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The Relationship Between Instructional Leadership and Organizational Commitment of Teachers

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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTRUCTIONAL
LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT OF TEACHERS**

by

Mary Thurmon Skelton, B.A., M.A..

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education: Educational Leadership

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if principal instructional leadership practices are related to elementary teachers' organizational commitment. Quantitative data were collected through an online survey from kindergarten through fifth grade teachers in a southern state. The survey respondents were full time regular education classroom teachers who had been teaching for at least one year under their current principal. There were 182 respondents who completed the entire survey and whose data were statistically analyzed. The 75 survey questions that were statistically analyzed measured teacher's perceptions of principal instructional leadership and self-reported organizational commitment of teachers with a Likert scale, as well as demographic variables. There were three hypotheses tested, with three hypotheses rejected. All responses were anonymous. Conclusions drawn were (a) teachers rated principals highest on the instructional leadership function of framing and communicating school goals, (b) teachers reported greater levels of organizational commitment when principals communicated school goals, and (c) years of teaching experience, school context, school size, or grade level teaching did not affect organizational commitment of teachers. School leaders can benefit from the data by developing a better understanding of what instructional leadership practices influence teachers' organizational commitment.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends who have supported me throughout this process. Les, you never gave up on me, and helped me push through. To my precious children, Caroline, Ainslee, Samuel, and Grayhm and daughter-in-law Rashmi; I love you with all my heart, and hope you will never give up on your goals even when there are obstacles blocking the road to them. Remember that obstacles are what you see when you take your eyes off the goal. Grayhm, you are young and have your high school and college years ahead of you. Aim high, and remember that of whom much is given, much is required. To my parents, who never had the opportunity to get a formal education, I thank you for instilling a strong determination and work ethic in me. I am truly blessed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The impact of a teacher on the academic achievement of a student can have consequences far beyond a particular grade level or subject in which the teacher taught the student (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005; Rowan, Correnti, & Miller, 2002). According to Haushek and Rivkin (2010), a year with a teacher in the top 15% for performance, based on student achievement, can move a student from the 50th percentile to the 58th percentile or more. Conversely, a teacher in the bottom fifteen percent for performance, based on student achievement, can push a child in the 50th percentile to below the 42nd percentile. This analysis applied to teachers and students in urban, suburban, and rural schools (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2010). Retaining effective, committed teachers is essential to building sustained and coordinated instructional programs aimed at building a strong organizational culture with continuous academic improvement (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012).

School leadership is second only to teachers when considering what impacts student achievement (Leithwood, K., Seashore-Lewis, K., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K., 2004). According to research, school leadership indirectly affects student outcomes by creating working conditions that support teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006, Portin et al., 2009). Effective principals, who are able to support and sustain school environments that are conducive to teaching and

learning, are instrumental in attracting, supporting, and retaining high-quality teachers, (Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2013; Clotfelter, Ladd, Vigdor, 2005; 2007; Leithwood et al., 2004). Highly rated principals are effective at retaining quality teachers, and can further improve the quality of education by improving the instruction of existing teachers or by hiring and retaining teachers that improve the quality of the workforce (Branch et al., 2013).

Statement of the Problem

The research questions in this study seek to determine if there is a relationship between teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership and organizational commitment of teachers. Quantitative studies have provided evidence that organizational characteristics related to working conditions and administrative support, not student or teacher characteristics, are most predictive when determining reasons for teachers staying at a school or leaving a school (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Boyd, D., Grossman, P., Ing, M., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., Wyckoff, 2011; Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2005; Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004a; 2004b; Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Loeb, Darling-Hammond, Luczak, 2005; Rivkin et al., 2005; Scafidi, Sjoquest, & Stinebrickner, 2007).

Social working conditions such as the culture of the school, collegiality among colleagues, and principal leadership were the main factors cited when predicting teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to stay at a school (Boyd et.al, 2011; Dee, Henkin, & Singleton, 2006; Devos, Tuytens, & Hulpia, 2013; Graham, Hudson, & Willis, 2014; Hughes, Matt, & O'Reilly, 2015; Ladd, 2011; Nguni, Slegers, & Denessen, 2006; Park, 2005; Sammons et al., 2007; Simon & Johnson, 2015).

Related empirical research has also indicated that leadership has a direct effect on the organizational commitment of employees (Nguni et al., 2006; Park, 2005). Research analyzing the consequences of organizational commitment; particularly turnover, turnover intentions, and absenteeism, indicates negative correlations with organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnsky, 2002).

The literature indicates, among factors cited as reasons a teacher decides to leave a school, a lack of administrative support is cited most often as the reason for leaving. Results from this study will identify instructional leadership functions school administrators can practice to support teaching and learning, which may impact teacher commitment to the school organization. Organizational commitment has been reported to impact employee turnover as a consequence of organizational commitment (Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991; 1997; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002 Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Significance of the Problem

Teacher turnover at the school level can negatively impact student achievement (Ingersoll, 2001; Kane, Rockoff, & Staiger, 2008; Rivkin et al., 2005; Ronfeldt, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2013). This impact can negatively affect long-term school academic success, and sustained school improvement, particularly in public urban schools where teacher turnover is at a higher rate than rural and suburban schools (Ingersoll, 2001; 2003).

Ingersoll reported that the majority of teachers, who leave a school or leave the teaching profession, do so during the first year of teaching. Organizational structure, teacher experience, and school size can create a contingent base for leadership (Hallinger, 2016; Hallinger & Wang, 2015)

Research has provided evidence demonstrating the impact of principal leadership on school organizations, school conditions, teaching and learning, and student achievement (Byrk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Day et al., 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Printy, 2008; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Silins & Mulford, 2004)). Large-scale reviews of quantitative revealed findings indicating leadership is second only to classroom instruction (Day et al., 2009; Hallinger, 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; 2010; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) also claimed that classroom teachers are the primary source for impacting student learning and principal leadership is second only to classroom instruction on student outcomes.

A principal's influence on teaching and learning is seen through effects on the school organization and school culture as well as on teacher behaviors and classroom practices (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1998; Witziers, Bosker, & Kruger, 2003). Hallinger (2010) reported that principals impact student learning by developing organizational structures and programs that promote teaching and learning. Instructional leaders concentrate on practices that create conditions for teacher or student learning (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Supovitz, Sirinides, & May 2010).

Instructional leadership enacted by school leaders has been shown to have an indirect effect on student outcomes (Bush, 2007; Supovitz et al., 2010). However, research on instructional leadership as a mediating role is scarce (Salo, Nylund, & Stjernstrom, 2015). Research offers little in understanding interactions between principals and teachers, creating a gap in principal leadership literature (Neumerski, 2012).

Research, on teacher turnover as an outcome variable, has focused on factors affecting teachers' decisions to leave schools; however, there is a need for a better understanding of organizational factors and interactions which enable teachers to sustain their commitment and effectiveness over the course of their careers (Sammons, et al., 2007). Approaches to organizational commitment research have focused on pre-entry (antecedents) commitment and post-entry (consequences or outcomes) commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment reflects multiple commitments to multiple targets that make up the organization as well as pre-entry and post-entry commitments (Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993). This study fills a gap in the literature by taking organizational commitment from a general view of antecedents and consequences to a view that includes how employees perceive leadership experiences in the organization, and how employees view their commitment to the organization in light of these experiences.

The variables under study are principal instructional leadership and teacher organizational commitment. The demographic variables of (a) gender of principal; (b) size of school; (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural); (d) years teaching under current principal; (e) years of teaching experience; and (f) grade level teaching will be compared to teacher perceptions of instructional leadership functions and perceptions of organizational commitment.

Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

Analysis of the following questions will add to the existing body of research on teachers' intentions to remain at a school as an outcome related to the impact of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership on teacher organizational commitment.

I. How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

II. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?

III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale.

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypotheses 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions are presented.

Affective Commitment: The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its' goals.

Continuance Commitment: The willingness of the employee to remain in an organization because of nontransferable investments.

Elementary Principal: The head of an elementary school that holds the position of presiding rank.

Elementary School: A kindergarten through 5th grade public school.

Elementary Teacher: A kindergarten through 5th grade regular classroom teacher who is a staff member at a public school and who instructs students in classroom situations in which pupil attendance is documented for the school system in which the teacher is employed.

Instructional Leadership: Principal practices that fall into three domains of the instructional leadership framework by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985): (a) defining the school mission, (b) managing the instructional program and, (c) creating a positive school climate.

Normative Commitment: Loyalty to the organization or felt moral obligation to remain with the organization.

Organizational Commitment: An attachment of an employee to an organization when goals of the organization are aligned with employee goals; employees are willing to exert extra effort on behalf of the organization; and when employees commit to maintaining their connection to the organization (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen; 1984; Mowday Steers & Porter, 1979).

PIMRS: Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger 1983; 1990) (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985)

TCM: Three Component Model Employee Commitment Survey: A survey instrument that measures organizational commitment along the scales of affective commitment, normative commitment, and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993).

Assumptions

Three assumptions underlay this study. The first assumption was that the participants would respond truthfully and accurately complete the survey. The second assumption was that the participants would understand the content of the questionnaires. The third assumption was that only regular education classroom teachers in grades kindergarten through fifth grade participated in the survey.

Limitations

The first limitation is that this study was only relative to regular education kindergarten through fifth grade teachers in elementary school. The second limitation is that the results may not be generalizable to other grade levels or school levels. The third

limitation is this study was conducted during a specific time period representing perceptions at that time.

Delimitations

The first delimitation is that this study was limited to elementary schools in two regions in a southern state. The second delimitation is that kindergarten through fifth grade teachers were participants in this study.

Summary

The purposes of this study were: (1) to determine if perceived principal instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) are related to perceived teacher organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1987, 1991), Meyer et al., (1993); (2) to determine if there was a difference in perceived instructional leadership practices, as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and the variables of: (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching; (3) to determine if there was a difference in perceived organizational commitment of teachers, as defined by Meyer and Allen (1987,1991) Meyer et al., (1993), and the variables of (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context, (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching; (4) to determine if there was a difference between instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) on each of the PIMRS subscales, and organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1987, 1991),

Meyer et al. (1993); (5) to determine if there was a difference between principal instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger et al. (1985) and on the three subscales of affective, normative and continuance commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1987, 1991) and Meyer et al., (1993).

Elementary teachers in grades K-5 from two regions in a southern state were participants in this study. Results from this study may help identify instructional leadership functions school administrators can practice to support teaching and learning, while impacting teacher commitment to the school organization.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this literature review is to identify instructional leadership functions school administrators can practice, that may directly impact teacher commitment to the school or organization, which have been reported to impact turnover as a consequence of organizational commitment (Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991; 1997; Meyer, et al., 1993; Meyer, et al., 2002; Mowday, et al., 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The variables under study are principal instructional leadership and teacher organizational commitment. Demographic variables (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching, were compared to teacher perceptions of instructional leadership functions and perceptions of organizational commitment.

Principal effectiveness research has demonstrated that principals have positional power to affect and create a school environment conducive to teaching and learning (Clotfelter et al., 2007; Seashore-Lewis, Wahlstrom, Anderson, & Michlin, 2010). Leithwood and Riehl (2003) defined leadership as the process of providing direction and exercising influence while mobilizing and working with others in the organization to

achieve shared goals. Barth (2001) maintains that successful leaders believe in what they are doing, and in the process of leading, relay this to all stakeholders through successful interactions while fulfilling the established school vision.

School leaders work with and through faculty and staff in the organization, but also establish the conditions which enable faculty and staff to be effective (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2010). As a result, principal leadership effects on the school are both direct and indirect (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, Witziers et al., 2003). School leaders affect school improvement outcomes indirectly and most powerfully through their direct influence on teacher motivation, morale, job satisfaction, commitment, and school culture (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Heck, 1998, Leithwood et al., 2010, Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson et al., 2008; Suppovitz, Sirinides & May, 2010; Witziers et al., 2003).

School leadership is second only to teachers when considering what impacts student achievement (Leithwood, et al. 2004). According to research, school leadership indirectly affects student outcomes by creating working conditions that support teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006, Portin et al., 2009). Effective principals who are able to support and sustain school environments that are conducive to teaching and learning are instrumental in attracting, supporting, and retaining high-quality teachers (Branch et al., 2013; Clotfelter et al., 2007, Leithwood et al., 2004). Highly rated principals are effective at retaining quality teachers and can further improve the quality of education by improving the instruction of existing teachers or by hiring and retaining teachers that improve the quality of the workforce

(Branch et al., 2013). Studies documenting the importance of retaining effective teachers have found that a one standard deviation difference in the quality of teachers raises student achievement in reading and math between a 0.10 and a 0.24 standard deviation (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sander, 2007; Rivkin et al., 2005; Rockoff, 2004).

Ingersoll (2003) analyzed data from the 2001 Schools and Staffing Survey and found that over 51% of teachers left their schools because of poor administrative support, student discipline, lack of preparation time, intrusion on teaching time, lack of faculty influence, and class sizes. Through further analyses of the Schools and Staffing Surveys from 1987-2008, Ingersoll and Merrill (2010) reported that improving teacher retention at the school level could help solve school staffing problems.

Analysis of National Center for Education Statistics data from the 2013 Teacher Follow-Up Survey following the Schools and Staffing Survey indicated that public school attrition rates represented a total of 238,000 teachers in that year, which was equal to the demand for teachers for the following school year (Sutcher, Darling-Hammond, & Carver-Thomas, 2016). Further analysis of the data indicated that there are not enough qualified teachers to meet the demands in all locations and fields which could lead to a shortage of teachers by the year 2025 (Sutcher, et al., 2016).

Several reasons for an impending teacher shortage were reported by Sutcher et al. (2016): the projection of student enrollment has increased; lower pupil-teacher ratios are expected over the next decade; enrollment in teacher preparations programs are projected to drop by approximately 35% resulting in fewer new teachers; and teacher attrition before retirement age due to dissatisfaction with aspects of teaching conditions including school leadership.

Recommendations for increasing teacher retention rates were reported as: improving leadership preparation programs to include understanding the organizational impact of teacher working conditions; increasing strategies that encourage effective selection and hiring practices; increasing effective ways to eliminate stressful and negative working conditions; improving methods for providing effective culturally responsive instructional leadership, and providing ongoing professional development programs for principals that focus on improving school working conditions to improve teacher commitment and reduce teacher turnover (Castro, Quinn, Fuller, & Barnes., 2018). Strong instructional and equitable leadership practices positively influence teachers' perception of school working conditions which can improve teacher commitment at the school level and decrease teacher turnover (Castro et al., 2018). Teacher turnover or departure from their schools is a significant factor behind the need for new hires and is closely tied to the organizational characteristics and working conditions of the school (Ingersoll & Perda, 2010).

Recruitment efforts will not solve staffing problems at schools if efforts aren't made to reduce teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2003). According to Ingersoll et al. (2010), employee turnover is a central issue in organizational theory and research, but there have been few efforts to apply organizational theory to understanding school staffing problems. A study by Hulpia, Devos, and VanKeer (2011) revealed that organizational commitment is related to the quality of supportive leadership, cooperation within the leadership team, participative decision making, communication of a clear school vision, and by setting the direction for teachers through professional development.

In a study by Hulpia et al. (2011), the support of the principal was significantly related to organizational commitment. Related empirical research also indicated that leadership has a direct effect on the organizational commitment of employees (Nguni et al., 2006; Park, 2005). Research analyzing the consequences of organizational commitment; particularly turnover, turnover intentions, and absenteeism, indicated negative correlations with organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990 Meyer et al., 2002).

Theoretical Framework

Organizational Commitment Theory has been characterized as a theory of organizational, management, and behavioral sciences (Kessler, 2013). Organizational Commitment Theory underpins the framework of this research which seeks to investigate the relationship between instructional leadership of principals and the organizational commitment of teachers. Organizational commitment theory is rooted in the behavioral or calculative approach to organizational commitment (Becker, 1960), and in the attitudinal approach to organizational commitment (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). According to Cohen (2007), organizational commitment theory developed over a period of three eras. The first era was labeled the early era and was based on a calculative, side-bets, or behavioral approach to organizational commitment. The second era was labeled as the middle era characterized as the psychological approach or the attitudinal approach. The third era was labeled the multidimensional approach.

Behavioral Approach to Organizational Commitment Theory

The side-bet approach was proposed by Howard Becker (1960). Becker defined commitment as a consistent line of activity over a period of time for reasons that were extraneous to the activity itself. Becker theorized that commitment to an organization was based on the employee placing side-bets or assessing investments and cost-benefits when considering leaving an organization. Becker argued that commitment was a result of perceived losses of specific investments accrued while an individual was employed with an organization, and if employment with the organization were lost, the investments would be as well. The perceived losses were labeled as side-bets such as pensions, seniority, time investment, or social relationships (Becker, 1960).

Kanter (1968) defined profits, associated with staying with an organization and perceived costs of leaving an organization, as cognitive-continuance commitment. Other labels such as compliance or calculative commitment were used to describe the behavioral approach to organizational commitment during this era, but the base for research was Becker's side-bet theory of organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Becker's side-bet theory identified organizational commitment as a major factor in the explanation of voluntary turnover and was supported in later research testing this theory (Alutto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso, 1973; Ritzer & Trice, 1969). However, further research indicated that the measures of commitment should evaluate the social-psychological factors in addition to side-bets associated with leaving the organization (Alutto, et al., 1973, Ritzer & Trice, 1969, Shoemaker, Snizek, & Bryant, 1977). Measures of the calculative or side-bet approach questioned respondents on the likelihood of leaving their organization in light of various levels of inducement in salary,

organizational and personal status, levels of responsibility, and opportunities for promotion (Kessler, 2013).

Attitudinal Approach to Organizational Commitment Theory

The middle era, characterized by the attitudinal or psychological approach to organizational commitment, shifted from the behavioral or side-bets approach to the attachment one has toward their organization (Cohen, 2007). Organizational commitment was theorized as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization (Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday et al., 1982).

Mowday et al. (1979) outlined commitment as three related factors: (1) a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; (3) a desire to maintain employment in the organization. O'Reily and Chatman (1986) argued that a belief in and acceptance of the organization's values and goals had a psychological basis or attitudinal basis for attachment. However, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a desire to maintain membership in the organization were outcome behaviors that were related to withdrawal and performance, and should be considered behavioral consequences rather than antecedents of commitment (O'Reily & Chatman, 1986).

Measures of the three dimensional characterization of organizational commitment by Mowday et al. (1979) were developed by Porter et al. (1974) in the form of the instrument called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ addresses attitudinal components and behavioral components of organizational commitment, which resulted in criticisms of the model and measurement of the model

(Meyer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The criticisms by Meyer and Allen and O'Reilly and Chatman led to a multi-dimensional approach to organizational commitment theory (Cohen, 2007; Kessler, 2013).

Multi-dimensional Approach to Organizational Commitment Theory

The third era of organizational commitment theory was characterized by multi-dimensional approaches (Cohen, 2007; Kessler, 2013). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) conceptualized their approach to organizational commitment as a three-dimensional construct that differentiated between the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment theory (Cohen, 2007; Kessler, 2013). The dimensions of the model by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) were labeled as the compliance stage, identification stage, and internalization stage. Compliance commitment occurs when attitudes and behaviors are presented to gain specific rewards. Identification commitment occurs when an individual establishes and maintains a satisfying relationship by accepting influence. During the state of internalization, organizational values and norms are accepted by the individual without obligation or coercion (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Criticisms of the model concluded that the internalization and identification dimensions of the model identified similar constructs and the compliance dimension did not reflect a psychological attachment to the organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The multidimensional model of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1984) became the dominant model to test the theory of organizational commitment (Cohen, 2007). Meyer and Allen (1984) initially proposed a two-dimensional model of organizational commitment. The two dimensions paralleled the distinctions between

Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and Mowday's et al. (1982) attitudinal approach to organizational commitment.

The first dimension was labeled as affective commitment and defined as having identification with, attachment to, and involvement in the work organization (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Affective commitment represents the employee's attitude toward a target and involvement with organizational goals and values (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1987, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Mowday et al., 1979). Research by Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) and Levinson (1965) indicated that employees perceive and attribute actions of the agents of the organization as organizational intentions.

The second dimension, continuance commitment, was defined as the extent that employees feel committed to the organization in light of the costs of leaving. The continuance commitment dimension was associated with an investment made in the organization or a lack of alternatives (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Reichers (1985) stated that continuance commitment was based on tenure with the organization, organizational benefits, retirement benefits, or employee relationships.

Meyer and Allen (1987) added a third dimension labeled normative commitment. Normative commitment is defined as an individual's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1987). Weiner (1982) discussed normative commitment as feelings of loyalty, moral obligation, or duty toward the organization. The three dimensional organizational commitment model theorized by Meyer and Allen (1987) became characterized as the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The three-component model of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) and Allen and Meyer (1990) was the model chosen to frame this study. The three-component model of organizational commitment was selected as the research model for this study as it was developed through the analysis of seminal research and has been empirically tested (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1987; Mowday et al., 1982; Weiner, 1982; Weiner & Vardi 1980). Research testing the scales of the three dimensional organizational commitment model by Meyer and Allen (1987, 1991) examined the affective, continuance, and normative dimensions and described each component as a distinguishable psychological construct (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Beck & Wilson, 2000; Hacket, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Jaros, 1997; Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997; McGee & Ford, 1997).

Differences in levels of organizational commitment have been related to personal characteristics, organizational leadership, organizational investments in the employee, socialization, and availability of alternatives (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, Meyer, et al., 2002; Solinger, VanOlfen & Roe, 2008; Stazyk, Pandey, & Wright, 2011). Employee retention, lower absenteeism rates, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job performance are reported as possible outcomes of organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Sollinger, et al., 2008).

Organizational commitment theory underpins the research variables in this study which are organizational commitment and instructional leadership. Previous research indicates that leadership has been linked to employees' organizational commitment (Devos, et al., 2013; Firestone & Roseblum, 1988; Graham et al., 2014; Hulpia et al, 2011; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Nguni et al., 2006; Ostroff, 1992; Park, 2005;

Somech & Bogler, 2002). This study seeks to add to current literature on organizational commitment and perceptions of leadership, by seeking to determine the relationship between principal instructional leadership and teachers' organizational commitment.

Models of Organizational Commitment

Conceptual Overview

Organizational commitment as a theory emerged from the work of Becker (1960), but was popularized in the seminal research by Porter et al., (1974). Organizational commitment has various definitions, but themes that focus on commitment as a behavior and attitude have reoccurred (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday et al., (1979).

