (1989). Analysis of the importance of responsibility areas to the role and evaluation of Illinois principals. Dissertation Abstracts International , 50, 06A, 1493.
- Camborne, B. (1988). The whole story: Natural learning and the acquisition of literacy in the classroom . New York: Ashton Scholastic.
- Conrad, C. (1982). Grounded Theory: An alternative approach to research in higher education. Review of Higher Education , 5(4), 239-249.
- Cooper, L. A. (1989). Redefining the principalship: The principal as instructional leader. Principal , 68 (3), 13-16.
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded Theory procedures and techniques . Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Deal, T. E. & Peterson, K. D. (1990). The principals role in shaping school culture . U. S. Department of Education: NAESP, 80-81.
- Foster, W. (1986). Paradigms and promises . Buffalo: Prometheus.
- Glasser, W. (1984). Control theory: A new explanation of how we control our lives. New York: Harper and Row.
- Glasser, W. (1986). Control theory in the classroom . New York: Harper and Row.
- Glasser, W. (1990). The quality school. New York: Harper and Row.
- Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory . Chicago: Aldine.
- Gorton, R. A. (1983). School administration and supervision: Leadership challenges and opportunities . Dubuque, IA :Wm. C. Brown Pub. Co.
- Hallinger, P. (1990). Developing the strategic thinking of instructional leaders. The Elementary School Journal , 91 (2), 89-108.
- Heck, R. H., Larsen T. J., & Marcoulides, G. A. (1990). Instructional leadership and school achievement: Validation of a causal model. Educational Administration Quarterly , 26 (6), 94-125.
- Krug, S. E. (1992). Instructional leadership: A constructivist perspective. Educational Administrative Quarterly , 28(3), 430-433.
- McCurdy, J. (1983). The role of principals in effective schools: Problems and solutions . Sacramento: American Association of School Administrators.
- Reyes, P. & Capper, C. A. (1991). Urban principals: A critical perspective on the context of minority student dropout. Educational Administrative Quarterly , 27(4), 530-557.
- Schon, D. A. (1990). Educating the reflective practitioner . San Francisco: Josey-Bass.
- Sellers, J. W. (1988). Teacher ratings of management and instructional leadership and prior job assignment of elementary principals. Dissertation Abstracts International , 49, 09A, 2486.
- Wellington, B. (1991). The promise of reflective practice. Educational Leadership , 48(6), 4-5.
- Wilson, D. R. (1988). The elementary principal as instructional leader in an era of reform: Reskilling and deskilling and the implications of training for instructional excellence. Dissertation Abstracts International , 49, 10A, 2891.