Organizational commitment occurs when the employee goals are aligned with the goals of the organization; employees are willing to exert extra effort to achieve organizational goals; and when employees commit to maintaining their connection to the organization (Kessler, 2013; Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1987; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Organizational commitment is a predictor of turnover of employees, and other work outcomes such as absenteeism (Kessler, 2013, Meyer & Allen, 1987; Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Targets of organizational commitment have a specific focus such as to a supervisor or to organizational goals and values to which employee bonds are formed (Becker, 1992; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Reichers, 1985). Klein, Malloy and Brinsfield (2012) proposed that organizational commitment was a bond or psychological commitment to particular type of target with commitment generalizable to other workplace targets. Acceptance of organizational goals, values, and mission; willingness

to work on behalf of the organization, and motivation to remain with the organization were identified as factors that influenced organizational commitment (Porter et al., 1974).

Individuals, who view themselves as part of an organization and connected to the values and goals of the organization, experience higher morale, increased job satisfaction, greater productivity, and are less likely to leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Porter et al., 1974). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are distinct concepts, with job satisfaction defined as one's attitude toward a job, while organizational commitment is defined as a response to the organization as a whole (Porter et al., 1974; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Porter et al. suggested that organizational commitment and job satisfaction are related and reciprocal, but there is no implied causality between the two attitudes. Tett and Meyer viewed commitment to an organization as mediating the effects of job satisfaction on turnover intentions. In a meta-analysis of 178 independent samples from 155 studies, Tett and Meyer (1993) found job satisfaction and organizational commitment to contribute independently to turnover intentions of employees.

Unidimensional Models of Organizational Commitment

Seminal research defined organizational commitment as a distinguished and unidimensional construct (Becker, 1960; Buchanan, 1974; Kanter, 1968; Mowday et al., 1979; Steers, 1977; Wiener, 1982). Research by Becker (1960) conceptualized commitment through the side-bet theory. Becker defined commitment as a consistent time of activity of behavior over a period of time for reasons extraneous to the activity itself. Becker argued that commitment was a result of perceived losses of specific investments that the individual had accumulated while employed with the organization. If employment with the organization were lost, the investments would be as well (Becker,

1960). These perceived losses were labeled as side-bets such as pensions, seniority, time investment, social relationships that are contingent upon continued employment in the organization. Other terms such as compliance or calculative commitment were used to describe organizational commitment, but the base for research was Becker's side-bet theory (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Meyer and Allen (1984; 1991) labeled commitment based on perceived costs of leaving an organization as continuance commitment.

Kanter (1968) defined profits associated with staying with an organization and perceived costs of leaving an organization as cognitive-continuance commitment. Kanter (1968) defined commitment as the process through which individual interests are attached to carrying out socially organized patterns of behavior viewed as fulfilling those interests, while expressing the nature and needs of the individual. Kanter distinguished three types of commitment and labeled them continuance, cohesion, & control. In Kanter's model, continuance commitment involved the consideration of costs leaving the organization would be greater than the costs of remaining. Cohesion commitment involved affective ties that connected members to the organizational community, while control commitment was concerned with the commitment of individuals to uphold institutional norms and obey the authority of the group (Kanter, 1968).

Mowday et al. (1979) summarized earlier research with the aim of developing and validating a measure of employee commitment to work organizations. The instrument was named the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). To develop the OCQ, Mowday et al. (1979) identified trends in the way organizational commitment was defined with a focus on commitment-related behaviors or attitudes. Mowday et al. (1979)

conducted a review of research carried out over a nine-year period that included over 2,500 employees across divergent work organizations.

Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment by three related factors. These factors included a belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; a willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership with the organization.

Mowday et al. (1979) stated that as an attitude, organizational commitment differed from job satisfaction in that commitment emphasizes an attachment to the organization and the organization's goals and values. Job satisfaction emphasizes a specific task environment and the response to one's job or aspect of one's job (Mowday et al., 1979). Porter et al. (1974) conducted a longitudinal study on job satisfaction and turnover of technicians and found that day-to-day events in the workplace may affect levels of employee job satisfaction, but should not cause departure from attachment to the overall organization. Job satisfaction was reported to be less stable over time, reflecting immediate reactions to specific aspects of the work environment (Porter et al., 1974).

Wiener (1982) defined commitment as internal normative pressures and a moral obligation to align actions with organizational goals and organizational interests. Wiener explained commitment in organizations by adding aspects of individual behavior such as internalized normative pressures and personal moral standards to behavioral outcomes that explained organizational commitment. Wiener discussed how internalized normative pressures and moral standards cause a person to act in a way that meets the organizational goals instead of a consideration of consequences related to these outcomes, due to a personal belief that it is the right or moral thing to do. Wiener, along with Porter and

Steers (1973), posited that job satisfaction is also an attitude, but it is an attitude toward an object and is not an actual predictor of behavioral intentions. The normative view of organizational commitment held by Wiener (1982) was a conceptualization of commitment to organizations founded not only on calculative processes, but by normative pressures such as personal moral standards.

Organizational commitment behaviors and organizational commitment attitudes differ in organizational commitment research. Behaviors related to organizational commitment occur when individuals choose to forego alternative courses of action and choose to link themselves to the organization (Becker, 1960; Kanter, 1968). Commitment to the organization, in term of attitudes, occurs when the goals of the organization and the individual's goals become integrated or are congruent (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970). Attitudinal perspectives on organizational commitment are related to the identification of antecedent conditions that contributed to the development of commitment and the behaviors that are consequences of that commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday et al., 1979). Behavioral perspectives of organizational commitment are related to the identification of conditions, under which a behavior tends to be repeated as well as the effects of such behavior on a change in attitude (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Pfeffer & Lawler, 1980).

In a multidimensional model of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1984; 1987; 1991) incorporated both attitudinal and behavioral approaches as complementary relationships. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment is a mindset or psychological state that incorporates feelings, and beliefs concerning the employee's relationship with an organization. Mowday et al. (1979)

structured the mindset of organizational commitment to include values and goal congruence, whereas Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that organizational commitment reflects values and goals congruence, as well as a desire, need, or obligation to stay employed with an organization indicating both attitudinal and behavioral perspectives of organizational commitment.

Multidimensional Models of Organizational Commitment

Research from Becker (1960) and Mowday et al. (1979) distinguished two forms of commitment. Becker proposed a calculative form of commitment and Mowday et al. (1979) included an attitudinal form of commitment. The research of Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) focused attention to organizational commitment as a multidimensional construct and how the antecedents, correlates and consequences vary across the dimensions of commitment.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a multidimensional model based on their theory that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization with various avenues for attitudes to develop. The forms of commitment were labeled as compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance commitment occurs when attitudes and behaviors are adopted to gain specific rewards. Identification commitment occurs when an individual establishes and maintains a satisfying organizational relationship by accepting influence, and internalization occurs when attitudes and behaviors an individual is encouraged to adopt are congruent with personal values (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Internalization and identification commitment were combined into what O'Reilly and Chatman called normative commitment, but corresponded closely with the affective commitment component of the model by Meyer and Allen (1991). O'Reilly and

Chatman found compliance commitment to be positively instead of negatively with turnover. Meyer and Allen (1993) argued that compliance was not a form of organizational commitment in that organizational commitment reduces the likelihood of employee turnover.

Angle and Perry (1981) used the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday et al. (1979) to distinguish between values commitment and commitment to stay. While the OCQ is a unidimensional measure, Angle and Perry included survey items that assessed a willingness to remain with the organization, by assessing support for organizational goals or values commitment. Angle and Perry suggested that organizational commitment has two dimensions which were labeled as continuance commitment or a desire to remain and values commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) acknowledged similarities in the three-component model and Angle and Perry's (1981) two-dimensional model, however noted distinct differences in terms of mindsets of affective, continuance, and normative commitment that bind the individual to the organization. However, the mindsets are the same in the two dimensional model and three component model relating to behavioral consequences such as remaining with the organization. The two-dimensional model by Angle and Perry is distinct in terms of behavioral consequences, such as the decision to stay or leave the organization, or make extra effort toward attainment of organizational goals.

Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sineich (1993) distinguished dimensions of organizational commitment with the labels of affective, continuance, and moral commitment. Moral commitment was defined as the internalization of goals and values which was similar to Meyer and Allen's (1991) definition of affective commitment.

The three component model of organizational commitment developed by Meyer and Allen (1984; 1987; 1991) was based on the observation of the similarities and differences in unidimensional models of organizational commitment such as those by Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968). The common theme in the unidimensional models was the belief that commitment binds an individual to an organization, and as a result reduces turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991). Allen and Meyer (1990) incorporated the various unidimensional mindsets into the three component multidimensional model, arguing that commitment could be characterized by one or more mindsets which were labeled by Allen and Meyer as affective, continuance and normative commitment.

According to Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), the mind-sets of commitment can take various forms that include the desire to remain, perceived costs of leaving, or obligation to stay with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1984; 1991) along with Meyer et al., (1993) defined organizational commitment as a course of action to continue membership in the organization. The mindset that characterizes affective commitment is the desire to pursue a course of action directed toward a target (Kanter, 1968; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al, 1982; O'Reilly & Chapman, 1986). The mindset that characterizes continuance commitment is the perception that it would be costly to stop a course of action (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1987; 1991; 1997). The mindset that characterizes normative commitment is the obligation to pursue a course of action of relevance to a target (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982).

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) proposed mindsets of desire to remain or affective commitment develops when an individual recognizes the value of, or identifies with a

target or chooses to pursue a course of action. The mindset of continuance commitment develops when an individual recognizes that investments made may be lost, or the perception that there are no other alternatives, other than to pursue action relevant to a particular target. A mindset of obligation or normative commitment develops as a result of the internalization of social norms or the receipt of organizational benefits that require reciprocity according to Meyer and Herscovitch.

Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed that affective and continuance commitment were distinct constructs with affective commitment denoting an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and continuance commitment related to perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualized a third distinguishable component of commitment labeled normative commitment or a perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) hypothesized links between the three components of commitment and other variables to be antecedents, correlates and consequences. Meyer and Allen (1991; 1997) rationalized the development of a three-component model of organizational commitment through the belief that all three forms of commitment relate negatively to employee turnover, and relate differently to work-related behaviors such as attendance, in-role performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. The three-component model of organizational commitment was developed by Meyer and Allen (1984, 1987, 1991; 1997) along with Allen and Meyer (1990). Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer et al., (1993) revised the affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales to specifically evaluate the three-component model of organizational commitment.

Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Meyer (2009) defined organizational commitment as an internal force that binds an individual to a target either social or non-social, and to a course of action of relevance to that target. The three-component model proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990) integrated previous conceptualizations of organizational commitment (Becker, 1960; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Kanter, 1968; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1987; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter et al., 1974;).

The affective component of the model by Allen and Meyer (1990) refers to the employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization. The continuance commitment component of the model by Allen and Meyer (1990) refers to commitment based on costs an employee incurs if leaving the organization. The normative commitment component relates to the employee's feelings of obligation to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment occurs when individual wants to or desires to remain with an organization; normative commitment occurs when an individual feels as though they ought to or feels an obligation to remain with an organization; and continuance commitment is described as an individual feeling as though they have to remain or counts the costs related to leaving an organization (Meyer, 2009). Each mindset is related to a set of underlying processes, side-bets, or lack of alternatives (Meyer, 2009). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) questioned whether existing instruments could be categorized as attitudinal or calculative.

Allen and Meyer (1990) conducted two studies to test aspects of a three-component model which integrated previous conceptualizations of organizational

commitment (Becker, 1960; Kanter, 1968; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Mowday, et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1976; Porter et al., 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1987). The purpose of the first study was to determine if the three component model of commitment reflected distinct psychological states by correlating with measures of work experience predicted to be antecedents of affective, normative, and continuance component individually.

The second study examined the generalizability of the findings in study one, and tested the hypothesis that the three components of commitment would be related to variables predicted to be the antecedents. Normative commitment had not been included in seminal research, but was included to guide measurement and component identification, and to determine the patterns of relativity with predicted antecedents of affective and continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The first study conducted by Allen and Meyer (1990) surveyed 500 full-time employees in three organizations with a 52% return rate. Participation in the study was voluntary. There were 51 items were for purposes of scale construction. Some items were modified for use from other measures of organizational commitment and others were written by the authors. Included with the 51 items was a 15 item OCQ developed by Mowday et al., 1979).

The 15 items from the OCQ were presented first with the remainder of the items randomly presented. Responses on all 66 items were made on a 7-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Item selection for scale development was based on a series of decision rules concerning item endorsement proportions, item total correlations with both keyed and non-keyed scales, direction of keying, and content redundancy. Items were eliminated if the endorsement proportion was greater than 0.75; items

correlated less with keyed scale than with one or both of the other scales; the content of the scale was redundant with respect to other items on the scale. Finally, the number of items selected for each scale was set equal to that for the scales with the minimum number of items scoring the exclusive criterion. Following the rules, eight items were selected in each of the affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment scales. The reliability for each scale was 0.87 for affective commitment, 0.75 for continuance commitment, and 0.79 for normative commitment. The factor analysis conducted on the 24 items comprising the scales accounted for 58.8; 25.8; and 15.4 percent of the total variance respectively.

The three factors were extracted and rotated to a varimax criterion. The correlation between the three-component scales and the OCQ found that the continuance commitment scale was relatively independent of both the affective commitment scale and the normative commitment scale; the OCQ correlated significantly with the affective commitment scale, but not with the continuance scale (0.83); the OCQ and the normative commitment scale correlated the same as affective commitment scale (0.51) and the normative commitment scale (0.51). The results provide evidence of the convergent validity or how they are related, and for the discriminant validity or how they are not related.

The results suggested that the psychological states identified in the literature, defined as committing to the organization, can be reliably measured (Allen & Meyer, 1990). While continuance commitment score was expected to be independent from the affective and normative commitment scores, the significance relating the affective and normative commitment scores was not expected. This finding suggests that although the

two are not identical in feelings of attachment or desire, normative commitment may be related (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Study two by Allen and Meyer (1990) examined the generalizability of the findings in study one. Allen and Meyer also tested the hypothesis that the three component commitment model would be related to variables predicted to be antecedents. The same procedures used in study one were also used in study two, but with a 53.2% participation rate. The affective, continuance, and normative scales developed in study one were used in study two. The antecedents for affective commitment included 11 items related to work experiences labeled job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, goal difficulty, supportive and receptive management, peer cohesion, organizational dependability, employee equity, personal importance, feedback. Work experiences were grouped into those that satisfy employees' needs to feel comfortable in the relationship with the organization and the need to feel competent in the work role.

Several questions were used to assess the continuance commitment component. Continuance commitment was assessed with questions about transferability of skills, formal education, or relocation possibility; time and energy learning organizational norms, or self-investment; and the extent to which personal pension funds would be reduced if the individual left the organization. The perceived availability of alternatives was assessed by asking employees to indicate on a seven-point response scale how easy they felt it would be to obtain alternative employment. Scores were expected to correlate negatively on the scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The proposed antecedents of normative commitment were tested by using the items from the normative commitment scale and one variable from Buchanan's (1974)

two-item organizational commitment scale. Scores on Buchanan's scale which reflected the extent to which employees felt the organization expects their loyalty was expected to correlate positively with normative commitment scale scores. The relationship between the three commitment measures and those variables hypothesized to be the antecedents were examined using canonical correlation.

As in study one, reliabilities established were high. ACS and CCS was negligible ($r=0.001$); ACS and NCS was significant ($r=0.48$, $p<0.001$). Although the relationship between the CCS and NCS was also significant ($r=0.16$, $p<0.01$) the magnitude of the correlation suggests the two share little variance. In general, the patterns of correlation between the antecedent and commitment measures provide support for the hypotheses. Both affective and normative commitment correlated strongly with the first canonical variable (0.98 AC; 0.53 NC). With the antecedent set the largest correlations are associated with the variables hypothesized to be antecedents of affective commitment with a range of 0.46 - 0.87. The second canonical variate was clearly defined with the continuance commitment set ($r=0.99$) and within the antecedent set hypothesized to be antecedents of continuance commitment. The third canonical variable was defined by normative commitment and with the antecedent set goal clarity, role clarity, relocation, and community. The organizational commitment normative scale with Buchanan's (1974) questions did not correlate significantly with the third canonical variate. Only normative commitment correlated with the first and third variables which suggested that although the desire to remain with an organization or affective commitment is not synonymous with the feeling of obligation to do so, the feeling can co-concur. As moral

obligation is internalized to form personal norms, they influence individual's feelings about what they want to do or whether actions are morally right (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The purpose of the research by Allen and Meyer (1990) was to provide evidence that AC, CC, & NC of attitudinal commitment components are conceptually and empirically separate. It was found that each component corresponds closely to one of three major conceptualizations of commitment discussed in the literature and represents a distinct link between employees and organizations that develop as a result of various workplace experiences. The findings from study one revealed the three components can be measured reliably and that although there was some overlap between AC and NC, both were relatively independent of CC. Study two provided evidence that there is a pattern of relationships between the commitment measures, particularly AC and CC and the antecedent variables were for the most part consistent with predictors.

The hypothesis of study two was that the components of commitment develop as a function of different work experiences. The results were consistent with the hypothesis. The focus of the research was post-entry employee socialization experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Prior to the development of the three-component model measure by Meyer and Allen (1987), only the OCQ received attention concerning the development and psychometric evaluation of commitment measures. All three components were seen as a negative indicator of turnover.

From the results of the study, Allen and Meyer (1990) concluded that one form of commitment may be as useful as another. Allen and Meyer posited that future research that examined antecedents in relation to organizational commitment would provide information on how to better manage experiences of the employees who also help

organization obtain better outcomes. Meyer and Allen (1991) characterized the three-component model of organizational commitment and subsequent scales based on the two studies by Allen and Meyer (1990). Meyer et al., (1993) eventually revised the original scales from a 24-item scale to an 18-item scale to reduce discrepancy between affective and normative scales. The revised 18-item scale by Meyer et al. (1993) was used in this study.

Meyer et al. (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to assess the relationships among affective, continuance, and normative commitment to an organization and relationships between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and variables identified as antecedents, correlates and consequences outlined in Allen and Meyer's (1990) and Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment. An analysis of 155 independent samples involving 50,146 employees was included in the meta-analysis. Of the samples included, 99 were from published articles, 22 were from dissertations, and 34 were from unpublished manuscripts or conference papers. Meyer et al. (2002) found that the three forms of commitment are related, but distinguishable from one another as well as from job satisfaction, job involvement and occupational commitment.

Results from the study by Meyer et al. (2002) indicated affective and continuance commitment correlated with the hypothesized antecedents and variable categories of demographics, individual differences, work experiences, and alternatives or investments. Age and tenure correlated positively with affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Correlations were strong between work experience variables and affective commitment. Work experiences included organizational support, transformational

leadership, role ambiguity, role conflict, and procedural justice (Meyer et al., 2002). Availability of alternatives correlated more strongly with continuance commitment than with affective commitment or normative commitment. Transferability of skills and education were also correlated strongly with continuance commitment. Correlations involving side-bets or investments correlated more strongly with affective and normative than with continuance commitment. Correlations between affective and overall job satisfaction, job involvement and occupation commitment were strong, with the strongest correlation between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction (Meyer et al., 2002).

As expected the correlation between affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment and the consequence variable, turnover, were all negative with affective commitment having correlated most strongly ($p = -0.17$), followed by normative commitment ($p = -0.16$), and continuance ($p = -0.10$). Affective commitment correlated negatively with absenteeism with normative and continuance commitment correlating positively. Job performance correlated positively with affective and normative commitment and negatively with continuance commitment. Organizational citizenship behaviors correlated positively with affective and normative commitment and with a near zero correlation with continuance commitment. Stress and work-family conflicts correlated negatively with affective commitment and positively with continuance commitment. Too few studies computed correlations between normative commitment and stress, but normative commitment and work-family conflict correlations were reported at near zero (Meyer et al., 2002). Of the work experience variables, perceived organizational support correlated strongly with affective commitment as did

distributive, procedural, and interactive justice and transformational leadership (Meyer et al., 2002).

Organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct, with each component exerting an indirect influence on a specific behavior such as turnover (Meyer et al., 2002). Employees with high continuance commitment are expected to remain with the organization to avoid costs associated with leaving regardless of levels of affective or normative commitment. Low levels of continuance commitment should not lead to turnover unless there are low levels of affective and normative commitment. Meyer et al. (2002) found affective and normative commitment to be highly correlated but the correlation was not related to unity. Although affective and normative commitment show similar patterns of correlation with antecedents, correlates and consequence variables, the strength or magnitude of the correlates differ (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In a meta-analysis, Meyer et al., (2002) found affective and normative commitment to be highly correlated.

There has been criticism of the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment by Meyer and Allen (1987, 1991). Jaros (2007) criticized the multidimensional model of organizational commitment suggesting there was no clear definition which created confusion and misinterpretation. Jaros (1997) stated that the Meyer and Allen multidimensional model (1991) had been used in research focusing on full-time employees so the results could not be generalizable other populations of employees. Stayzk et al. (2011) criticized Meyer and Allen's continuance commitment component by stating that public institutions have benefits that may be determined by

external political entities and economic cycles instead of internal economic cycles, creating difficulty in measuring continuance commitment.

Solinger et al., (2008) criticized Meyer and Allen's three component model of organizational commitment by comparing affective commitment to an attitude toward an organization and by comparing normative and continuance commitment to behavioral outcomes or leaving the organization. Solinger et al., (2008) suggested conceptualizing organizational commitment as an attitude defined as belongingness, identification, and internalization. Previous research by Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that the reason for distinguishing among the three forms of commitment in the model was to define the distinct implications of attitudes for different behaviors.

Research using organizational commitment theory has provided evidence that a strongly committed workforce benefits the organization (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). Meta-analytic reviews of commitment research have shown that when employees are committed to their organization they are less likely to leave (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993). Employees who are committed to their organizations are more likely to perform effectively, attend regularly, and display organizational citizenship behaviors, and experience greater well-being (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaram, 2005, Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer & Maltin, 2010). Commitment reflecting an affective attachment to a target has greater benefit for the target than commitments focused on social or economic costs (Cooper-Hakim et al., 2005; Meyer & Maltin, 2010, Meyer et al., 2002).

Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Personal characteristics, structural characteristics and work experiences were defined as antecedents of affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). Work experiences had the strongest relationship to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Work experiences such as relationships with supervisors, supervisor support, employee relations, and role in decision making mediated the effect on structural characteristics and were positively related to organizational commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Rhodes & Steers, 1981). Congruence between personal goals and goals of the organization has been shown to relate to affective organizational commitment (Reichers, 1985; 1986).

Personal demographic variables of age, tenure, and gender have been linked to commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Angle & Perry, 1983; Buchanan, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mottaz, 1988; Steers, 1977). Results of meta-analyses have shown that employee's gender and affective commitment are not significantly related (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Age and affective commitment were significantly, but weakly related (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, Allen & Meyer, 1993). Cohen (1996) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported a positive relationship between organizational commitment and tenure. Other demographic variables such as amount of time spent with supervisor, type of organization, and size of organization could also be antecedents of organizational commitment (Ang, Dyne, & Begley, 2003; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Neither educational level nor marital status has been reported to be related to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Personal competence was reported

as antecedent variable for affective organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Fairness in carrying out organizational policies and decisions were also considered to relate to organizational commitment (Gellatly, 1995, Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). Meyer et al. (1993) found early socialization in the organization and supervisor support to be related to affective and normative commitment as antecedent variables. Employment alternatives and transferability of skills were reported as antecedents related to continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, Meyer & Allen 1991; 1997).

Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Turnover or either tenure in the organization has been reported to have a negative correlation with organizational commitment indicating turnover is an outcome of employee commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983; Colarelli, Dean, & Konstans, 1987; Koch & Steers, 1978; Meyer & Allen, 1987; 1997; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, et al., 1976; Porter et al., 1974; Somers, 1995; 2009; Steers, 1977; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Porter et al., (1974) found that employees who had low levels of organizational commitment were more likely to leave their organization.

Researchers have examined the link between commitment and on the job behaviors at the individual and group level performance, and found positive relationships between commitment to the organization and on the job behaviors (Blau, 1986; Colarelli et al., 1987; DeCottis & Summers, 1987; Farrell & Peterson, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979; Steers, 1977; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Attendance has been reported to be positively related to affective commitment (Gellatly, 1995; Somers, 1995; 2009; Steers, 1977) with absenteeism negatively related to continuance commitment (Gellatly, 1995). Angle &

Perry (1981) did not find a positive relationship between on the job behaviors such as attendance, and commitment to the organization.

Allen and Meyer (1993) found that committed employees had better job performance due to high personal expectations of job performance. However, Meyer and Allen (1997) stated that job performance and organizational commitment may not be related. The value placed on performance appraisal by the supervisor and the amount of employee control over job performance appraisal make the relationship between job performance and organizational commitment difficult to assess. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that turnover was the only consequence of organizational commitment that could be generalized across various work organizations.

Factors Related to Teacher Turnover

Organizational Conditions and Teacher Turnover

Researchers have cited organizational turnover as a consequence of organizational commitment (Kanter, 1968; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991; 1997; Meyer et al., 1993; Meyer, et al., 2002 Mowday et al., 1982; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Somers, 1995, 2009). Teacher turnover at the school level affects school level cohesion and performance which has an impact on the organization (Ingersol, 1993). Attachment or commitment of employees to an organization, employee motivation, and turnover was found to be related to compensation levels, administrative support, degree of conflict within organizations and input into organizational decisions (Mueller & Price, 1990; Price, 1989; Steers & Mowday, 1981). Organizational management and working conditions in schools such as administrator support, instructional leadership and support,

time for collaboration and planning, school culture, organizational collegial relationship opportunities, input in decision making, affect teacher decisions to stay at a school (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersol, 2001; Loeb et al., 2005; Simon & Johnson, 2015).

Research by Carver-Thomas and Darling-Hammond (2017) found no independent significant effects of workplace conditions on school-level turnover of teachers other than supportive leadership, when holding all other variables constant. The remaining variables in the study were student behavior, parent support, school resources, paperwork, collegial support or influence over school conditions. The strong impact of administrative support on turnover in the model subsumed the other variables due to the impact of school leadership on most school-level factors (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017).

Research has documented greater teacher turnover at schools that serve low-performing students from low socio-economic backgrounds (Boyd et al., 2005; Hanushek et al., 2004a; 2004b; Scafidi et al., 2007). Researchers traditionally use demographic characteristics of students and teachers as predictors of teacher turnover (Boyd et al., 2005; Clotfelter et al., 2005; Scafidi et al., 2007). The conclusion drawn has been that when teachers serve disadvantaged, low-achieving students they are more likely to leave the profession or transfer to a school with higher achieving, more advantaged students (Allensworth, Ponisciak, & Mazzeo, 2009; Boyd et al., 2005; Clotfelter et al., 2005; Hanushek et al, 2004a; 2004b; Johnson, 2006; Johnson et al, 2012; Scafidi et al., 2007). Loeb et al. (2005) used data from the California Department of Education database to conduct research to determine which schools had greater turnover. Racial composition and social-economic status of schools predicted turnover in the California schools as well

as other school-level conditions such as large class sizes, lack of administrative support, and lack of resources.

Research conducted by Boyd et al., (2011) documented first-year teacher reports of working conditions in New York schools, to predict teacher turnover behavior of other teachers in the same schools. Findings were triangulated with follow-up surveys of teachers' reports of why they left a particular school. The analysis of both reports pointed to the importance of working conditions and administrative support when considering teacher retention. Boyd et al. (2011) reported a standard deviation increase in a teacher's assessment of support of the school's principal decreased the likelihood of a teacher transferring to another school by 44 percent relative to staying in the same school.

Grissom (2011) hypothesized that organizational working conditions in schools helped explain both teacher satisfaction and turnover. Performing quantitative analysis on data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (2003-04) and Teacher Follow-Up Survey (2004-05), Grissom focused on how effective principals retain teachers. Grissom found that principal effectiveness and organizational working conditions are associated with greater teacher satisfaction and less teacher turnover; and that the positive effects of principal effectiveness on teachers are greater in schools with large numbers of disadvantaged students. Grissom divided schools into categories based on staffing difficulty. Disadvantaged schools were labeled as hard to staff and were more likely large and urban, while rural and suburban schools were labeled as not hard to staff. Hard to staff schools were more likely to have first year teachers or teachers who were more likely to leave after one year, larger class sizes, and less staff cooperation. Teachers in

hard to staff schools also rated principals lower on both management and instructional leadership measures and reported greater dissatisfaction.

Low teacher retention rates in schools with disadvantaged students can often be related to organizational conditions that do not offer supports teachers need to be successful with students regardless of student demographics or socio-economic status (Allensworth et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011, Ladd, 2011). A quantitative study by Ladd (2011) using data from North Carolina schools examined teacher perceptions of organizational workplace conditions independent of school characteristics such as demographic mix of students. Ladd (2011) reported that organizational workplace conditions were predictive of a teacher's intent to leave or stay at a school, with principal leadership the most reported predictor.

In both hard to staff and not hard to staff schools, principal effectiveness was an important predictor of teacher satisfaction and intent to stay at the school (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). As a result, Grissom (2011) suggested that improvements in educational policy focused on placing effective principals in the most challenging schools would lower high teacher turnover rates in these schools. Grissom reported that research in public administration cites organizational management as an important factor in worker job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, and employee retention. When teachers perceive strong administrative support, higher rates of teacher satisfaction are present as well as lower teacher turnover, especially in high-needs schools (Grissom, 2011; Podolsky, Kini, Bishop, & Darling-Hammond, 2016).

Principal Leadership and Teacher Turnover

Organizational commitment is a psychological bond to an organization where an individual carries out a job role (Dou, Devos, & Valcke, 2017). Working conditions that shape the context in which teaching and learning occur, such as school culture, principal leadership, and relationships with colleagues, have been reported to matter most to teachers (Boyd et al., 2011; Byrk et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2012; Ladd, 2011). The principal is expected to maintain an interactive environment that is conducive to teaching and learning, but without the continuous support of teachers, principal leadership alone will not be enough to sustain school improvement (Johnson et al, 2012; Simon & Johnson, 2015).

Principals support teaching and learning by creating structures that provide for teacher to teacher mentoring, common planning times, strategic assignment of teachers to appropriate subjects and grade levels, access to curriculum and instructional resources, and having a well-defined discipline plan (Borman & Johnson, 2008; Donaldson & Johnson, 2010). Teachers are more likely to be stay at a school where school-wide discipline policies and practices are consistently supported by the school's principal (Allensworth et al., 2009; Johnson, Berg, & Donaldson, 2005; Ladd, 2011; Marinell & Coca 2013).

Persistent turnover of teachers in a school often contributes to a weak organizational culture in the school, and creates difficulty in sustaining effective instructional programs at the school level (Johnson et al, 2012). Johnson et al. used data from the MassTells survey, distributed by the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, to determine teaching and learning conditions in 291 urban,

suburban, and rural schools in Massachusetts. The MassTells survey included demographic information, teachers' self-reports of job satisfaction and career intentions. Teachers in the study reported that school culture, principal leadership, and relationships with colleagues were most likely to influence career intentions. Ladd (2011) found when comparing schools in North Carolina with similar demographics and past test performance, those schools greater principal support and better work environments, as reported by teachers, showed greater student achievement.

Johnson et al. (2012) reported that teachers were more likely to stay in schools with supportive principals, collaborative environments, and in schools with strong academic cultures consistently supported by teachers and principals. Ingersoll (2001) found school organizational factors such as administrative support, teacher input in decision-making, and aspects of school culture were associated with teacher turnover rates even when considering location and level of the school, teacher demographics, and student demographics. While a poor fit between teacher and school or teacher and profession may lead to a beneficial teacher departure from a school, high turnover rates are detrimental to school improvement and can create instability in the schools' educational programs (Ladd, 2011).

Johnson and Birkeland (2003) conducted a study where they interviewed 50 new teachers over four years of teaching and reported that regular feedback on their teaching from administrators, mentoring from experienced teachers, a professional environment where ideas were shared, and high expectations for improving instruction were regularly communicated influenced their success and intent to stay at their school. Researchers have provided a foundation for using an organizational perspective when viewing

teachers' reasons for leaving a school by providing evidence that organizational conditions such as principal leadership are strong predictors of turnover (Allensworth et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Johnson et al., 2012; Loeb et al., 2005; Marinell & Coca, 2013; Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990).

Impact of School Leadership on Teachers

School level factors that impact the environment in which teacher work have been reported as student characteristics, school characteristics, quality of school leadership, teacher input in decision making, principal instructional leadership along with efforts to improve teaching and learning, and opportunities for professional development (Allensworth et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011; Grissom, 2011; Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Ingersoll, 2001; Johnson et al., 2012; Ladd, 2011; Loeb et al., 2005). As organizational managers, principals are responsible for school facilities, budgets, schedules and both in school and outside of school (Byrk et al., 2010). Effective principal management is a predictor of teacher retention while ineffective principal management is detrimental to the instructional environment and use of instructional time (Byrk et al., 2010; Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003).

Rosenholtz and Simpson's (1990) study of teacher commitment examined organizational conditions of schools and administrative support for both new and veteran teachers. In the study, new teachers cited administrative support in behavior management, interruptions on instructional time, lack of materials, and excessive paperwork as factors that affect their satisfaction with their jobs. In the same study by Rosenholtz and Simpson found that organizational commitment of teachers was tied to six factors, as reported by teachers. Experienced teachers reported self-efficacy,

psychological rewards, classroom autonomy, and professional learning opportunities as factors contributing to organizational commitment. New teachers reported job management affected their organizational commitment. Administrative support was the greatest factor contributing to teacher organizational commitment for all teachers in the study. Mid-career teachers had a lower commitment than did new or late-career teachers. Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) called for principals to protect or buffer teachers from outside influences that most affected teaching and learning.

Byrd et al., (2010) posited that teachers appreciate principals who recognize their part in student academic success by influencing curriculum and instruction, coordinating people and programs, and utilizing school and district resources appropriately. Principals as instructional leaders, influence teaching and learning by conducting fair and frequent evaluations of teachers, implement suggestions for improvement, are committed to helping teachers continuously improve, and enable collaboration among colleagues (Borman & Dowling; 2008; Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003).

Principals who provide teachers with a manageable teaching load and appropriate grade level assignments improve self-efficacy among teachers (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Donaldson & Johnson, 2010, Johnson et al., 2005; Rosenholtz & Simpson, 1990). Instructional leadership practices of principals include teachers in organizational decision-making, allow teachers to experience autonomy with instruction and classroom decisions, while encouraging an organizational climate of high motivation and mutual support (Allensworth et al., 2009; Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2005).

When principal support, shared vision and common goals are in place, teachers are found to be collaborative, committed to their school, and take more responsibility for

school improvement (Allensworth et al., 2009; Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kardos & Johnson, 2007). When teachers do not experience an environment of support and collegiality, there can be an uncooperative climate with faculty often resisting change (Allensworth et al., 2009). Instructional leaders support a strong collaborative culture by being responsive to the ideas of teachers (Simon & Johnson, 2015). As an instructional leader, principals encourage and arrange for collaboration among inexperienced and experienced teachers in order to increase cohesion and interdependence among teachers with the ultimate goal of improving teaching and learning (Johnson, Kardos, Kauffman, Lile, & Donaldson, 2004).

Grissom and Loeb (2011) collected data from principals, assistant principals, teachers, and parents to determine which principal practices had a high correlation with positive school outcomes. Five skill categories including instructional management, internal relations, organizational management, and external relations were included in the analysis of survey data. Grissom and Loeb found that while organizational management was the strongest predictor of student achievement growth, instructional management reinforced rather than competed with organizational management. Principal leadership that necessitates instructional and organizational management practices promotes school improvement through the support of a climate conducive to teaching and learning (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 70 empirical studies and found a small correlation between principal leadership and student achievement. Hallinger (2005) examined a body of qualitative research and found principal leadership to be a link to school effectiveness. Marks and Printy (2003) defined

instructional leadership as the work principals do to support teaching and learning. Robinson et al., (2008) linked instructional leadership to positive school outcomes. High quality principal leadership has been linked to teacher job satisfaction, teacher commitment, and student achievement (Boyd et al., 2011; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; Grissom, 2011; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Waters et al., 2003).

Principals do influence student outcomes indirectly by hiring and retaining teachers that are effective (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Witzers et al., 2003). Significant improvement in student achievement is most likely to occur in schools where there is strong principal leadership is demonstrated by providing extensive opportunities for collaboration and common planning time among teachers, specific instructional leadership, and a focus around a shared vision for student achievement (Grissom, Loeb, & Master, 2013; Ingersoll, 2001; Leithwood et al., 2004). A limited availability on the complexity of principals' work has been an obstacle in identifying important principal instructional and management behaviors, suggesting future research should be conducted on how principals affect and mediate school outcomes (Grissom, 2011).

Instructional Leadership

History of Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership originated out of the effective schools' movement (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Purkey & Smith, 1983) Effective school's researchers identified existing schools that demonstrated success in educating all students regardless of student background (Lezotte, 2001). Common characteristics that set these schools apart, such as philosophies, policies and practices, were identified and became known as the Correlates

of Effective Schools (Edmonds, 1982, Lezotte, 2001). Edmonds (1982) proposed that schools identified as effective, had substantial attention by the principal as to the quality of instruction; a broadly understood instructional focus; a safe and orderly environment conducive to teaching and learning; teacher behaviors that conveyed the expectation that all students could achieve at least minimum mastery of learning objectives; measures of student achievement used as the basis for instructional program mastery.

The Correlates of Effective Schools were later outlined as instructional leadership, and was characterized by a clear and focused mission, climate of high expectations, frequent monitoring of student progress, safe and orderly environment, positive home-school relations, opportunity to learn, and student time on task (Lezotte, 2001). Organizational management theories have included other concepts to the effective school correlates such as the importance of organizational culture and continuous improvement (Lezotte, 2001).

Instructional Leadership Compared to Other Leadership Models

Mitchell and Castle (2005) posited that instructional leadership defines the way principals carry out instructional tasks which ultimately separates school leaders from other leaders. Mitchell and Castle reported that principal priorities related to teaching and learning become the priorities of faculty and staff. A qualitative study by Mitchell & Castle (2005) was conducted through interviews of six female and six male principals known by district administrators as capacity-building instructional leaders. Mitchell and Castle posited that educational context should include psychological interactions between principals and educators and how these interactions influence behavior and relationships in the school context. Instructional leadership is a focus on the alignment of principals

and teachers' instructional efforts while creating conditions that connect leadership and learning (Mitchell & Castle, 2005). Newmann, King, and Rigdon (1997) found high organizational capacity for school improvement fell along the dimensions of knowledge and skill of teachers, school autonomy to act, shared commitment to the school and profession, and collaboration toward student learning.

Instructional leadership and transformational leadership models focus on the practices in which school leaders improve school conditions for teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996, Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Southworth, 2002). Instructional leadership emerged as a model for principals to follow as the emphasis on performance standards and accountability became inherent to school improvement (Hallinger, 2003; Murphy, 2002). Both instructional and transformational leadership in schools are effective leadership models for building instructional capacity, but conceptual differences are reflected in the target of change as first order or second order and the extent that principals emphasize an empowerment strategy for academic change (Hallinger, 2003; 2007) A shared instructional leadership model was conceptualized by researchers as an attempt to integrate both transformational and instructional leadership models (Lambert, 2002; Marks & Printy; 2003; Southworth, 2002).

Transformational leadership is also influential in improving instructional quality and conditions that support teaching and learning along with requiring an interdependence between administrators and teachers (Printy, Marks, & Bowers, 2009). Transformational leadership is essential to teacher commitment; however, teacher perceptions of instructional leadership are also instrumental to a growth in commitment (Marks & Printy, 2003). Hallinger and Heck (1996) named vision and goals as the most

significant path through which leadership affects learning. Vision and goals have been identified as second only to professional learning, as a path to which leadership affects learning (Robinson et al., 2008).

Vision is the direction the school seeks to move toward school improvement and goals are the specific targets along the way (Hallinger, 2010). Vision and goals inspire people to move toward a collective goal as highlighted in transformational leadership and instructional leadership models (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Leithwood, 1994). Effective schools research identified a clear academic vision as inherent to effective schools (Edmonds, 1979; Purkey & Smith, 1983). Research in instructional leadership literature maintains that the construct of vision, mission, & goals must contain an academic focus (Hallinger, & Heck, 1996; Murphy, 1988; Robinson et al., 2008). Robinson et al. (2008) estimated the effects of leadership on school improvement and found instructional leadership increases the impact of school leadership on learning. While the models of instructional and transformational leadership overlap in selected dimensions, successful school leadership has an educational focus that is lacking in the transformational leadership model (Hallinger, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008).

The view of instructional leadership as directive or authoritative has shifted to a leadership role that mediates school processes, enhances professional growth, supports teaching and learning through collaboration, articulates school goals to all stakeholders, and shares the responsibility of instruction with teachers (Hallinger, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2013; Southworth, 2002). Shared instructional leadership and leadership for learning describe instructional leadership practices (Hallinger, 2011; Marks & Printy, 2003).

Robinson et al., (2008) conducted a meta-analysis and reported that the impact of instructional leadership on student achievement is much greater than transformational. Research has also shown indirect effects of instructional leadership through pathways such as leadership effects on instruction and consequently student outcomes (Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2013). According to Kruger, Witziers, and Slegers (2007), instructional leadership by the principal is a foundational school process. School processes can be categorized into instructional guidance, professional capacity of staff, learning climate of the school, and family and community involvement (Byrk et al., 2010).

Instructional Leadership Practices in Schools

Instructional leadership is conceptual, but also a way of practice which is characterized by social relationships within the school context (Salo et al., 2015). Salo et al. gathered qualitative data from 100 principals through a narrative approach describing in which the school leaders described how they interacted with teachers on instructional matters. The researchers identified several successful elements of instructional leadership practice such as clear goals, reciprocity and participation in instructional concerns, positive feedback, affirmation and acknowledgement through positive communication, and open dialogue that encourages sharing of experiences and teachers' efficacy. Salo et al. posited that while principals do not directly engage in classroom instruction, they do set the conditions for effective teaching and learning.

Instructional leadership research has primarily focused on elementary schools (Bossert, et al., 1982; Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990; Murphy, 1988). Secondary and elementary schools may differ in how instructional leadership is enacted due to

departmentalization subject area specialization, and developmental stages of students (Neumerski, 2012). Sebastian and Allensworth (2013) conducted a study to examine the ways leadership influences learning in secondary schools. Data was collected from 3,529 teachers in 99 high schools and was used to measure principal leadership, classroom instruction, and student achievement. The researchers analyzed the data and examined the pathways from leadership to instruction and learning within a school and across schools. Sebastian and Allensworth found principals direct involvement with instruction had little benefit on the teaching and learning program, but providing sustained quality professional development and ensuring sound instructional programming across departments were influential on the teaching and learning program. In secondary schools, principals more often use indirect instructional leadership practice, leaving direct instructional leadership to department head leaders (Bendikson, Robinson, & Hattie, 2012).

Female principals were often rated higher by teachers on instructional leadership practices than are male principals (Hallinger, Dongyu, & Wang, 2016). A meta-analysis was conducted by Hallinger et al. (2016) to test for significant differences in perceptions on instructional leadership practices between male and female principals. The database consisted of 40 data sets from 28 studies between 1983 and 2014 that used the PIMRS by Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger and Murphy 1985). Results of the meta-analysis indicated a small but statistically significant effect of gender on instructional leadership practices with female principals participating in instructional leadership than male principals (Hallinger et al., 2016).

Principals whose students came from disadvantaged communities found different challenges in terms of teacher commitment to the school, retention, student behavior, and student achievement than those in more advantaged communities (Day, Gu, & Sammons, 2016). Urban schools have been the focus of many studies on principal instructional leadership practices (Bossert et al., 1982; Heck et al., 1990; Murphy, 1988). Leadership practices may vary depending upon whether the school is in an urban, rural or suburban community context. Hallinger and Heck (1996) conducted a literature review of principal effects, and found that contextual variables such as student background, community type, organizational structure, teacher experience, and school size create a contingent base for leadership.

Research has provided evidence demonstrating the impact of principal leadership on school organizations, school conditions, teaching and learning, and student achievement (Byrk et al., 2010; Day et al., 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008; Silins & Mulford, 2004)). Large-scale reviews of quantitative revealed findings indicating leadership is second only to classroom instruction (Day et al., 2009; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; 2010; Marzano et al., 2005). Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) also claimed that classroom teachers are the primary source for impacting student learning and principal leadership is second only to classroom instruction on student outcomes. A principal's influence on teaching and learning is seen through effects on the school organization and school culture as well as on teacher behaviors and classroom practices (Witziers et al., 2003). Hallinger (2010) reported that principals impact student learning by developing organizational structures and programs that promote teaching and learning.

Instructional leaders concentrate on practices that create conditions for teacher or student learning (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Supovitz et al., 2010). Instructional leadership enacted by school leaders has an indirect effect on student outcomes (Bush, 2007; Supovitz et al, 2010). However, research on instructional leadership as a mediating role is scarce (Salo et al., 2013). Research offers little in understanding interactions between principals and teachers, creating a gap in principal leadership literature (Neumerski, 2012).

Hallinger's Model of Instructional Leadership

Bossert et al. (1982) developed a model of instructional management based on managerial functions of the principal that are concerned with the coordination and control of curriculum impacting the instructional and learning climate intended to improve learning outcomes. Personal characteristics, organizational context and school features were included in the model by Bossert et al. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) developed a complimentary model of instructional leadership.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985; 1986) presented a framework of instructional leadership functions that represent the core of the principal's leadership role. These functions in the framework included framing and communicating school goals; supervising and evaluating instruction; coordinating curriculum; developing high academic standards and expectations; monitoring student progress; promoting the professional development of teachers; protecting instructional time; developing incentives for students and teachers. These functions are implemented through leadership processes (Murphy, Hallinger, Weil, & Mitman, 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985;1986). The leadership processes included communication, decision making, conflict

management, group processes, change processes, and environmental interactions. It is through these processes the functions have their intended effectiveness. For example, a principal who communicates school-wide goals must have group process skills, environmental interaction and communication if school-wide goals have the effect of mobilizing teachers and parents toward the desired results (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986).

Instructional leadership describes principal's expertise and influence rather than positional power to affect teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005). The instructional leadership model measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) incorporated three dimensions: 1) Defines the School Mission; 2) Manages the Instructional Program; 3) Develops a Positive Learning Climate (Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The three dimensions were delineated into ten leadership functions. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) used the words "management" and "leadership" interchangeably when presenting the PIMRS framework for heuristic scrutiny. The principal instructional leadership model by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) was chosen for this study; to determine the relationship between instructional leadership on teacher organizational commitment as perceived by teachers.

Assessing Instructional Leadership

Assessing principal leadership is necessary to reinforce the importance of strong leadership practices and to ensure accountability (Condon & Clifford, 2012). Research indicates that school principals are second only to classroom teachers in influencing student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2004). Condon and Clifford (2012) evaluated instruments used to assess principal leadership to ensure legitimacy of the assessment tools. The evaluation spanned authors work from 1985 to

2006 (Condon & Clifford, 2012). All but two of the instruments measured general leadership practices with various approaches to assessment. The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger & Murphy; 1985) and the Instructional Activity Questionnaire (Heck, 1990) specifically measured instructional leadership practices of principals across subscales of activity (Condon & Clifford, 2012, Hallinger, 1985, Heck et al., 1990). The Principal Instructional Management Scale or PIMRS has been the most widely used instrument to study principal instructional management practices (Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger & Wang, 2015)

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) based on the conceptual framework by Hallinger (1985; 1990) and Hallinger and Murphy (1985) has been chosen as the instrument to assess instructional leadership as perceived by teachers in this study. Hallinger (2011) analyzed over three decades of doctoral research studies using the PIMRS in a critical synthesis of quantitative and qualitative research and found that while most studies were correlational and involved elementary schools, the prevalence of instructional leadership was still in the forefront of effective schools' research. Hallinger and Heck (1996) and Hallinger (2011) evaluated empirical research which focused specifically on mediated-effects models. The researchers' evaluation indicated that that principal's impact on school effectiveness occurred through interactions with teachers and other stakeholders.

The conceptual framework for the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger (1983; 1990) and Hallinger and Murphy (1985) incorporates three dimensions into the framework: Defining the School Mission; Managing the Instructional Program; Developing a Positive Learning Climate. The three dimensions

are delineated into ten instructional leadership functions within the three dimensions: (Defining the School Mission) *Frames the School's Goals, Communicates the School's Goals*; (Managing the Instructional Program) *Coordinates the Curriculum, Supervises and Evaluates Instruction, Monitors Student Progress*; (Developing the School Learning Climate) *Protects Instructional Time, Provides Incentives for Teachers, Provides Incentives for Learning, Promotes Professional Development, Maintains High Visibility* (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Figure 1 presents the instructional leadership framework by Hallinger and Murphy (1985).

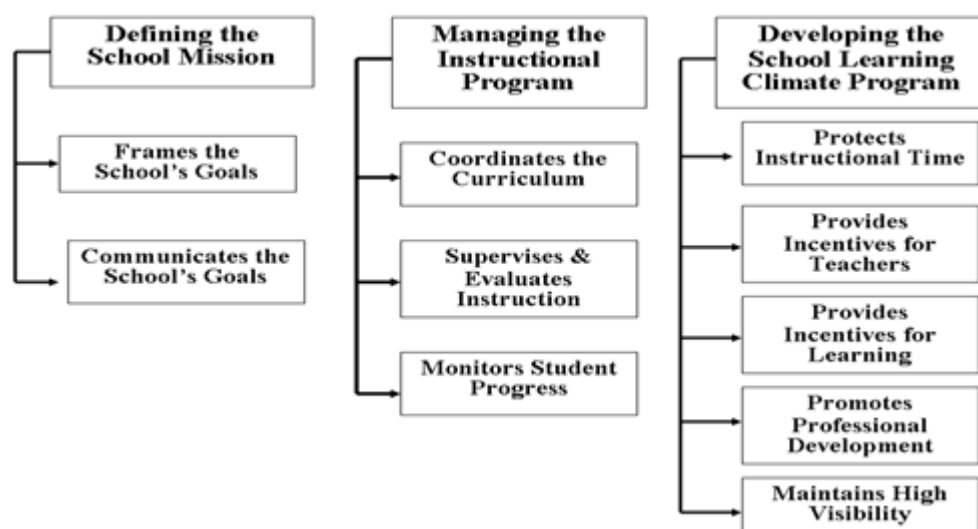


Figure 1 *PIMRS Conceptual Framework* (Hallinger and Murphy 1985)

Defines the School Mission

School leaders significantly impact learning by developing and articulating school goals and school vision (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Robinson et al., 2008). Vision is a broad overview of the school's direction while goals are specific targets necessary to achieve the vision (Hallinger & Heck, 2002). Vision, mission and goals with an

academic focus are asserted in instructional leadership literature (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger, 2005; Robinson et al., 2008). Application of transformational leadership to education did not establish a learning-centered focus on school vision and goals, but rather a values focus. When transformational and instructional leadership were compared concerning how goals and mission were focused, instructional leadership was favored (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Robinson et al., 2008; Sun & Leithwood, 2015). Vision and goals create impact by inspiring people to contribute their efforts toward the achievement of a collective goal and by providing direction toward staffing, resource allocation, and curriculum program adoptions (Hallinger & Wang, 2015).

Frames the School Goals

Within the PIMRS model, schools should have clear academic goals that are supported by staff that are included as part of daily instruction (Hallinger & Wang 2015). Performance goals should be articulated in terms that are measurable (Bossert et al., 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Robinson et al., 2008).

Communicates the School Goals

This principal function focuses on communication of goals to teachers, students, parents, and community stakeholders. Goals are frequently discussed throughout the school year through formal and informal means of communication (Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008; Sun & Leithwood, 2015).

Manages the Instructional Program

This dimension focuses on coordination and management of instructional and curriculum as the technical core of the school. This dimension incorporated three functions: 1) Supervises and evaluated instruction; 2) Coordinates the curriculum; 3) Monitors student progress (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003; Murphy, 1988; Robinson et al., 2008). Within this dimension, the coordination and control of the school is not carried out solely by the principal (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Teachers play a key role in the coordination and control of curriculum; however, principals have the primary responsibility in the student outcomes affected by the coordination and control of the instructional program (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). The principal exercises expertise in teaching and learning and displays a commitment to the instructional program (Bossert et al., 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986).

Supervises and Evaluates Instruction

This function outlines the principal's task of ensuring the goals of the school are practiced at the classroom level (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Instructional support is provided to teachers through formal and informal observations and classroom visits made by the principal or others involved in the supervision of curriculum and instruction (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger & Wang, 2015, Heck et al., 1990; Robinson et al., 2008).

Coordinates Curriculum

Curriculum objectives are aligned with the curriculum content and school achievement tests with continuity across grade levels (Hallinger & Wang, 2015).

Collaboration among teachers supports curriculum coordination within and across grade levels (Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Robinson et al., 2008).

Monitors Student Progress

Standardized test data is used to locate areas of weakness in student achievement and in curricular programs. Data from standardized test analysis is provided to teachers as a tool to guide their instruction (Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Purkey & Smith, 1983).

Develops a Positive School Learning Climate

Principals shape the academic structures and processes in a school and create circumstances conducive to teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1998). This Dimension has also been labeled as designing the organization (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2010). This dimension is outlined by several functions: 1) Protects instructional time, 2) Promotes professional development, 3) Maintains high visibility, 4) Provides incentives for teachers 5) Provides incentives for learning. This dimension overlaps with the dimensions incorporated in the transformational leadership framework (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006). This dimension emphasizes the ways in which effective school leaders create cultures of continuous improvement and in which rewards are aligned with academic purpose, practices, and outcomes (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger & Heck, 2011; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Heck & Hallinger, 2009; 2010; Heck et al., 1990; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Purkey & Smith, 1983).

Protects Instructional Time

The principal influences the protection of instructional time by developing and enforcing school-wide policies that limit or prevent interruptions to teaching and learning (Bossert et al., 1982; Hallinger & Wang, 2015).

Maintains High Visibility

Visibility in the classroom and on the school campus can have a positive impact on student behavior and on classroom instruction and is emphasized in this function of instructional leadership (Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Marks & Printy, 2003).

Provides Incentives for Teachers

Within this function, the principal aligns goal outcomes with formal and informal rewards (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). While the salary schedule and tenure systems prevent principals from providing monetary incentives, rewards such as praise and recognition both publicly and privately can be very effective (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Through the facilitation of school culture that builds mutual respect, trust and success, principals can motivate teachers in addition to informal and formal rewards (Byrk et al., 2010; Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000, 2005).

Promotes Professional Development

Principal support for professional learning has a large effect on student outcomes (Robinson et al., 2008). The principal's role in supporting professional learning is ensuring that professional development is related to school goals (Hallinger & Heck, 2011; Heck & Hallinger, 2009; Kruger et al, 2007; Louis, Dretzke & Walstrom, 2010; Louis et al., (2010); Robinson et al., 2008).

Provides Incentives for Learning

The role of the principal in this dimension is to foster an academic environment that recognizes student achievement and improvement both in the classroom and in school-wide assemblies which is essential to a climate of success (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The PIMRS is only rated for validity and reliability for elementary school principals (Hallinger, & Murphy, 1985) The PIMRS (Hallinger, 1990) contains 50 statements about principal instructional leadership behaviors. The respondent selects an answer from a five-point Likert scale: “Almost Never” (1) to “Almost Always” (5). The PIMRS is scored by calculating the mean for each function and dimension. A high score on a function or dimension indicates active leadership in that area. Principals who obtain high ratings in the various job functions or dimensions are perceived as engaging in instructional leadership behavior associated with principals in effective schools. The PIMRS ratings do not measure the quality of instructional leadership, only the frequency the behaviors are perceived to occur (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; 1987).

School Leadership and Organizational Commitment

A study by Santikaya and Erdogan (2016) investigated the relationship between the instructional leadership behaviors of high school principals and teachers’ perceptions of organizational commitment. The School Principals Instructional Leadership Questionnaire by Sisman, and Balay’s Organizational Commitment Scale were distributed to random sample of 441 teachers from 28 schools. The relationship between instructional leadership behaviors and organizational commitment behaviors was analyzed with the Pearson-product moment correlation analysis and the extent to which

instructional leadership behaviors predicted organizational commitment was investigated with multiple linear regression. Results of the analysis indicated that principals in this study displayed instructional leadership more often in the dimensions of setting and sharing school goals and least in the dimension of supporting and developing teachers. A positive and significant correlation was found between the instructional leadership of principals' and teachers' organizational commitment. The establishment of a well-organized instructional environment and climate dimension of instructional leadership behavior significantly predicted organizational commitment of teachers.

Serin and Buloc (2012) conducted a study of instructional leadership of principals and organizational commitment of teachers using survey results from 17 elementary schools and from 419 teachers. The Instructional Leadership Behaviors of Principals questionnaire by Sisman and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire by Porter, Steers, & Mowday were used to measure instructional leadership and organizational commitment. Descriptive statistics and a Pearson correlational analysis demonstrated that principal leadership behaviors positively correlated with organizational commitment. The highest correlation ($r = 0.52, p < 0.01$) was seen between determining and sharing the schools' goals and organizational commitment. The lowest correlation was between the supporting and improving of teachers and organizational commitment. Using regression analysis, Serin and Buloc found that the subscales of instructional leadership behaviors of principals expressed 31% of the variance in organizational commitment. A previous study by Buloc (2009) found transformational leadership to predict organizational commitment.

A study by Dee et al., (2006) examined the effects of four team related structures on organizational commitment of elementary teachers in an urban school district. The model focused on organizational commitment with three intervening variables: teacher empowerment; school communication; work autonomy. The team-related structures included team teaching, curriculum teamwork, governance teamwork, and community-relations teamwork. Team teaching had both direct and indirect effects on organizational commitment. The other team-related structures contributed indirectly to higher levels of organizational commitment. Dee et al. suggested the need for more research on organizational procedures that reinforce teacher identification with the school organization.

Research by Devos et al., (2013) examined organizational commitment of teachers and the mediating effects of distributed leadership. Data from 1,495 teachers in 46 schools was collected using a self-reporting survey combining questions from the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) by Mowday, and the Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI) by Hulpia, Devos and Roseel. Structural equation modeling was used to test whether the relationship between principal leadership and organizational commitment was partly explained by a mediated effect of distributed leadership. The study by Devos et al., (2013) revealed that the principal is the main actor in leading teacher's participative decision making and organizational commitment of teachers was reported as an outcome variable.

Devos et al., (2013) stated that implications from their research indicated that when teachers perceive their leaders to share the same goals, have clearly defined roles, and share mutual trust, the teachers have greater commitment to the school. There was

not a strong direct relationship between teachers' perceptions of teacher leaders or assistant principals and organizational commitment. The 44% variance in teacher organizational commitment was explained by the mediating variable of distributed leadership and leadership of the principal. The results of structural equation modeling suggested that the only context variable that significantly correlated to teacher organizational commitment was years of experience. Teachers with more years of experience felt less committed to their schools than did teachers with fewer years of experience.

Devos et al., (2013) concluded that teachers near the end of their professional careers found it more difficult to sustain commitment. School type and gender of teacher as context variables were not significantly correlated to the organizational commitment of teachers (Devos et al., 2013). Research by Mathieu and Zajak (1990) and Park (2005) indicated that context variables did not have a strong influence on teacher organizational commitment.

Graham et al., (2014) conducted a qualitative study on principals and teachers' perceptions of principal leadership practices. The teachers who were interviewed had more than five years teaching experience, but had left the teaching profession. Graham et al. found significant differences in the perception of teachers and principals in reporting importance of leadership practices. Teachers reported leadership practices such as valuing staff, good interpersonal skills, and developing staff strengths had the most impact on teacher commitment. Principals reported organizational and educational leadership were the most important leadership practices while teachers rated educational leadership last (Graham et al., 2014).

Aydin, Sarier, and Uysal (2013) conducted a study on the effects of principal leadership style on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of teachers. Aydin et al. (2013) reported that transformational leadership had a significant impact on teacher job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results from the study indicated that transformational leadership encourages organizational commitment and job satisfaction through a shared vision.

Hughes et al., (2015) examined teacher retention strategies in hard to staff schools. The researchers found that teacher retention was greatly dependent upon teachers' perceptions of emotional, instructional, environmental, and technical school constructs. Hallinger and Heck (2010) conducted an empirical review of research on instructional leadership and reported that functions of instructional leadership related to sharing a common goal and mission to teachers, collaboration and communication with staff, providing professional development, and shared leadership were related to commitment and performance of teachers.

Through a longitudinal and mixed-methods study Sammons et al. (2007), analyzed teachers' professional life phases and professional identity and the influence on their commitment and resilience. Both commitment and resilience were found to be a product of how teachers socially construct their work experiences. Teachers' commitment to schools of varying contexts was directly related to teachers' perceptions of professional support; the differing degrees of tension between their personal life and work experiences; leadership and culture in their schools; students' behavior; and work relationships. The quality of school leadership, personal support, and relationships with colleagues were key influences on teachers' motivation, commitment to the school, and

retention. Teachers in primary schools were more likely to sustain commitment than in secondary schools (Sammons et al., 2007).

Sheppard (1996) conducted a study to determine the relationship between instructional leadership and school-level characteristics related to the development of successful schools. Data was analyzed from a random sample of 624 teachers in elementary, middle, and high schools using multiple regression analysis. The results indicated a statistically significant relationship between instructional leadership behaviors of principals and teacher commitment, professional involvement and innovation. The School Organizational Climate Questionnaire was used to measure school-level characteristics and the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger & Murphy was used to measure instructional leadership practices of principals.

Sheppard (1996) found a positive relationship between instructional leadership behaviors exhibited by principals and the level of teacher commitment to the school, support of the school, teacher innovation, and professional involvement on all ten functions of the PIMRS. School type did not affect the relationship between instructional leadership practices and teacher commitment, teacher professional involvement or teacher innovation. The results suggest that instructional leadership practices contribute to school characteristics that facilitate school improvement (Sheppard, 1996). When instructional leadership practices of principals are perceived by teachers to be appropriate, teachers grow in their commitment, become more professionally involved, and are willing to be innovative in their classrooms (Sheppard, 1996). As a result, Instructional leadership can also be considered transformational (Sheppard, 1996).

Summary

Principal leadership is an antecedent to teacher job satisfaction, attitudes, performance, and organizational commitment (Bogler, 2001; Hallinger, 2003; Nguni et al., 2006). Teachers' organizational commitment has been shown to be positively related to job satisfaction and alignment with the organizational goals (Dee et al., 2006; Sammons et al., 2007). A shared vision and communication of group goals by the leaders in the school increase teachers' organizational commitment (Nguni et al., 2006). Supportive leadership is a predictor of organizational commitment (Devos et al., 2013). Supportive leadership functions and behaviors are the tenets of the instructional leadership model (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

Mowday et al. (1979) outlined three characteristics of organizational commitment: 1) identification, acceptance, or belief in organizational goals and values; 2) involvement in or a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization; 3) loyalty or a strong desire to maintain membership in an organization. Devos et al. (2013) found teachers were more committed to a school when they perceived their principal, assistant principal, or teacher leaders as supportive by providing a clear school vision and providing instructional support to teachers.

Organizational commitment as an outcome variable can result in job and career satisfaction, self-efficacy, organizational citizenship behavior, and an increased desire to attain organizational goals and remain with the organization (Dee, et al., 2006; Firestone & Pennell, 1993; Mathieu & Zazac, 1990; Somech & Bogler, 2002). Context variables such as teacher experience, gender, and school type can influence organizational commitment (Hulpia et al., 2009; Park, 2005). However, the correlation between context

variables and organizational commitment is relatively small (Devos et al. 2013; Mathieu, & Zajac, 1990; Park, 2005).

School leaders affect students and student learning through hiring, assignment of teachers and retaining teachers (Hornig & Loeb, 2010). Managing the organization through instructional leadership requires principals hire and retain quality teachers and provide them with the support and resources they need to be successful in the classroom (Hornig & Loeb, 2010). Louis et al. (2010) concluded that school leaders affect student outcomes by influencing teachers' motivation and providing appropriate working conditions for teachers.

Research on teacher turnover as an outcome variable tends to focus on factors affecting teachers' decisions to leave schools; however, there is a need for a better understanding of factors which enable teachers to sustain their commitment and effectiveness over the course of their careers (Sammons et al., 2007). Approaches to organizational commitment research look at pre-entry (antecedents) commitment and post-entry (consequences or outcomes) commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment reflects multiple commitments to multiple targets that make up the organization.

Research has offered little in understanding interactions between principals and teachers, creating a gap in the literature (Neumerski, 2012). This study fills a gap in the literature by taking organizational commitment from a general view of antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment, to a view that studies how employees perceive leadership experiences in the organization as well as how employees view their commitment to the organization based on these experiences. Specifically, this study

seeks to add to the understanding of how principal instructional leadership interactions in the elementary school setting and teachers' perceptions of these interactions affect teachers' level of organizational commitment.

Chapter 3 reviews the research methodology used to address the research questions guiding this study on the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in elementary schools. Descriptions of the participants in the study and data collections procedures are outlined. Instruments used to collect data are described and methods used to analyze data are discussed.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methods, data collection, and instrumentation used for this quantitative study. The sections described are (a) purpose (b) research design (c) population and sample (d) instrumentation (e) data collection and (f) data analysis. The research questions and null hypotheses are also restated.

Purpose of the Study

The purposes of this study were (1) to determine if perceived principal instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) are related to perceived teacher organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991); (2) to determine if there was a difference in perceived instructional leadership practices, as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) with regard to the variables of: (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching; (3) to determine if there was a difference in perceived organizational commitment of teachers, as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991), with regard to the variables of (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context, (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching; (4) to determine if there was a difference

between instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) on each of the PIMRS subscales, and organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991); (5) to determine if there was a difference between principal instructional leadership practices as defined by Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985) with regard to the three subscales of affective, normative and continuance commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991). Elementary teachers in grades K-5 from two geographic regions in a southern state were participants in this study.

Research Design

A correlational research design was used to analyze teacher perceptions of principal instructional leadership and teacher organizational commitment, and to determine if there is a significant relationship between principal instructional leadership, as measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) (Hallinger, 1983; 1990) and teacher organizational commitment as measured by the Three Component Employee Commitment Survey (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Correlational research design was used to determine the relationship between the ten leadership function subscales of the PIMRS and the affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment scores measured as subscales on the TCM.

A descriptive/comparative research design was used in this study to compare teacher perceptions of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment as measured by the Three Component Organizational Commitment Scale scores, and teacher perceptions of principal instructional leadership on ten subscale functions as

measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale. In addition, a comparative research design was used to compare teacher perceptions of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment as measured by the Three Component Organizational Commitment Scale (TCM) and the variables of (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching. A comparative research design was used to compare teacher perceived instructional leadership on ten subscale functions as measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and the variables of (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

Population and Sample

The population of schools from which the sample was taken, was selected by the researcher and consisted of elementary teachers in grades K-5 in schools from two regions in a southern state. The regions were divided into districts by the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education. A total of 87 principals were asked to participate in the study. District A had 25 elementary schools participate in the study, with 164 full time classroom teachers in Kindergarten through fifth grade full time teachers asked to participate in the survey. District B had 19 elementary schools participating in the study with 95 Kindergarten through fifth grade full time classroom teachers asked to participate in the survey. The survey was sent by principals to a total of 259 kindergartens through fifth grade full time classroom teachers who were asked to participate in the study. Of

the 259 teachers asked to participate in the study by principals, 188 teachers responded to the survey. Of the 188 teachers who responded, 182 teachers agreed to participate in the study and completed the survey. Of the 87 principals asked to participate by sending the survey to K-5 regular education classroom teachers, 44 principals participated in this study.

Instrumentation

For the purpose of this study two surveys were used to gather data for statistical analysis: (a) the (PIMRS) Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale developed by Hallinger (1983; 1990) and Hallinger and Murphy (1985), and (b) the Three Component Employee Commitment Survey (TCM) developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) and Meyer et al., (1993). In addition to completing the survey, teachers were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire, adapted by the researcher with permission from the author of the survey, contained descriptive data that consisted of (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level currently teaching.

Hallinger (1983; 1990), Hallinger and Murphy (1985), Hallinger and Wang (2015) stated that the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIRMS) is a valid, reliable instrument that exceeds the general standards for instruments used for research and diagnostic purposes such as leadership assessment and development. In a validation study conducted by Hallinger and Murphy (1985), items on each subscale of the instrument achieved an average agreement of .80 among raters determining content validity. Construct validity was determined through subscale intercorrelation. Groups of

items within a subscale correlated more strongly with each other than with other subscales. Analysis of variance of principal ratings within schools was less than the variance in ratings of principals between schools at a significance level of .05. Content validity or the degree to which items on the PIMRS are appropriate measures of the instructional leadership subscales are listed in Table 1 (Hallinger & Wang, 2015).

Table 1

Average Agreement on PIMRS Subscale Functions

Subscale	Number of Items	Average Agreement
Frames Goals	5	91%
Communicates Goals	5	96%
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	5	80%
Curriculum Coordination	5	80%
Monitors Progress	5	88%
Protects Instructional Time	5	85%
Maintains High Visibility	5	80%
Incentives for Teachers	5	100%
Professional Development	5	80%
Incentives for Learning	5	94%

To determine content validity, each item in each subscale had to achieve an average agreement of 0.80 from the raters. Hallinger and Wang (2015) reported average agreements of 80% to 100% on items depending upon the subscale.

Reliability of the PIMRS was determined through Cronbach's Alpha. The ten subscales of the instrument were measured for reliability with each subscale achieving a reliability coefficient of at least 0.75 as a test of internal consistency for both research and evaluation (Hallinger and Murphy, 1985). The scores for each subscale are listed in Table 2 (Hallinger and Wang, 2015).

Table 2

PIMRS Reliability Scores

Subscale	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Frames Goals	5	0.89
Communicates Goals	5	0.89
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	5	0.90
Curriculum Coordination	5	0.90
Monitors Progress	5	0.90
Protects Instructional Time	5	0.84
Maintains High Visibility	5	0.81
Incentives for Teachers	5	0.78
Professional Development	5	0.86
Incentives for Learning	5	0.87

The Principal Instructional Management Scale (PIMRS) is composed of 50 questions within ten leadership functions which are separated into three dimensions of instructional leadership. Each respondent was asked to answer each of the 50 survey questions on a Likert scale scored on a scale of 1 = (*Almost Never*), 2 = (*Seldom*),

3= (*Sometimes*), 4= (*Frequently*), 5= (*Almost Always*) indicating the frequency the specific behavior was observed. The teacher version of this survey was used for teachers to answer each question based on the extent to which they perceived their principal performing the instructional practice. Permission was obtained from Dr. Philip Hallinger to use the teacher version of the PIMRS survey and to make adaptations to the demographic section and to eliminate school name (See Appendix A).

Each subscale of the PIMRS consists of five items within three dimensions of instructional leadership (Hallinger & Wang 2015). The subscale average score is obtained at the function level and indicates the level of activity on a given leadership dimension or function. The PIMRS Sub-scales and Item Classification are listed in Table 3.

Table 3

PIMRS Sub-scales and Item Classification

Dimension	Function	Survey Items
Defining the school mission	Framing school goals	Items 1-5
	Communicating school goals	Items 6-10
Managing instructional program	Supervising/evaluating instruction	Items 11-15
	Coordinating the curriculum	Items 16-20
	Monitoring student progress	Items 21-25
Promoting school program	Protecting instructional time	Items 26-30
	Maintaining high visibility	Items 31-35
	Providing incentives for teachers	Items 36-40
	Promoting professional development	Items 41-45
	Providing incentives for learning	Items 46-50

The instrument selected to measure organizational commitment was the Three Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) and Meyer et al. (1993). The instrument consists of an 18 item survey using a 7-point Likert scale, including values of 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*slightly disagree*), 4 (*undecided*), 5 (*slightly agree*), 6 (*agree*), and 7 (*strongly agree*). The TCM measures and differentiates between three components of employee organizational commitment: (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (C) normative. Permission to use the Three Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey was provided by WORLD Discoveries at Western University (See Appendix B).

The TCM measures organizational commitment using three scales. The affective scale includes attitudinal measures or how connected an employee feels toward the organization. The continuance scale measures cost-benefit of commitment to the organization as opposed to a voluntary separation. The normative scale measures feelings of obligation or duty to remain an employee with the organization. The TCM Employee Commitment Survey systematically makes a distinction between the three commitment constructs (Meyer et al., 1993).

To establish validity, Allen and Meyer (1990) and Allen and Meyer (1996) examined the relationship between the constructs of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The results indicated that continuance commitment was independent from affective commitment ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.06$) and normative commitment ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.14$). The correlations between affective and normative scales were significant ($p < 0.001$, $r = 0.51$). Cohen (1996) used confirmatory analysis to show discriminate validity among affective, continuance, and normative organizational

commitment. A multi-sample confirmatory factor analysis found that affective, continuance, and normative commitment components each composed a separate dimension of the three-component model (Dunam, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990; Moorman et al., 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Somers, 1993; Vandenberghe, 1996) According to Meyer and Allen (1997) the affective, normative, and continuance subscales of the TCM are independent and could also exist at different levels within the same employee. The combination of the three constructs provides a total score for an employee's organizational relationship or commitment with the organization.

Allen and Meyer (1996) and Meyer and Allen (1997) reported reliability (alphas) of the TCM as 0.85 for affective commitment, 0.79 for continuance commitment, and 0.73 for normative commitment. Cohen (1996) reported coefficient alphas of 0.79 for affective commitment, 0.69 for continuance, and 0.65 for normative commitment. To further assess reliability of the TCM, Meyer and Allen (2005) performed a meta-analysis of studies conducted over a 15-year period that reported using the TCM in research. Internal reliability of the Three Component Employee Commitment Scale (TCM) reported as a result of the meta-analysis is noted in Table 4.

Table 4

Reliability Levels for TCM Survey Instrument by Subscales

TCM Subscale	Reliability Level
Affective – Questions 1-6	0.82
Continuance – Questions 7-12	0.73
Normative – Questions 13-18	0.86

The TCM was reported to have acceptable internal reliability levels (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; 2005; Meyer et al., 2002). Three affective commitment scale questions and one normative commitment scale question on the TCM rating survey were reverse-keyed items. These items were 3, 4, 5, and 13 on the TCM survey instrument used for the study. As indicated by the TCM Academic Users Guide (2004), before data analysis, the item scores were reversed according to the scale (1 = 7, 2 = 6, 3 = 5, 4 = 4, 5 = 3, 6 = 2, 7 = 1). Three average scores were obtained, one each for the affective commitment scale, normative commitment scale, and continuance commitment scale. The scores ranged in value from one to seven with higher scores indicating stronger commitment.

Data Collection Procedures

The researcher secured approval from the Human Use Committee at Louisiana Tech University before any data were collected (See Appendix C). Superintendents from the selected regions were contacted by the researcher with a formal letter requesting permission to conduct the survey (See Appendix D). After permission was granted by each superintendent, the email addresses of elementary principals in each district were secured through each district's Supervisor of Elementary Education as requested by each Superintendent.

Principals' were asked to distribute the survey to regular education elementary classroom teachers in grades K-5 through email correspondence (See Appendix E). Through the use of the electronic survey service, Survey Monkey, the combined 75 item Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, 1983; Hallinger & Murphy,

1985), the Three Component Employee Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 1993) and demographic questions was distributed to principals, along with a letter of introduction, description of the study, and informed consent (See Appendix F). Each school was issued a separate SSL protected link.

After surveys were distributed by principals in each school, teachers were asked to read and accept a human subject's release form before agreeing to participate in the survey. Data were collected via survey link for each school. All data were kept on a secure, password protected, data storage device. Data will be stored for five years. The participants were asked to return the survey within two weeks. Two reminders were sent with the school survey link through Survey Monkey after two week intervals to each school principal. Survey data were collected through Survey Monkey from each participating school over a six-week period.

Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

The research questions and null hypotheses for this study were:

- I. How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?
- II. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?
- III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale.

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypotheses 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Data Analysis

In this study, descriptive data were presented in charts, tables, and accompanying narrative. Descriptive data were (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (suburban, urban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of

teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching. Descriptive statistics for independent variables of instructional leadership practices were calculated. In addition, descriptive statistics for the dependent variable, teachers' organizational commitment were calculated.

The means and standard deviations using interval-ratio data were computed for both the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and the Three Component Employee Commitment Scale (TCM) by calculating the total scores on both instruments and the sub-scores on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) ten leadership function subscales. Total scores on affective, normative, and continuance commitment sub-scales of the TCM were also calculated. Total calculations for the descriptive statistics for the independent variable of principal instructional management practices along with the descriptive statistics for the dependent variable of teacher organizational commitment were reported.

Inferential statistical comparisons were used to test each null hypothesis. The tests used to address research questions and null hypotheses were a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (Pearson r) and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). With the use of a Pearson r correlation, the dependent variable of organizational commitment was correlated with the independent variable of principal instructional leadership. The dependent variables of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment were correlated with the independent variable of principal instructional management practices on each subscale of the PIMRS.

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the differences between the dependent variables of affective, continuance, and normative organizational

commitment of teachers to the independent variable of principal instructional leadership subscores. An Independent samples t-test was used to compare differences between teacher perceptions of principal instructional leadership and gender of principal, as well as between perceptions of teacher organizational commitment and gender of principal. Differences between perceptions of principal instructional leadership dimensions were determined through an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) by comparing (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience and, (e) grade level teaching to dimensions of principal instructional leadership. Differences between perceptions of teacher organizational commitment were determined through an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) by comparing (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience, and (e) grade level teaching to perceptions of affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment.

Where significant differences were found, a Scheffe' post hoc test was conducted to determine where the difference existed between groups. The magnitude of effect was determined through Cohen's *d*. Results of these statistical tests are presented in tables and charts with accompanying narrative within Chapter 4. The Alpha level for all statistical tests was set at 0.05.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine if the instructional leadership practices of principals has an impact on organizational commitment of teachers. Instructional leadership practices were determined using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and teacher organizational commitment was measured by using the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment. The population for this study consisted of 182 elementary classroom teachers serving kindergarten through fifth grade in two regions of a southern state.

Descriptive statistics of research participants were calculated for (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, and (f) grade level teaching. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis (Pearson r) was used to determine the relationship between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices of principals and organizational commitment of teachers. One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test for differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices and perceptions of teachers' organizational commitment by (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience, and (e) grade level teaching. An independent samples t-test was

used to test for differences in teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices of principals and teachers' organizational commitment by gender of principal.

Research Questions

This chapter presents the analysis of data as guided by the following research questions and null hypotheses:

I. How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

II. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?

III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale.

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Null Hypotheses 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Descriptive Statistics Results

The demographic data contained in the survey used in this study formed independent variables for this study. Inclusive in this list of variables were responses to questions on (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

The survey instrument captured demographic data from 182 kindergarten through fifth grade teachers. As shown in Table 5, the survey instrument was sent to 188 teachers with 96.81% of teachers agreeing to participate and 3.19% agreeing not to participate.

Table 5

Agreement to Participate

	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Agree	182	96.81
Disagree	6	3.19
Total	188	100.00

Note: N = 188

As shown in Table 6, the majority of teachers reported that their principal was female (77.47%). The percentage of male principals was (22.53%).

Table 6

Gender of Principal

<u>Gender</u>	<u>Frequency (n)</u>	<u>Percent (%)</u>
Female	141	77.47
Male	41	22.53
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

Teachers were asked to identify the approximate enrollment of their school. As shown in Table 7, the highest percentage (46.15%) was reported from teachers whose schools had enrollments between 400 and 600 students. For the purposes of statistical analysis, the categories of less than 200 students and between 200 and 400 students were combined and labeled less than 400 students.

Table 7

Approximate School Enrollment

<u>School Enrollment</u>	<u>Frequency (n)</u>	<u>Percent (%)</u>
Less than 200 students	2	1.10
Between 200 and 400 students	47	25.82
Between 400 and 600 students	84	46.15
Greater than 600 students	49	26.92
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

As shown in Table 8, the school context with the highest percentage (41.21%) was suburban. Urban context percentage (30.77%) and rural context percentage (28.02%) followed suburban context.

Table 8

School Context

School Context	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Urban	56	30.77
Suburban	75	41.21
Rural	51	28.02
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

As reported in Table 9, the largest percentage of elementary school teachers (51.65%) reported they had worked under their current principal for two to four years. For the purpose of statistical analysis, the category of more than 15 years under current principal was combined with 10-15 years under current principal and labeled 10 or more years under current principal, for a total of 17 responses and 9.33%.

Table 9

Years Teaching Under Current Principal

<u>Years Under Current Principal</u>	<u>Frequency (n)</u>	<u>Percent (%)</u>
1 year	44	24.18
2-4 years	94	51.65
5-9 years	27	14.84
10-15 years	7	3.84
More than 15	10	5.49
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

As reported in Table 10, the largest percentage of elementary school teachers (35.71%) reported they had more than 15 years of full-time classroom teaching experience. That percentage was closely followed by those teachers with five to nine years of classroom teaching experience (29.62%) and 10 to 15 years of experience (24.73%). For the purpose of statistical analysis, the category of one year of teaching experience was combined with two to four years of teaching experience. The combined category yielded 23 responses with one to four years of experience and a percentage of 12.64%.

Table 10

Years of Teaching Experience

<u>Years of Experience</u>	<u>Frequency (n)</u>	<u>Percent (%)</u>
1 year	7	3.85
2-4 years	16	8.79
5-9 years	49	26.92
10-15 years	45	24.73
More than 15	65	35.71
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

As shown in Table 11, the largest percentage of elementary school teachers (20.33%) reported teaching Kindergarten. That percentage was closely followed by fifth grade teachers (18.69%).

Table 11

Grade Level Teaching

<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Frequency (n)</u>	<u>Percent (%)</u>
Kindergarten	37	20.33
1 st Grade	29	15.93
2 nd Grade	29	15.93
3 rd Grade	29	15.93
4 th Grade	24	13.19
5 th Grade	34	18.69
Total	182	100.00

Note: N = 182

Descriptive Statistics

Research Question 1

Research Question 1: How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

Research Question 1 examined the practices of principals' instructional leadership practices from the perspectives of teachers. Participants responded to 50 behavioral statements that described job practices and behaviors of principals relating to instructional leadership as measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Means and standard deviations were calculated from the responses that represented teacher perceptions of activity in a particular area of instructional leadership. Teachers rated principals in the "almost always" range for (a) frames and communicates school goals, (b) coordinates the curriculum, and (c) promotes professional development. Teachers rated perceived principal instructional leadership practices on the remaining seven subscale functions in the "frequently" range. Table 12 summarizes the descriptive statistics of teacher perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices. The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale indicates observed activity, not proficiency, in a particular area of instructional leadership (Hallinger, 1985).

The means for teacher responses ranged from a high of 4.20 on the instructional leadership function of "frames the school goals," to a low of 3.08 on the leadership function of "maintains high visibility." The mean for the leadership dimension of "defines the school mission" was the largest at 4.19 which included (a) frames the school goals and (b) communicates school goals. The instructional leadership dimension of

“develops the school program and learning climate” had the lowest mean of 3.60. The dimension of “develops the school program and learning climate” had the leadership functions of (a) protects instructional time, (b) maintains high visibility, (c) provides incentives for teachers, (d) promotes professional development and (e) provides incentive for learning.

It is interesting to note; all means were above 3.0 on a 5-point scale. Only two means were below 3.5, and were on the instructional leadership functions of “maintains high visibility” (M=3.08), and “provides incentives for teachers” (M = 3.29). The functions of “maintains high visibility” and “provides incentives for teachers” were on the instructional leadership dimension of “develops the school program and learning climate.” On the dimension of “develops the school program and learning climate,” the only leadership function with a mean of above 4.0 was “promotes professional development” (M = 4.02).

It should be noted that the instructional leadership dimensions of “defines the school mission” had a total mean of 4.19, which was the highest mean of the three instructional leadership dimensions. The functions on the dimension of “defines the school mission” had means of over 4.0. The function of “frames the school goals” had a mean of 4.20, and the function of “communicates the school goals” had a mean of 4.03. The total mean for the three instructional leadership dimensions and ten leadership functions was 3.82, indicating the frequency of observed instructional leadership functions was above the average of 2.5 on a scale of 1-5. In Table 12, descriptive statistics are reported.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Perceptions of Principal Instructional Leadership

Functions of Instructional Leadership	<i>n</i>	Teacher M	SD
Frames School Goals	910	4.20	1.00
Communicates School Goals	910	4.03	1.08
Defines the School Mission Dimension	1820	4.19	0.99
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	910	3.90	1.09
Coordinating the Curriculum	910	4.06	1.04
Monitors Student Progress	910	3.78	1.08
Manages Instructional Program Dimension	2730	3.92	1.07
Protects Instructional Time	910	3.88	1.16
Maintains High Visibility	910	3.08	1.35
Provides Incentives for Teachers	910	3.29	1.30
Promotes Professional Development	910	4.02	0.98
Provides Incentives for Learning	910	3.76	1.23
Develops School Program/Learning Climate Dimension	4550	3.60	1.26
Total Instructional Leadership Dimensions	9100	3.82	1.19

Note: N (listwise) = 182

Research Question 2

Research Question 2: How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment? Research Question 2 examined teacher perceptions of their organizational commitment.

Participants responded to 18 statements that differentiated between three components of organizational commitment: (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative. Means and standard deviations were calculated from the teacher responses that indicated perception of organizational commitment among the three components of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997) and Dunham et al., (1994), *affective* commitment generally has the highest score, followed by *normative* commitment, with *continuance* commitment representing the lowest score. Results from the analysis of descriptive statistics of teachers' perceptions of teacher organizational commitment in this study, indicated that the mean for *affective* commitment of teachers was 5.44. The score for *normative* commitment was marginally lower with a mean of 5.29. The score for *continuance* commitment followed *affective* and *normative* commitment with a mean of 4.17.

Teachers' self-reports of organizational commitment fell between the "slightly agree" and "agree" range for attitudinal questions related to *affective* and *normative* commitment. The mean for *continuance* commitment was between the "undecided" and "slightly agree" range. The mean for the total organizational commitment profile was 4.97 which fell just below the "slightly agree" range. Table 13 summarizes the results of the descriptive statistics analysis of teachers' perceptions of teacher organizational commitment. It is interesting to note that the means of all three levels of organizational commitment were above 4.0 or the above average range on a scale of 1-7. The mean for the *affective* level of organizational commitment was 5.44 and the mean for the *normative* level of organizational commitment was 5.29.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Perceptions of Teacher Organizational Commitment

<u>Organizational Commitment Levels</u>	<i>n</i>	Teacher M	SD
Affective Commitment	1092	5.44	1.80
Continuance Commitment	1092	4.17	2.11
Normative Commitment	1092	5.29	1.75
Total Organizational Commitment	3276	4.97	1.98

Note: N (listwise) = 182

Inferential Statistical Results

The following research questions and null hypotheses were tested using descriptive and inferential statistics:

III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale.

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by gender of principal, size of school, school context (urban, suburban, rural), years teaching under current principal, years of teaching experience, or grade level teaching?

Null Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by gender of principal, size of school, school context (urban, suburban, rural), years teaching under current principal, years of teaching experience, or grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by gender of principal, size of school, school context (urban, suburban, rural), years teaching under current principal, years of teaching experience, or grade level teaching?

Null Hypotheses 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by gender of principal, size of school, school context (urban, suburban, rural), years teaching under current principal, years of teaching experience, or grade level teaching.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3: To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Research Question 3 examined whether a relationship exists between teachers' perception of principal instructional leadership practices and the extent to which teachers perceive their *affective*, *continuance*, or *normative* organizational commitment. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson r) was computed to assess the relationship between *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment of teachers and the perceived frequency of principal instructional leadership behaviors as indicated within each function of instructional leadership. Table 14 illustrates the results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation.

Table 14

*Relationship Between Instructional Leadership and Organizational Commitment
(Pearson r Correlation)*

Dimensions/Functions of Instructional Leadership	Levels of Organizational Commitment	r	p	n
(Functions of Dimension1)				
Frames School Goals	Affective	0.35	0.00*	910
	Continuance	-0.00	0.92	910
	Normative	0.28	0.00*	910
Communicates School Goals	Affective	0.26	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.17	0.00*	910
	Normative	0.17	0.00*	910
(Dimension 1)				
Defines the Mission	Affective	9.31	0.00*	1092
	Continuance	0.03	0.34	1092
	Normative	0.28	0.00*	1092
	Total	0.26	0.00*	3276
(Functions of Dimension 2)				
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Affective	0.30	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.04	0.21	910
	Normative	0.25	0.00*	910
Coordinates the Curriculum	Affective	-0.29	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.02	0.51	910
	Normative	0.21	0.00*	910
Monitors Student Progress	Affective	-0.23	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.09	0.01*	910
	Normative	0.17	0.00*	910
(Dimension 2)				
Manages the Instructional Program	Affective	0.30	0.00*	1092
	Continuance	-0.02	0.57	1092
	Normative	0.27	0.00*	1092
	Total	0.18	0.00*	3276

(Functions of Dimension 3)

Protects Instructional Time	Affective	0.29	0.00*	910
	Continuance	-0.04	0.25	910
	Normative	0.24	0.00*	910
Maintains High Visibility	Affective	0.14	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.20	0.00*	910
	Normative	0.12	0.00*	910
Provides Incentives For Teacher	Affective	0.27	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.04	0.18	910
	Normative	0.20	0.00*	910
Promotes Professional Development	Affective	0.30	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.15	0.00*	910
	Normative	0.23	0.00*	910
Provides Incentives For Learning	Affective	0.20	0.00*	910
	Continuance	0.13	0.00*	910
	Normative	0.15	0.00*	910
(Totals of Dimension 3)				
Develops the Learning Climate	Affective	0.27	0.00*	1092
	Continuance	-0.02	0.51	1092
	Normative	0.30	0.00*	1092
	Total	0.21	0.00*	3276

* $p < 0.05$

The correlation coefficient (r) value measures the direction and strength of a relationship between two variables (Pyrzczak, 2003). According to Pyrczak (2003), correlations measure between -1.00, indicating a perfect inverse relationship, to 1.00 a perfect positive relationship. A complete absence of a relationship is indicated by 0.00. The closer an (r) value is to 0.00, the weaker the relationship. A moderate relationship has a (r) value of 0.3 to 0.5. The closer an (r) value is to 1.00, the stronger the relationship. The correlations can be negative or positive (Pyrzczak, 2003).

There were weak to moderate positive correlations with perceived *affective* and *normative* levels of organizational commitment of teachers and most functions of perceived instructional leadership of principals. The highest positive correlations were between perceived *affective* organizational commitment and the perceived instructional leadership functions of “frames the school goals” ($r = 0.35, p = 0.00, n = 910$), “supervises and evaluates instruction” ($r = 0.30, p = 0.00, n = 910$), “protects instructional time” ($r = 0.29, p = 0.00, n = 910$), and “promotes professional development” ($r = 0.30, p = 0.00, n = 910$).

The relationship between the level of *affective* organizational commitment and each instructional leadership dimension and function was statistically significant. The correlations were moderate ($r > 0.30$) between *affective* organizational commitment and the instructional leadership functions “frames the school goals,” “supervises and evaluates instruction,” and “promotes professional development.” The correlations between *affective* organizational commitment and the instructional leadership domains of “defines the mission” and “manages the instructional program:” were moderate ($r = > 0.30$).

It is interesting to note that the relationships between *affective* organizational commitment and the instructional leadership dimensions of “coordinates the curriculum” and “monitors student progress” were statistically significant ($p = 0.00$) for both functions. However, the correlations were negative for *affective* organizational commitment and “coordinates the curriculum” ($r = -0.29$) and “monitors student progress” ($r = -0.23$).

The highest correlations between perceived *normative* organizational commitment and perceived instructional leadership functions were between “frames the school goals” ($r = 0.28, p = 0.00, n = 910$), “supervises and evaluates instruction” ($r = 0.25, p = 0.00, n = 910$), “coordinates the curriculum” ($r = 0.21, p = 0.00, n = 910$), “protects instructional time” ($r = 0.24, p = 0.00, n = 910$), and “promotes professional development” ($r = 0.23, p = 0.00, n = 910$).

It should be noted that all functions of instructional leadership and normative commitment were weak ($r < 0.3$) with the exception of *normative* commitment and the instructional leadership dimension of “develops the learning climate” ($r = 0.30$). All correlations between *normative* organizational commitment and instructional leadership functions and domains were positive.

Correlations between perceived *continuance* commitment of teachers and perceived dimensions and functions of instructional leadership of principals were very weak or no correlation with a range of 0.00 to 0.20. The highest correlations with *continuance* commitment were with the instructional leadership function of “maintains high visibility” ($r = 0.20, p = 0.00, n = 910$) and “communicates school goals” ($r = 0.17, p = 0.00, n = 910$).

There were statistically significant relationships ($p = 0.00$) between *continuance* organizational commitment, and the instructional leadership functions of “maintains high visibility,” “promotes professional development,” and “provides incentives for learning,” “monitors student progress,” and “communicates school goals.” The correlations were weak ($r < 0.3$) between *normative* organizational commitment and most instructional leadership dimensions and instructional leadership functions. It is interesting to note that

that there were statistically significant positive correlations on all levels of organizational commitment and the instructional leadership functions of “communicates school goals,” “maintains high visibility,” “promotes professional development,” and “provides incentives for learning.” Another interesting note was that there were negative statistically significant correlations between *affective* commitment and the instructional leadership functions of “coordinates the curriculum” and “monitors student progress.”

Higher levels of *affective* organizational commitment and *normative* organizational commitment were found to correlate with the instructional leadership functions of “communicates school goals,” “frames school goals,” “supervises and evaluates instruction,” “coordinates the curriculum,” “protects instructional time,” and “promotes professional development.” In summary there was a weak to moderate relationship between perceived *affective* and *normative* levels of organizational commitment and all functions of perceived instructional leadership of principals and the frequency with which principals were perceived to practice these functions of instructional leadership.

After statistical analysis, Null Hypothesis 1: *There will be no relationship between teachers’ perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale*, was rejected.

Research Question 4

Research Question 4: Are there differences in teachers’ perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school

context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Gender of Principal and Perception of Instructional Leadership Functions

An independent samples t- test was used to analyze teachers' perceptions on principal instructional leadership practices by gender of principal. The t-test was conducted to determine if principals were rated differently based on gender.

Of the ten function subscales, both female and male principals received the highest mean in the category of "frames the school goals" ($M_{\text{female}} = 4.38$, $M_{\text{male}} = 4.56$). The lowest mean for male principals was in the subscale function of "monitors student progress" ($M_{\text{male}} = 3.66$). The lowest mean for female principals was in the subscale function of "maintains high visibility" ($M_{\text{female}} = 3.30$).

Data from the t-test analysis indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in mean scores in the subscale function of "communicates school goals" ($t = -2.33$, $p = 0.02$) for female principals ($M = 4.04$) and for male principals ($M = 4.44$). There was also a statistically significant difference in mean scores in the subscale function of "maintains high visibility" ($t = -3.60$, $p = 0.00$) for female principals ($M = 3.30$) and for male principals ($M = 4.05$). It was interesting to note that the analysis indicated male principals are statistically significantly more likely to engage in the instructional leadership functions of "communicates school goals" and in "maintains high visibility" than female principals.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted by gender of the principal and instructional leadership functions resulted in a Cohen's d measure of effect size of

($d = 0.4$) for “communicates school goals.” Although there was a statistical significance between female and male principals in “communicates school goals,” the practical difference was moderate. An effect size measure on the statistical significance between female and male principals in “maintains high visibility” indicated a Cohen’s d of 0.7 indicating a moderate practical difference. Table 15 summarizes the results of the independent samples t-test of perceived differences based on gender of principal and teacher perceptions of instructional leadership.

Table 15

Independent Samples t-Test of Perceived Differences Based on Gender of Principal and Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership

Instructional Leadership				Teacher		
<u>Dimensions/Functions</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Sig. (2-tailed)</u>
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>						
Frames School Goals						
Female	141	4.38	0.85	-1.22	180	0.22
Male	41	4.56	0.71			
Communicates School Goals						
Female	141	4.04	1.03	-2.33	180	0.02*
Male	41	4.44	0.87			
<i>II. Manages the Instructional Program</i>						
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction						
Female	141	4.18	0.90	-1.86	180	0.06
Male	41	4.46	0.74			

Coordinates the Curriculum						
Female	141	4.03	1.02	0.28	180	0.78
Male	41	3.98	1.25			
Monitors Student Progress						
Female	141	3.42	1.10	-1.24	180	0.22
Male	41	3.66	1.06			
<i>III. Develops the Learning Climate</i>						
Protects Instructional Time						
Female	141	4.01	1.04	0.79	180	0.43
Male	41	3.85	1.28			
Maintains High Visibility						
Female	141	3.30	1.25	-3.60	180	0.00*
Male	41	4.05	0.89			
Provides Incentives for Teachers						
Female	141	3.55	1.25	-1.36	180	0.18
Male	41	3.85	1.24			
Promotes Professional Development						
Female	141	4.15	.90	-0.30	180	0.77
Male	41	4.20	.81			
Provides Incentives for Learning						
Female	141	4.18	1.08	-0.76	180	0.45
Male	41	4.32	0.91			

* $p < .05$

Note: N = 182

Size of School and Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership Functions

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of school size and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions. The groups according to school size were (a) less than 400 students, (b) between 400 and 600 students, (c) greater than 600 students. The ten subscales of instructional leadership were analyzed to investigate the degree to which principal' ratings of instructional leadership varied according to school size. Descriptive statistics related to school size are listed in Table 7. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 16.

Table 16

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Size of School

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions		<i>df</i>	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>					
Frames School Goals	Between Groups	2	0.983	1.460	0.24
	Within Groups	179	0.673		
	Total	181			
Communicates School Goals	Between Groups	2	1.958	2.036	0.13
	Within Groups	179	0.962		
	Total	181			

II. Manages the Instructional Program

Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Between Groups	2	0.024	0.031	0.97
	Within Groups	179	0.767		
	Total	181			
Coordinates Curriculum	Between Groups	2	0.530	0.456	0.63
	Within Groups	179	1.161		
	Total	181			
Monitors Student Progress	Between Groups	2	1.575	1.329	0.27
	Within Groups	181	1.186		
	Total	181			

III. Develops the Learning Climate

Protects Instructional Time	Between Groups	2	4.159	3.570	0.03*
	Within Groups	179	1.165		
	Total	181			
Maintains High Visibility	Between Groups	2	1.355	0.917	0.40
	Within Groups	179	1.478		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Between Groups	2	0.035	0.022	0.98
	Within Groups	179	1.580		
	Total	181			
Promotes Professional Development	Between Groups	2	2.913	0.103	0.90
	Within Groups	179	0.783		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Learning	Between Groups	2	1.478	1.370	0.26
	Within Groups	179	1.079		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each subscale of principal instructional leadership resulted in findings of a statistically significant difference in the perceived principal instructional leadership subscale of “protects instructional time” [$F(2, 179) = 3.570, p = 0.03$]. A Scheffe’ post hoc was conducted and found the statistically significant difference to be on the principal instructional leadership subscale function of “protects instructional time” and between the means of schools with less than 400 students ($M = 4.18$) and schools with greater than 600 students ($M = 3.63$).

Data analysis indicated that in small schools (schools less than 400 students), teachers’ perceptions of the instructional leadership function “protects instructional time” was significantly higher than teachers’ perceptions in large schools (schools greater than 600 students). Although there was a statistically significant difference, a Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.5$) indicated a moderate practical difference. Table 17 illustrates results of the Scheffe’ post hoc analysis.

Table 17

ANOVA with Scheffe' Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Size of School

Instructional Leadership Dimensions (Dependent Variable)	Size of School	Size of School	Std. Error	Sig.
<i>III. Develops the Learning Climate</i>				
Protects Instructional Time	Less than 400 Students	Between 400 and 600 Students	0.19403	0.78
		Greater than 600 Students	0.21807	0.04*
	Between 400 and 600 Students	Less than 400 Students	0.19403	0.78
		Greater than 600 Students	0.19403	0.11
	Greater than 600 Students	Less than 400 Students	0.21807	0.04*
		Between 400 and 600 Students	0.19403	0.11

* $p < .05$

School Context and Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership Functions

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of school context and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions. The groups according to school context were (a) rural (b) suburban (c) urban. The ten subscales of instructional leadership were analyzed to investigate the degree to which principal' ratings of instructional leadership

varied according to school context. Descriptive statistics related to school context are listed in Table 8. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 18.

Table 18

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and School Context

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions			Teacher		
		<i>df</i>	Mean Square	F	Sig
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>					
Frames School Goals	Between Groups	2	3.776	5.885	0.00*
	Within Groups	179	0.642		
	Total	181			
Communicates School Goals	Between Groups	2	1.476	1.526	0.22
	Within Groups	179	0.967		
	Total	181			
<i>II. Manages the Instructional Program</i>					
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Between Groups	2	0.843	1.112	0.33
	Within Groups	179	0.758		
	Total	181			
Coordinates Curriculum	Between Groups	2	0.963	0.832	0.44
	Within Groups	179	1.157		
	Total	181			
Monitors Student Progress	Between Groups	2	0.653	0.546	0.58
	Within Groups	179	1.196		
	Total	181			
<i>III. Develops the Learning Climate</i>					
Protects Instructional Time	Between Groups	2	1.423	1.190	0.31
	Within Groups	179	1.196		
	Total	181			

Maintains High Visibility	Between Groups	2	3.860	2.661	0.07
	Within Groups	179	1.450		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Between Groups	2	0.711	0.452	0.64
	Within Groups	179	1.572		
	Total	181			
Promotes Professional Development	Between Groups	2	0.637	0.820	0.44
	Within Groups	179	0.777		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Learning	Between Groups	2	0.143	0.130	0.88
	Within Groups	179	1.094		
	Total	181			

* $P < .05$

Analysis of each subscale of principal instructional leadership resulted in findings of a statistically significant difference in the perceived principal instructional leadership subscale of “frames the school goals” [$F(2, 179) = 5.885, p = 0.00$]. A Scheffe’ post hoc was conducted and found the statistically significant difference to be on the principal instructional leadership subscale function of “frames the school goals” and between the means of suburban school context ($M = 4.60$) and urban school context ($M = 4.13$).

Analysis of data indicated that teachers in suburban schools rated principals higher on their perception of the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” at a higher level than did teachers in urban schools. Although there was a statistically significant difference, a Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.6$) indicated a moderate practical difference. Table 19 illustrates results of the Scheffe’ post hoc analysis.

Table 19

ANOVA with Scheffe' Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and School Context

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions	School Context	School Context	Std. Error	Sig.
Functions of Dimension 1				
Define the Mission				
Frames School Goals	Rural	Suburban	0.14539	0.75
		Urban	0.15506	0.07
	Suburban	Rural	0.14539	0.75
		Urban	0.14148	0.00*
	Urban	Rural	0.15506	0.07
		Suburban	0.14148	0.00*

* $p < .05$

Years Teaching Under Current Principal and Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership Functions

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of years teaching under current principal and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions. The groups according to years teaching under current principal were (a) one year, (b) two to four years, (c) five to nine years, and (d) 10 or more years. The ten subscales of instructional leadership were analyzed to investigate the degree to which principal' ratings of instructional leadership varied according to years teaching under current principal. Descriptive statistics related to years teaching under current principal are listed in Table 9. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 20.

Table 20

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Years Teaching Under Current Principal

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions			Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig
		df			
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>					
Frames School Goals	Between Groups	3	3.770	6.04	0.00*
	Within Groups	178	0.624		
	Total	181			
Communicates School Goals	Between Groups	3	3.673	3.96	0.01*
	Within Groups	178	0.927		
	Total	181			
<i>II. Manages the Instructional Program</i>					
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Between Groups	3	1.775	2.39	0.07
	Within Groups	178	0.742		
	Total	181			
Coordinates Curriculum	Between Groups	3	2.403	2.12	0.10
	Within Groups	178	1.133		
	Total	181			
Monitors Student Progress	Between Groups	3	1.054	0.884	0.45
	Within Groups	178	1.192		
	Total	181			
<i>III. Develops the Learning Climate</i>					
Protects Instructional Time	Between Groups	3	2.447	2.08	0.11
	Within Groups	178	1.177		
	Total	181			
Maintains High Visibility	Between Groups	3	0.432	0.289	0.83
	Within Groups	178	1.494		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Between Groups	3	3.978	2.61	0.05
	Within Groups	178	1.522		
	Total	181			

Promotes Professional Development	Between Groups	3	2.913	3.94	0.10
	Within Groups	178	0.740		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Learning	Between Groups	3	2.013	1.89	0.13
	Within Groups	178	1.068		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each subscale of principal instructional leadership resulted in findings of a statistically significant difference in the perceived principal instructional leadership subscale function of “frames school goals” [$F(3, 178) = 6.04, p = 0.00$] and the subscale function of “communicates school goals” [$F(3, 178) = 3.96, p = 0.01$]. A Scheffe’ post hoc was conducted and found a statistically significant difference on the principal instructional leadership subscale function of “frames the school goals” and between the mean of one year teaching under current principal ($M = 4.80$) and the mean of two to four years of teaching under the current principal ($M = 4.27$). Data analysis indicated that teachers who had been teaching under their current for one year rated their principal higher on the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” than did teachers who had taught under their principal between two to four years.

A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.00$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “frames school goals” and between the mean of one year teaching under the current principal ($M = 4.80$) and five to nine years teaching under the current principal ($M = 4.19$). Data analysis indicated that teachers who had taught under their current principal for one year rated their principals higher on the instructional leadership function of “frames school goals” than teachers who had taught under their current principal for five to nine years.

A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.01$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” and between one year teaching under current principal ($M = 4.50$) and five to nine years of teaching under current principal ($M = 3.74$). The analysis of data indicated that teachers who had taught under their current principal for one year rated their principal higher on the instructional leadership function of “communicates school goals” than teachers who had taught under their current principal between five to nine years. A Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.9$) indicated a large practical difference.

There was a statistically significant difference between one year teaching under current principal and two to four years teaching under current principal on the subscale function of “frames school goals.” A Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.9$) indicated a large practical difference. There was a statistically significant difference between one year under current principal and five to nine years under current principal on the subscale function of “frames school goals.” A Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.8$) indicated a large practical difference. A statistically significant difference was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” and between one year under current principal and five to nine years under current principal. A Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.8$) indicated a large practical difference. Table 21 illustrates results of the Scheffe’ post hoc analysis.

Table 21

ANOVA with Scheffe' Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Years Teaching Under Current Principal

Instructional Leadership Dimensions (Dependent Variable)	Years Teaching Under Current Principal	Years Teaching Under Current Principal	Std. Error	Sig.
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>				
Frames School Goals	1 year	2 -4 years	0.14432	0.01*
		5-9 years	0.19315	0.02*
		10 or more years	0.22563	0.98
	2-4 years	1 year	0.14432	0.01*
		5-9 years	0.17251	0.97
		10 or more years	0.20823	0.22
	5-9 years	1 year	0.19315	0.02*
		2-4 years	0.17251	0.97
		10 or more years	0.24462	0.21
	10 or more years	1 year	0.22563	0.98
		2-4 years	0.20823	0.22
		5-9 years	0.24462	0.21
Communicates School Goals	1 year	2 -4 years	0.17591	0.08
		5-9 years	0.23542	0.02*
		10 or more years	0.27501	0.82
	2-4 years	1 year	0.17591	0.08
		5-9 years	0.21027	0.56
		10 or more years	0.25381	0.90
	5-9 years	1 year	0.23542	0.02*
		2-4 years	0.21027	0.56
		10 or more years	0.29816	0.43
	10 or more years	1 year	0.27501	0.82
		2-4 years	0.25381	0.90
		5-9 years	0.29816	0.43

* $p < 0.05$

Years of Teaching Experience and Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership Functions

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent years of teaching experience and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions. The groups according to years of teaching experience were (a) 1-4 years, (b) 5-9 years, (c) 10-15 years, and (d) more than 15 years. The ten subscales of instructional leadership were analyzed to investigate the degree to which principal' ratings of instructional leadership varied according to teachers' years of experience. Descriptive statistics related to teachers' years of experience are listed in Table 10. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 22.

Table 22

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Years of Teaching Experience

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions		<i>df</i>	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i> Frames School Goals	Between Groups	3	0.604	0.892	0.45
	Within Groups	178	0.678		
	Total	181			
Communicates School Goals	Between Groups	3	4.190	4.561	0.00*
	Within Groups	178	0.919		
	Total	181			

II. Manages the Instructional Program

Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Between Groups	3	1.037	1.374	0.25
	Within Groups	178	0.754		
	Total	181			
Coordinates Curriculum	Between Groups	3	2.598	2.299	0.08
	Within Groups	178	1.130		
	Total	181			
Monitors Student Progress	Between Groups	3	1.867	0.884	0.45
	Within Groups	178	1.178		
	Total	181			

III. Develops the Learning Climate

Protects Instructional Time	Between Groups	3	2.057	1.74	0.16
	Within Groups	178	1.184		
	Total	181			
Maintains High Visibility	Between Groups	3	1.578	1.070	0.36
	Within Groups	178	1.475		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Between Groups	3	3.268	2.131	0.10
	Within Groups	178	1.534		
	Total	181			
Promotes Professional Development	Between Groups	3	0.931	1.205	0.31
	Within Groups	178	0.773		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Learning	Between Groups	3	2.668	1.89	0.06
	Within Groups	178	1.057		
	Total	181			

* $p < 0.05$

Analysis of each subscale of principal instructional leadership resulted in findings of a statistically significant difference in the perceived principal instructional leadership subscale of “communicates school goal” [$F(3, 178) = 4.561, p = 0.00$]. A Scheffe’ post hoc was conducted and found the statistically significant difference to on the principal

instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” and between the means of one to four years of experience ($M = 4.61$) and five to nine years of experience ($M = 3.76$). Data analysis indicated that teachers with one to four years of experience rated their principals higher on the leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” than teachers with five to nine years of experience. A Cohen’s d measure of effect size ($d = 0.9$) indicated a large practical difference. Table 23 illustrates results of the Scheffe’ post hoc analysis.

Table 23

ANOVA with Scheffe’ Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Years of Teaching Experience

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions (Dependent Variable)	Years Experience (Teachers)	Years Experience (Teachers)	Std. Error	Sig.
<i>I. Define the Mission</i>				
Communicates School Goals	1-4 years	5-9 years	0.24226	0.007*
		10-15 years	0.24568	0.431
		More than 15 yr	0.23254	0.347
	5-9 years	1-4 years	0.24225	0.007*
		10-15 years	0.19790	0.172
		More than 15 yr	0.18133	0.136
	10-15 years	1-4 years	0.24568	0.431
		5-9 years	0.19790	0.172
		More than 15 yr	0.18587	1.000
	More than 15 years	1-4 years	0.23254	0.347
		5-9 years	0.18133	0.136
		10-15 years	0.18587	1.000

* $p < 0.05$

Grade Level Teaching and Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Leadership Functions

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of grade level teaching and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions. The groups according to grade level teaching were (a) kindergarten, (b) first grade, (c) second grade, (d) third grade, (e) fourth grade, (f) fifth grade. The ten subscales of instructional leadership were analyzed to investigate the degree to which principal' ratings of instructional leadership varied according to grade level teaching. Descriptive statistics related to grade level teaching are listed in Table 11. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 24.

Table 24

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Instructional Leadership and Grade Level Teaching

Instructional Leadership Dimensions/Functions		<i>df</i>	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig
<i>I. Defines the Mission</i>					
Frames School Goals	Between Groups	5	0.960	1.436	0.21
	Within Groups	176	0.668		
	Total	181			
Communicates School Goals	Between Groups	5	0.871	0.893	0.49
	Within Groups	176	0.976		
	Total	181			
<i>II. Manages the Instructional Program</i>					
Supervises/Evaluates Instruction	Between Groups	5	0.179	0.231	0.95
	Within Groups	176	0.775		
	Total	181			
Coordinates Curriculum	Between Groups	5	0.282	0.239	0.95
	Within Groups	176	1.179		
	Total	181			

Monitors Student Progress	Between Groups	5	2.157	1.856	0.10
	Within Groups	176	1.162		
	Total	181			
<i>III. Develops the Learning Climate</i>					
Protects Instructional Time	Between Groups	5	1.078	0.897	0.48
	Within Groups	176	1.202		
	Total	181			
Maintains High Visibility	Between Groups	5	2.044	1.400	0.23
	Within Groups	176	1.461		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Teachers	Between Groups	5	1.770	1.137	0.34
	Within Groups	178	1.557		
	Total	181			
Promotes Professional Development	Between Groups	5	0.878	1.136	0.34
	Within Groups	176	0.773		
	Total	181			
Provides Incentives for Learning	Between Groups	5	1.183	1.095	0.37
	Within Groups	176	1.080		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each subscale of principal instructional leadership resulted in findings of no statistically significant difference in the perceived principal instructional leadership on any of the ten subscale functions and grade level teaching. As a result, a post hoc test was not conducted.

Null Hypothesis II: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Results of statistical analysis of Research Question IV indicated that there were statistically significant differences as well as practical differences between instructional leadership and (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context, (d) years teaching under current principal, and (e) years of teaching experience. There was a statistical significant difference ($p = 0.02$) between male and female principals on the instructional leadership function of “communicates school goals” and between male and female principals on the instructional leadership function of “maintains high visibility.” The effect size was moderate between gender of principal and the instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” and “maintains high visibility.” Male principals ($M = 4.44$) were rated at a higher level than female principals ($M = 4.04$) on the instructional leadership function of “communicates the school goals.” Male principals ($M = 4.46$) were rated at a higher level than female principals ($M = 4.18$) on the instructional leadership function of “maintains high visibility.”

On the instructional leadership subscale function of “protecting instructional time” and size of school, a statistically significant difference ($p = 0.03$) was found between the groups of less than 400 students ($M = 4.18$) and greater than 600 ($M = 3.63$) students with a moderate effect size ($d = 0.05$) for a practical difference. Statistical analysis indicated that teachers in schools with less than 400 students perceived principals “protects instructional time” at a higher level than teachers in larger schools. A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.00$) and moderate effect size ($d = 0.6$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “frames the school goals” and between suburban ($M = 4.60$) and urban school contexts ($M = 4.13$). Teachers in

suburban schools perceived principal instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” at a greater rate than did principals in urban schools.

A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.00$) and large effect size ($d = 0.9$) was found between the instructional leadership subscale function of “frames the school goals” and between one year ($M = 4.80$) and two to four years ($M = 4.27$) under current principal. A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.00$) and large effect size ($d = 0.8$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “frames the school goals” and between one year ($M = 4.50$) and five to nine years ($M = 3.74$) under current principal. Teachers with one year of experience observed the principal instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” at a greater level than teachers with two to four years of experience and five to nine years of experience. A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.01$) and large effect size ($d = 0.8$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates school goals” and between one year ($M = 4.50$) and five to nine years ($M = 3.74$) under current principal. Teachers with one year of teaching under their current principal perceived the principal instructional leadership practice of “communicates school goals” at a higher level than did teachers with five to nine years under their current principal. A statistically significant difference ($p = 0.01$) and large effect size ($d = 0.9$) was found on the instructional leadership subscale function of “communicates the school goals” and between one to four years ($M = 4.60$) and five to nine years ($M = 3.76$) of teaching experience. Teachers with one to four years of experience perceived the principal instructional leadership practice of “communicates the school goals” at a higher level than teachers with five to nine years of experience.

No significant differences were found between the subscale functions of instructional leadership and grade level teaching. As a result of the statistical analysis, Null Hypothesis II: *There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching*, was rejected.

Research Question 5

Research Question 5: Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching?

Gender of Principal, and Teachers' Perception of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment.

An independent samples t- test was used to analyze teachers' perceptions of the dimensions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment by gender of principal. The t-test was conducted to determine if teacher organizational commitment was perceived differently based on gender of principal.

Of the three dimensions, both female and male principals received the highest mean on the dimension of *affective* commitment ($M_{\text{female}} = 5.43$, $M_{\text{male}} = 6.27$). The lowest mean for both male and female principals was on the dimension of *continuance* commitment ($M_{\text{female}} = 4.79$, $M_{\text{male}} = 5.51$).

Data from the t-test analysis indicated that statistically significant differences in mean scores for male and female principals occurred in two of the three dimensions of

organizational commitment. On the dimension labeled *affective* commitment ($t = -2.93$, $p = 0.03$) for female principals ($M = 5.43$) and for male principals ($M = 6.27$). There was also a statistically significant difference in mean scores on the dimension labeled *continuance* commitment ($t = -2.11$, $p = 0.046$) for female principals ($M = 4.79$) and for male principals ($M = 5.51$). The t-test analysis indicated teachers' perception of *affective* organizational commitment is statistically significantly greater with male principals than with female principals. Teachers' perception of *continuance* commitment was also statistically significantly greater with male principals than with female principals based on the t-test analysis.

An analysis of the variance, accounted for by gender of the principal, resulted in a Cohen's d measure of a moderate effect size ($d = 0.6$) for the subscale of *affective* organizational commitment. Although there was a statistical significance between female and male principals on the subscale of teacher *affective* organizational commitment, the practical difference was moderate. An effect size measure on the statistical significance between female and male principals on the subscale of *continuance* organizational commitment indicated a Cohen's d of ($d = 0.3$) indicating a moderate practical difference. Table 25 summarizes the results of the independent samples t-test of perceived differences based on gender of principal and teacher perceptions of organizational commitment.

Table 25

Independent Samples t-Test of Perceived Differences Based on Gender of Principal and Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment Dimensions	<i>n</i>	M	SD	Teacher t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Affective Commitment						
Female	141	4.3	1.71	-2.93	180	0.003*
Male	41	6.27	1.20			
Continuance Commitment						
Female	141	4.79	1.94	-2.11	180	0.046*
Male	41	5.51	1.82			
Normative Commitment						
Female	141	5.22	1.76	-1.57	180	0.420
Male	41	5.70	1.72			

* $p < 0.05$ Note: N = 182

Size of School and Teachers' Perceptions of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of school size and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of the *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* dimensions of organizational commitment. The groups according to school size were (a) less than 400 students, (b) between 400 and 600 students, (c) greater than 600 students. The three dimensions of organizational commitment were analyzed to investigate the degree to which teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment varied according to school size. Descriptive statistics related to school size are listed in Table 7. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 26.

Table 26

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and Size of School

Organizational Commitment		Teacher			
Dimensions		<i>df</i>	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	2	3.363	1.248	0.289
	Within Groups	179	2.693		
	Total	181			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	2	0.358	0.095	0.909
	Within Groups	179	3.771		
	Total	181			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	2	2.643	0.853	0.428
	Within Groups	179	3.100		
	Total	181			

* $p < 0.05$

Analysis of each dimension of organizational commitment resulted differences in teacher perceptions of organizational commitment and school size. The differences between teachers' perceptions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment dimensions were not statistically significant. As a result, no post hoc test was conducted.

School Context and Teachers' Perceptions of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of school context and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of the *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* dimensions of organizational commitment. The groups according to school context were (a) rural, (b) suburban, and

(c) urban. The three dimensions of organizational commitment were analyzed to investigate the degree to which teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment varied according to school context. Descriptive statistics related to school context are listed in Table 8. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 27.

Table 27

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and School Context

Organizational Commitment Dimensions		<i>df</i>	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	2	1.642	0.605	0.547
	Within Groups	179	2.713		
	Total	181			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	2	1.106	0.294	0.746
	Within Groups	179	3.762		
	Total	181			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	2	8.460	2.787	0.064
	Within Groups	179	3.035		
	Total	181			

* $p < 0.05$

Analysis of each dimension of organizational commitment resulted differences in teacher perceptions of organizational commitment and school context. The differences between teachers' perceptions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment dimensions were not statistically significant. As a result, no post hoc test was conducted.

Years Teaching Under Current Principal and Teachers' Perceptions of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of years teaching under current principal and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of the *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* dimensions of organizational commitment. The groups according to school context were (a) one year, (b) two to four years, (c) five to nine years, and (d) 10 or more years. The three dimensions of organizational commitment were analyzed to investigate the degree to which teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment varied according to years teaching under current principal. Descriptive statistics related to years teaching under current principal are listed in Table 9. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 28.

Table 28

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and Years Teaching under Current Principal

Organizational Commitment Dimensions		df	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	3	10.278	3.994	0.009*
	Within Groups	178	2.573		
	Total	181			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	3	9.454	2.600	0.054
	Within Groups	178	3.636		
	Total	181			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	3	2.019	0.648	0.585
	Within Groups	178	3.113		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each dimension of organizational commitment resulted in findings of a statistically significant difference in teachers' perceived organizational commitment [F (3, 178) = 3.994, p = 0.009] on the dimension of *affective* organizational commitment. A Scheffe' post hoc test was conducted and found a statistically significant difference on the *affective* dimension of organizational commitment between the mean of one year teaching under current principal (M = 6.00) and the mean of five to nine years of teaching under the current principal (M = 4.89). Statistical analysis indicated that teachers perceive a greater level of *affective* commitment with one year of teaching under current principal than with five to nine years of teaching under current principal. A Cohen's *d* measure of effect size ($d = 0.7$) indicated a moderate practical difference. There was a statistically significant difference on the subscale of *affective* organizational commitment and between five to nine years of teaching under current principal (M = 4.89) and 10 or more years teaching under current principal (M = 6.35). Teachers with 10 or more years teaching under current principal perceived a higher level of *affective* commitment than teachers with five to nine years of teaching under current principal. A Cohen's *d* measure of effect size ($d = 0.3$) indicated a moderate practical difference. Table 29 illustrates Scheffe' post hoc results analysis.

Table 29

ANOVA with Scheffe' Post Hoc Multiple Comparisons of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and Years Teaching Under Current Principal

Organizational Commitment Levels (Dependent Variable)	Years Teaching Under Current Principal	Years Teaching Under Current Principal	Std. Error	Sig.
Affective Commitment	1 year	2 -4 years	0.29301	0.448
		5-9 years	0.39215	0.049*
		10 or more yr	0.45808	0.898
	2-4 years	1 year	0.29301	0.448
		5-9 years	0.35025	0.356
		10 or more yr	0.42276	0.279
	5-9 years	1 year	0.39215	0.049*
		2-4 years	0.35025	0.356
		10 or more yr	0.49664	0.037*
	10 or more years	1 year	0.45808	0.898
		2-4 years	0.42276	0.279
		5-9 years	0.49664	0.037*

* $p < .05$

Years of Teaching Experience and Teachers' Perceptions of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of years of teaching experience and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of the *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* dimensions of organizational commitment. The groups according to years of teaching experience were (a) 1-4 years, (b) 5-9 years, (c) 10-15 years, and (d) more than 15 years. The three dimensions of organizational commitment were analyzed to investigate the degree to which teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment varied according to years of

teaching experience. Descriptive statistics related to years of teaching experience are listed in Table 10. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 30.

Table 30

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and Years of Experience

Organizational Commitment Dimensions		<i>df</i>	Teacher Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	3	3.326	1.236	0.298
	Within Groups	178	2.690		
	Total	181			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	3	4.681	1.259	0.290
	Within Groups	178	3.717		
	Total	181			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	3	3.683	1.194	0.314
	Within Groups	178	3.085		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each dimension of organizational commitment resulted differences in teacher perceptions of organizational commitment and school context. The differences between teachers' perceptions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment dimensions were not statistically significant. As a result, no post hoc test was conducted.

Grade Level Teaching and Teachers' Perceptions of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the difference between the independent variable of grade level teaching and the dependent variable of teachers' perceptions of the *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* dimensions of organizational

commitment. The groups according to grade level teaching were (a) kindergarten (b) first grade, (c) second grade, (d) third grade, (e) fourth grade, and (f) fifth grade. The three dimensions of organizational commitment were analyzed to investigate the degree to which teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment varied according to grade level teaching. Descriptive statistics related to grade level teaching are listed in Table 11. The results of the one-way ANOVA are listed in Table 31.

Table 31

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Teacher Perceptions of Organizational Commitment and Grade Level Teaching

Organizational Commitment Dimensions			Teacher		
		<i>df</i>	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Affective Commitment	Between Groups	5	1.873	0.688	0.634
	Within Groups	176	2.724		
	Total	181			
Continuance Commitment	Between Groups	5	3.073	0.819	0.537
	Within Groups	176	3.752		
	Total	181			
Normative Commitment	Between Groups	5	1.664	2.787	0.753
	Within Groups	176	3.136		
	Total	181			

* $p < .05$

Analysis of each dimension of organizational commitment resulted differences in teacher perceptions of organizational commitment and grade level teaching. The differences between teachers' perceptions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment dimensions were not statistically significant. As a result, no post hoc test was conducted.

Null Hypotheses 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching.

Results of statistical analysis of Research Question V indicated that there was a statistically significant difference as well as practical difference between the dependent variables of *continuance* and *affective* dimensions of organizational commitment and the independent variable of gender of principal. The effect size was moderate between gender of principal and the organizational commitment dimension of *affective* commitment. Teachers' perceived a higher level of *affective* commitment with their principal was male. The effect size was moderate between gender of principal and the organizational commitment dimension of *continuance* commitment. Teachers' perceived a higher level of *continuance* commitment when their principal was male.

There was a statistically significant difference as well as a practical difference between organizational commitment and years teaching under current principal. Statistical analysis of the independent variable of years teaching under current principal and the dependent variable of the organizational commitment dimension of *affective* commitment indicated a statistically significant difference between the groups of one year teaching under current principal and five to nine years teaching under current principal and between five to nine years under current principal and 10 or more years teaching under current principal. Teachers with one year of teaching under current principal perceived a higher level of *affective* commitment than teachers with five to nine years of teaching under current principal. A moderate effect size indicated a practical

difference. Teachers with 10 or more years of teaching under current principal perceived a higher level of *affective* commitment than teachers with five to nine years teaching under current principal. A moderate effect size indicated a practical difference

Differences were found between the dependent variables of organizational commitment dimensions *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* commitment and the independent variables of (a) size of school, (b) school context, (c) years of teaching experience, and (d) grade level teaching. However, the differences were not statistically significant. As a result of the statistical analysis, Null Hypothesis 3: *There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, or (f) grade level teaching*, was rejected.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF STUDY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the implications of the findings of this study. The findings, related to the analysis of data, will be discussed. Conclusions based on the findings of this study will also be presented. Limitations of the study as well as implications for practice will be identified, and areas of future research related to the research topic will be recommended. The research questions used for this study were:

I. How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

II. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?

III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by teachers' by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

Purpose of the Study

This study was conducted to determine whether or not a statistically significant relationship exists between the instructional leadership practices of principals and the organizational commitment of teachers, as perceived by teachers. Data were also collected to determine if there was a difference in teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership practices and levels of organizational commitment based on gender of principal, size of school, school context (urban suburban, rural), years teaching under current principal, years of teaching experience, or grade level teaching.

Elementary teachers in grades K-5 from two regions in a southern state were participants in this study. Through Survey Monkey, the combined Principal Instructional Management Scale (Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger & Murphy 1985) and the Three Component Employee Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al. 1993), and demographic questions was distributed to school principals. Principals distributed the survey to regular education classroom teachers in grades K-5 in their school. Survey data were collected through Survey Monkey over a six-week period.

A correlational research design was used to analyze teacher perceptions of principal instructional management leadership functions as measured by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, 1983; 1990; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), and teacher organizational commitment as measured by the Three Component

Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al. 1993). A correlational research design was also used to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between principal instructional leadership and teacher organizational commitment. A descriptive/comparative research design was used to compare teachers' perception of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment and teachers' perception of principal instructional leadership on ten subscale functions. Teachers' perceptions of *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* commitment and teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership functions were compared by (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural) (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

There were 87 building level principals asked to participate in the study by sending the surveys to K-5 teachers in their school. Of the 87 principals asked to participate, 44 principals participated in the study. The survey was sent by building level principals to 259 teachers in kindergarten through fifth grade full time classroom teachers. Of the 259 teachers asked to participate in the study, 188 teachers opened the survey. Of the 188 teachers who opened the survey, 182 agreed to participate and completed the survey.

Descriptive data were analyzed and presented in tables and accompanying narrative. The mean and standard deviation were computed by calculating total scores and sub-scores on the combined Principal Instructional Management Scale, and the Three Component Employee Commitment Scale. Inferential statistical comparisons were used to test each null hypothesis and address each research question. A Pearson

Product-Moment Correlation (Pearson r) was conducted to determine if a relationship existed between principal instructional leadership functions and teacher organizational commitment as perceived by teachers in the study.

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare differences in organizational commitment of teachers and principal instructional leadership dimension scores, as perceived by teachers. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare differences in perception of instructional leadership functions and teacher organizational commitment levels and gender of principal. An ANOVA was also conducted to compare (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience, and (e) grade level teaching to teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions and levels of organizational commitment.

The following research questions and null hypotheses, regarding teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership functions and teacher' perceptions of organizational commitment, were used to guide this study:

I. How do participating teachers perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

II. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?

III. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale.

IV. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching.

Null Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching.

V. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by teachers' by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching.

Null Hypothesis 3: There will be no differences in teachers' perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, (f) grade level teaching.

Summary of Research Findings

In Chapter 4, data analysis was reported to test each null hypothesis as it applied to principal instructional leadership and teachers' organizational commitment as perceived by teachers. In addition, descriptive statistics were presented in tables to

provide information regarding (a) gender of principal, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching. The mean scores for principal instructional leadership domains and functions and levels of teacher organizational commitment were presented in tables.

The major findings of this study are as follows:

1. How do participating teacher perceive principals' instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS?

The highest means of principal instructional leadership practices as perceived by teachers were on the functions of "frames the school goals" (M=4.20) and "communicates school goals" (M=4.03). The lowest mean of principal instructional leadership practice was on "maintains high visibility" (M=3.08).

2. How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the TCM scale of organizational commitment?

Results from the statistical analysis of descriptive statistics indicated that the mean for teachers' perception of *affective* organizational commitment was the highest (M=5.44). The mean for *normative* organizational commitment was slightly lower (M=5.29). *Continuance* organizational commitment had the lowest reported mean (M=4.17).

3. To what extent is there a relationship between teachers' perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

The greatest statistically positive significant correlations were on levels of *affective* and *normative* organizational commitment and between teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership on the functions of (a) frames the school goals, (b) supervises/evaluates instruction, (c) protects instructional time, and (d) promotes professional development. The greatest statistically significant correlations between *continuance* organizational commitment and perceived instructional leadership were on the functions of (a) maintaining high visibility and (b) communicating school goals. The correlation between *affective* commitment and "coordinates the curriculum," and "monitors student progress" was negative.

4. Are there differences in teachers' perceptions of principal instructional leadership practices by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching.

Both female and male principals were observed the most often practicing the instructional leadership function of "frames the school goals." There was a statistically significant difference on the instructional leadership function of "protects instructional time" and between schools with less than 400 students ($M=4.18$) and schools with greater than 600 students ($M=3.63$). There was a statistically significant difference on the instructional leadership function of "frames the school goals" and between suburban schools ($M=4.60$) and urban schools ($M=4.13$). A statistically significant difference was found on the instructional leadership function of "frames the school goals" and between one year ($M=4.80$) and two to four years ($M=4.27$) teaching under current principal, between one year ($M=4.80$) and five to nine years ($M=4.19$) teaching under current

principal as well as between “communicates school goals” and one year (M=4.50) and five to nine years (M=3.74). A statistically significant difference was found on the instructional leadership function of “communicates school goals” and between “one to four years of teaching experience” (M=4.61) and “five to nine years of teaching experience” (M=3.76). There was no statistical significant relationship found between “grade level teaching” and teachers’ perceptions of instructional leadership practices.

5. Are there differences between teachers’ perceptions of teachers’ perceptions of organizational commitment by (a) gender, (b) size of school, (c) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (d) years teaching under current principal, (e) years of teaching experience, and (f) grade level teaching?

There was a statistically significant difference on the *affective* level of organizational commitment between male principals (M=6.27) and female principals (M=5.43), and on the *continuance* level of organizational commitment between male principals (M=5.57) and female principals (M=4.79). A statistically significant difference was found between *affective* organizational commitment and the means of “one year teaching under current principal” (M=6.00), and the mean of “five to nine years teaching under current principal” (M=4.89) as well as between 10 or more years (M=6.35) and five to nine years (M=4.89). There were no statistically significant differences found between *affective*, *continuance*, or *normative* organizational commitment and (a) size of school, (b) school context, (c) years of teaching experience, or (d) grade level teaching.

There were other interesting findings that should be noted. All means were above 3.0 on a 5.0 scale for observed instructional leadership functions. Teachers rated

principals in the “almost always” range for “framing school goals,” “communicating school goals,” “coordinating the curriculum,” and “promoting professional development.” All means for perceived organizational commitment were above 4.0 on a scale of 1-7. The statistically significant correlations were negative between *affective* commitment and the instructional leadership functions of “coordinates the curriculum,” and “monitors student progress,” but were statistically and significantly positive on all other functions of instructional leadership. There were statistically and significantly positive correlations between affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment and the instructional leadership functions of “communicates school goals,” “maintains high visibility,” “promotes professional development,” and “provides incentives for learning.” The mean for male principals was higher than the mean for female principals on the perceived instructional leadership functions of “frames the school goals,” “communicates school goals,” “monitors student progress,” “and maintains high visibility,” but was only statistically significant on the instructional leadership dimensions of “communicates school goals” and “maintains high visibility.” Teachers with male principals reported greater *affective* and *continuance* commitment than with female principals.

Discussion of Research Findings

Data from descriptive statistics provided information on the participants that were a part of this study and descriptions of the organizational context. The gender of the majority of the principals in the study was reported as female. The largest percentage of schools in the study was reported to be suburban, followed by urban, then rural. Schools with an enrollment of between 400 and 600 students had the higher percentage followed

by the categories of “less than 400 students” and “greater than 600 students.” The majority of teachers had worked under their current principal between one to five years. The largest percentage pertaining to teachers’ years of experience was in the category of “more than 15 years,” followed by the category of “five to nine years,” then “10-15 years,” with the lowest category reported “one to four years.” The numbers of teachers per grade level were close in distribution with kindergarten teachers having the largest percentage followed by fifth grade, third grade, second grade, first grade, and fourth grade.

To analyze research Question I: How do participating teachers perceive principals’ instructional leadership practices as defined by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS); the means were computed through descriptive statistical analysis and were reported on a scale of 1-5 based on the frequency of observed functions. The principal instructional leadership functions of (a) framing the school goals, (b) communicating the school goals, (c) coordinating the curriculum, and (d) promoting professional development were observed in the “almost always” range.

The principal instructional leadership functions of (a) supervising and evaluating instruction, (b) monitoring student progress, (c) protecting instructional time, (d) maintaining high visibility, (e) providing incentives for teaching, and (f) providing incentives for learning were observed in the “frequently range.” The highest mean of the three instructional leadership dimensions was on the dimension of “defining the school mission.” The instructional leadership functions in the dimension of “defining the school mission” are (a) framing school goals and (b) communicating school goals. The lowest mean was on the dimension of “developing the school program/learning climate” and on

the instructional leadership function of “maintains high visibility.” The total mean of the three instructional leadership dimensions and ten functions of instructional leadership was in the above average range.

To analyze research Question II: How do participating teachers perceive their organizational commitment as defined by the Three Component Model (TCM) of organizational commitment; the means were computed through descriptive statistical analysis and were reported based on a scale of 1-7 based on the perception of levels of affective, continuance, or normative organizational commitment. The means for the three levels of organizational commitment were above 4.0 with *affective* commitment having the highest mean (M=5.44), followed by *normative* commitment (M=5.29), and *continuance* commitment (M=4.17). The scores of *affective* and *normative* commitment were reported to be between the “slightly agree” and “agree” range. *Continuance* commitment scores were reported in the range of “undecided” or “slightly agree” range.

Research Question III: To what extent is there a relationship between teachers’ perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale?

Null Hypothesis 1: There will be no relationship between teachers’ perception of instructional leadership practices as defined by the PIMRS, and their perception of organizational commitment as defined by the TCM commitment scale

For Null Hypothesis 1, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson r) was conducted to analyze the data, and to determine if there was a statistically significant correlation between principal instructional leadership dimensions and

functions and *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* levels of teacher organizational commitment.

There were weak to moderate positive correlations on functions of instructional leadership and *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* organizational commitment, with the exception of negative statistically significant correlations between *affective* organizational commitment and the instructional leadership functions of “coordinating the curriculum” and “monitoring student progress.” There were statistically significant relationships and moderate correlations with *affective* commitment on the instructional leadership dimensions of “defines the school mission” and “manages the instructional program,” and on the instructional leadership functions of (a) frames the school goals, (b) promotes professional development, and (c) supervises /evaluates instruction.

There were statistically significant relationships and weak correlations between *affective* organizational commitment on the instructional leadership dimension of “develops the learning climate” and the instructional leadership functions of (a) communicating school goals, (b) protects instructional time, (c) maintains high visibility, (d) provides incentives for teachers, (f) provides incentives for learning. There were statistically significant relationships and weak negative correlations between *affective* commitment and the instructional leadership functions of (a) coordinates the curriculum and (b) monitors student progress. There were statistically significant relationships and weak correlations between *normative* organizational commitment and all ten instructional leadership functions.

There was a statistically significant relationship and weak correlation between *continuance* organizational commitment and the instructional leadership functions of

(a) communicating school goals, (b) monitoring student progress, (a) maintains high visibility, (c) promotes professional development, and (d) provides incentives for learning.

A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was conducted to determine if there was a relationship between perceived instructional leadership of principals and organizational commitment of teachers in K-5 elementary schools. After data analysis, there were statistically significant correlations found ($p < 0.05$) between instructional leadership functions and *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative* levels of organizational commitment. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

For Null Hypothesis 2, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between teachers' perception of principal instructional leadership functions and (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience, and (e) grade level teaching. An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between the gender of the principal and teachers' perception of principal instructional leadership dimensions and functions.

Results of the independent samples t-test indicated that there were statistically significant differences and moderate practical differences on the instructional leadership dimensions of (a) communicate school goals and (b) maintains high visibility and gender of principal. The mean for male principals was 4.44 and was higher on the instructional leadership function of "communicating school goals," than the mean for female principals which was 4.04. The mean for male principals was 4.05 on the instructional

leadership function of “maintains high visibility” and was higher than the mean for female principals which was 3.30. Though not statistically significant, the means for male principals were higher than females on the remaining instructional leadership functions with the exception of (a) protects instructional time and (b) coordinates the curriculum.

Of the ten instructional leadership functions, there was no statistically significant difference with “size of school,” except on the function of “protects instructional time.” A Scheffe’ post hoc analysis indicated the difference to be between schools with “less than 400 students” ($M = 4.18$) and schools with “greater than 600 students” ($M = 3.63$).

A statistically significant difference was found between the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” and “school context.” A Scheffe’ post hoc analysis indicated the difference was between “suburban schools” (Mean = 4.60) and “urban schools” ($M = 4.13$).

There was a statistically significant difference between the instructional leadership dimension of “defines the mission” and “years teaching under current principal.” The Scheffe’ post hoc indicated the differences was between the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” and “one year teaching under current principal” ($M = 4.80$) and “two to four years teaching under current principal” ($M = 4.27$); “frames the school goals” and “one year teaching under current principal” ($M = 4.80$) and “five to nine years teaching under current principal” (4.19); “communicates school goals” and “one year teaching under current principal” ($M = 4.50$) and “five to nine years teaching under current principal” ($M = 3.74$).

Of the ten instructional leadership functions, “communicates school goals” was found to have a statistically significant difference with “years of teaching experience.” A Scheffe’ post hoc analysis indicated the difference was between “one to four years of teaching experience” ($M = 4.61$) and “five to nine years of teaching experience” ($M=3.76$). There were no statistically significant differences between instructional leadership functions and grade level teaching.

An ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the functions of instructional leadership and (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, and (d) years of experience. An independent samples t-test found statistically significant differences between gender of principal and functions of instructional leadership. As a result, Null Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

For Null Hypothesis 3, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between teachers’ *affective*, *continuance*, *normative* organizational commitment and (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience, and (e) grade level teaching. An independent samples t-test was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between the gender of the principal and teachers’ perception *affective*, *continuance*, and *normative*, organizational commitment.

Results of the independent samples t-test indicated a statistically significant difference between the gender of the principal and *affective* organizational commitment and *continuance* organizational commitment. Teachers’ perceptions of *affective*

organizational commitment were higher when males were their principal ($M = 6.27$) than when females were principals ($M=5.43$). Teachers' perceptions of *continuance* organizational commitment were greater when males were their principal ($M = 5.51$) than when female were their principal ($M = 4.79$). There was no significant correlation between gender of principal and *normative* organizational commitment of teachers.

An ANOVA was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between years teaching under current principal and levels of organizational commitment. A statistically significant difference was indicated between *affective* organizational commitment and "one year teaching under current principal" ($M = 6.00$) and "five to nine years teaching under current principal" ($M = 4.89$). A statistically significant difference was also indicated between "five to nine years of teaching under current principal" ($M = 4.89$) and "10 or more years teaching under current principal" ($M = 6.35$) and *affective* organizational commitment.

Statistical analysis indicated there was no statistically significant difference between *affective*, *normative*, and *continuance* organizational commitment of teachers and (a) size of school, (b) school context, (c) grade level teaching, or (d) years of teaching experience.

An ANOVA was conducted to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between organizational commitment of teachers and (a) size of school, (b) school context (urban, suburban, rural), (c) years teaching under current principal, (d) years of teaching experience and (e) grade level teaching. There were statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between *affective* organizational commitment of teachers and years teaching under current principal. Results from an independent

samples t-test indicated there were statistically significant differences between gender of principal and *affective* organizational commitment of teachers and gender of principal and *continuance* organizational commitment of teachers. As a result of statistical analysis, Null Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Discussion of Findings and Related Literature

Organizational commitment is the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and organizational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Research by Eisenberger et al., (1990) and Levinson (1965) indicated that employees perceive and attribute actions of the agents of the organization as organizational intentions. Previous research indicates that leadership has been linked to employees' organizational commitment (Devos et al., 2013; Firestone & Roseblum, 1988; Graham et al., 2014; Hulpia et al., 2011; Koh et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006; Ostroff, 1992; Park, 2005; Somech & Bogler, 2002). Research has also indicated that principals indirectly impact student and school outcomes through their influence on teacher motivation, commitment, and supportive working conditions (Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2004).

In the current study, male principals were perceived to communicate school goals more often than female principals. Teachers also reported a greater level of *affective* and *continuance* organizational commitment when their principals were male. Research from Hallinger et al., (2016), Mathieu and Zajac (1990), and Meyer and Allen (1997) does not offer much support for this finding. Hallinger et al. (2016) found a small but statistically significant effect of gender on instructional leadership. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1997) found gender and *affective* commitment not significantly related.

Female principals were more likely to participate in instructional leadership functions than male principals (Hallinger et al., 2016). This finding by Hallinger et al. (2016) indicates that female principals are more involved with instructional leadership. When male principals engage in instructional leadership practices, the occurrence of those practices may be more likely to be noticed. This may explain why, in the current study, male principals were perceived to practice some instructional leadership functions at a higher rate than female principals.

Teachers with “one year of teaching under their current principal” reported observing principals who “frames the school goals” and “communicate the school goals” more often than teachers with more years of teaching under their current principal. However, Cohen (1996), Mathieu and Zajac (1990), and Meyer et al. (2002) reported a positive relationship between tenure in an organization and levels of organizational commitment. Time spent under supervisor was found to be an antecedent of organizational commitment (Ang et al., 2003; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Principals in this study may spend more time with new teachers than teachers with more experience which would explain this finding. This finding also related to the perception of greater *affective* commitment of teachers which was reported by teachers with “one year of teaching under current principal” and teachers with “more than ten years of teaching under their current principal.”

Teachers who reported “one to four years of teaching experience” also reported that their principals “communicate school goals” more often than teachers with more years of experience. While years of experience was not statistically related to any level of organizational commitment in the current study, the instructional leadership function

of “communicates school goals” was statistically related to all levels of organizational commitment. This finding is supported by research from Johnson and Birkeland (2003) who found that teachers with one to four years of experience reported that their principals articulated goals related to high expectations for teaching and learning which influenced their decision to stay at their schools. Devos et al. (2013) reported that teachers with more years of experience felt less committed to their schools than teachers with fewer years of experience. In particular, as teachers near retirement age it becomes increasingly difficult to remain committed to their schools (Devos et al., 2013); however, the results of this study indicate that goal congruency between teachers and their principals is important to organizational commitment regardless of years of experience.

Principals in suburban schools were reported to “frame the school goals” at a higher incidence than principals in urban or rural schools. Day et al. (2016) and Grissom (2011) found that rural and urban schools were less likely than suburban schools to retain teachers indicating lower levels of organizational commitment. Employees who observe the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” may have higher levels of *affective* organizational commitment and are more likely to stay with their current organization (Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991). In this study, school context was not related to levels of organizational commitment, but the communication of school goals was related to all levels of organizational commitment. This finding indicates that when principals frame and articulate school goals, school context may not have a high level of importance to teachers.

Hallinger and Heck (1996) found that contextual variables such as community type, teacher experience and school size may create a contingent base for leadership. The

results of research by Hallinger and Heck (1996) may explain differences in findings among various studies on instructional leadership. Other research studies have found the relationship of context variables and organizational commitment to be relatively small (Devos et al., 2013; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Park, 2005).

Based on the findings of this study, teachers' perceived to experience *affective*, *normative*, and *continuance* commitment to their schools when their principals "communicate school goals." In this study, principals were reported by teachers to frame and communicate school goals more often than the other functions of instructional leadership. Research by Santikaya and Erdogan (2016) supported this finding. Results of the analysis by Santikaya and Erdogan indicated that principals in their study displayed instructional leadership more often in the dimensions of setting and communicating goals. Hallinger (2005), Hallinger and Heck (1996), Hallinger & Murphy (1985), and Hallinger & Wang (2015), also reported vision and goals as the most significant path through which leadership affects learning. Research by Robinson et al., (2008) identified vision and goals as second only to professional learning as a path to which leadership affects learning. Salo et al., (2015) identified clear goals as a successful element of instructional leadership practices that influenced teacher efficacy. Vision and goals create organizational impact by inspiring people to commit their efforts toward the achievement of collective organizational goals (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Serin and Buloc (2012) conducted a study of elementary teachers and principals and used a Pearson *r* correlational analysis to determine which principal instructional leadership behaviors had the highest correlation with organizational commitment of teachers. Serin and Buloc (2012) found the highest correlation ($r = 0.52$, $p < 0.01$) in their study of principal

leadership behaviors positively related to organizational commitment was sharing school goals. A similar moderate correlation was found in the current study ($r = 0.35, p < 0.05$). Previous research has also supported the connection between organizational commitment and goal congruency of employee and supervisor.

In the current study, teachers perceived *affective* organizational commitment when principals were reported to “supervise and evaluate instruction” and “protect instructional time.” This finding is supported by research from Byrk et al. (2010) Grissom and Loeb (2011), Johnson and Birkeland, (2003), and Rosenholtz and Simpson (1990) who found organizational commitment related to protected instructional time has influence over teaching and learning. Teachers in small schools observed principals in their schools on instructional leadership functions of “protects instructional time” more often than principals in large schools. Research by Ang et al., (2003), and Mathieu and Zajac, (1990) reported that size of the organization could be antecedents of organizational commitment. In the current study, there was no significant relationship between organizational commitment and school size. However, there was a statistically significant relationship between protecting instructional time and affective organizational commitment. This finding indicates that protecting instructional time is important to teachers and improves affective organizational commitment regardless of the size of the school.

When teachers in the current study observed the instructional leadership function of “coordinates the curriculum,” and monitors student progress,” *affective* levels of organizational commitment decreased. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1997) found that personal competence was an antecedent to *affective* commitment. This

could explain why *affective* commitment in the current study decreased when the instructional leadership functions involving coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress were observed. When principals are more involved in these areas, teachers may feel less personal competence or influence in coordination of curriculum and student progress monitoring. However, affective commitment was related to “supervises and evaluates instruction” which indicates teachers are more committed to a school when there is principal support through supervision and evaluation of instruction. The level of *affective* organizational commitment was not related to grade level teaching.

The level of *normative* organizational commitment is defined as loyalty to the organization or felt moral obligation to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1987). In the current study, teachers perceived *normative* organizational commitment at a lower level than *affective* commitment. Teachers perceived *continuance* organizational commitment at the lowest level of organizational commitment in this study. This analysis supports previous research by Dunhan et al., (1994) and Meyer and Allen (1997) who reported that *affective* organizational commitment scores should be the highest, followed by *normative* commitment, with *continuance* commitment receiving the lowest score.

Teachers, who perceived *normative* commitment in the current study, observed principal on the instructional leadership function of “frames the school goals” at a higher rate than other instructional leadership functions. This same finding occurred with *affective* commitment. Findings by Serin and Buloc (2012) supported this finding. Other instructional leadership functions that were related to perceptions of *normative* commitment were (a) supervising and evaluating instruction, (b) protecting instructional

time, and (c) providing professional development. The instructional leadership function of “coordinating the curriculum” was also reported to increase perceived *normative* commitment but was negatively related to *affective* commitment.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1987) found personal competence related to *affective* commitment which may explain why the observed principal instructional leadership function of coordinating the curriculum may be negatively related to *affective* commitment, but positively related to *normative* commitment. When principals are directly involved in coordinating the curriculum, teachers may feel more obligated or more loyalty to the organization leading to *normative* organizational commitment. Perception of *normative* commitment was not related to (a) gender of the principal, (b) years teaching under current principal, (c) years of teaching experience, (d) size of school, (e) school context, or (f) grade level teaching.

Continuance commitment is defined as the willingness of the employee to remain with the organization because of nontransferable investments. *Continuance* organizational commitment was perceived to be higher when principals were observed more often on the instructional leadership functions of “communicate school goals” and “maintain high visibility.” Other instructional leadership functions related to *continuance* commitment were “promoting professional development” and “providing incentives for learning.” When professional development is provided, teachers may perceive this as a valuable personal investment related to the profession, which may lead to greater *continuance* commitment to the school providing the professional development. Teachers may stay at a particular school to receive training that may lead to future job opportunities.

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) reported greater employee *continuance* commitment when there was a perception of lack of transferability of skills. If there is a lack of perceived job alternatives, teachers may perceive “providing incentives for student learning” as a method for increasing student achievement. Increases in student achievement may lead to increased salary levels based on value-added incentive scales.

In the current study, the instructional leadership function of “protects instructional time”, “frames the school goals,” “supervises/evaluates instruction,” “coordinates the curriculum,” and “protects instructional time” were statistically and significantly related to *affective* and *normative*, but not *continuance* organizational commitment. When principals develop school-wide policies that limit or protect intrusions on instructional time, provide professional learning opportunities, communicate school goals, teachers perceive greater principal support (Byrk et al, 2010; Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Continuance levels of organizational commitment should be lower when affective and normative commitment levels are higher indicating a greater attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1991).

There was a relationship between the gender of the principal and *continuance* organizational commitment. Teachers reported a higher level of *continuance* organizational commitment when their principals were male as they did with *affective* organizational commitment. The size of the school did not affect perceived *affective*, *normative*, or *continuance* organizational commitment. School context did not affect *affective*, *normative*, or *continuance* organizational commitment. Grade level teaching was not related to *affective*, *normative*, or *continuance* organizational commitment.

Years of teaching experience was not related to perceived *affective, normative, or continuance* organizational commitment of teachers in the current study. Previous research by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) does not support the finding related to tenure. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) found tenure was correlated positively with *affective, continuance, and normative* organizational commitment. However, “years teaching under the current principal” was statistically and significantly related to affective organizational commitment. Teachers with “one year teaching under current principal” and “more than ten years teaching under current principal” reported greater affective commitment. Previous research has also reported that tenure related to years working under a supervisor was related to affective organizational commitment (Ang et al., 2003; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Conclusions

Research has shown that school leadership indirectly affects students by creating working conditions that support teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; 2008; Portin et al., 2009). Instructional leadership is a focus on the alignment of principals’ and teachers’ instructional efforts while creating conditions that connect leadership and learning (Mitchell & Castle, 2005).

Effective principals are instrumental in attracting, supporting, and retaining high-quality teachers by supporting and sustaining school environments that positively affect school outcomes (Branch et al., 2013; Clotfelter, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2004). Retaining effective committed teachers is essential to building sustained and coordinated instructional programs aimed at building a strong organizational culture with continuous academic improvement (Johnson et al., 2012). Studies have provided evidence that

characteristics related to working conditions and administrative support are most predictive when determining reasons teachers stay at a school or leave a school (Borman & Downling, 2008; Boyd et al., 2005; Boyd et al., 2011; Hanushek, et al., 2004a; 2004b; Ingersoll, 2001; Ladd, 2011; Loeb et al., 2005; Scafidi, et al., 2007).

Research analyzing the outcomes or consequences of organizational commitment such as turnover, turnover intentions, and absenteeism, have indicated negative correlations with organizational commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Sollinger et al., 2008). Allen and Meyer (1990) concluded that one form of organizational commitment may be as useful as another. Meyer et al. (2002) reported all three levels of organizational commitment correlate negatively with turnover. Low levels of *continuance* commitment should not lead to turnover unless *affective* and *normative* levels of organizational commitment were low also.

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between instructional leadership functions of principals and levels of organizational commitment of elementary teachers as perceived by teachers. School leadership is second only to teachers when considering what impacts student outcomes (Leithwood, et al., 2004). Empirical research has indicated that leadership has a direct impact on organizational commitment of employees (Nguni et al., 2006; Park, 2005). Teachers' organizational commitment has been shown to be positively related to job satisfaction and alignment with the organizational goals (Dee et al., 2006; Sammons et al., 2007). Results from this study indicated that principals do impact organizational commitment of teachers though the practice of functions of instructional leadership, particularly through the framing and communication of a school mission and school goals.

Leithwood, et al. (2008) reported that principals affect teaching and learning through their influence on teacher motivation, teacher commitment, and school working conditions. Hallinger (2005) found that the most influential effect of instructional leadership on teaching and learning was through the principal's ability to shape and define the school mission, and to communicate and frame the schools' goals. Of particular interest here, the teachers in the current study rated principals the highest on the instructional leadership function of "communicates school goals."

In the current study, a relationship between perceived principal instructional leadership practices of principals and organizational commitment of teachers was found to exist. Previous research also indicates that supportive leadership has been linked to employees' organizational commitment (Devos et al., 2013; Firestone & Roseblum, 1988; Graham et al., 2014; Hulpia et al., 2011; Koh et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006; Ostroff, 1992; Park, 2005; Somech & Bogler, 2002). Supportive leadership functions and behaviors are the tenets of the instructional leadership model (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

In this study, *affective* organizational commitment was perceived more often by teachers, than *normative* or *continuance* organizational commitment. The level of *affective* organizational commitment is defined as the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and organizational goals (Meyer et al., 1984). Research has shown that when principal support, shared vision and common goals are in place, teachers are found to be collaborative, committed to their school, and take more responsibility for school improvement which ultimately has a

positive effect on student outcomes (Allensworth et al., 2009; Cochran-Smith et al., 2012; Leithwood et al., 2008; Leithwood et al., 2004; Meyer et al., 2002; Somech & Bogler, 2002).

Limitations

The first limitation is that this study was only related to regular education kindergarten through fifth grade teachers in elementary schools. The second limitation is that the results may not be generalizable to other grade levels or school levels. The third limitation is this study was conducted during a specific time period representing perceptions at that time.

Implications for Practice

Instructional leadership is a model for practice that targets specific functions principals can enact to improve teaching and learning outcomes (Hallinger, 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger & Wang, 2015). The positive associations found in this study and other studies, indicate that instructional leadership has valuable implications for practice. A paradigm exists between principal leadership and engagement and retention of teachers. Educational leadership training programs could lead aspiring principals through the development of behaviors and practices that encourage teacher commitment and retention to their future schools.

Beyond teacher retention, commitment of teachers to their schools may also have an impact on student achievement and other positive school outcomes related to school improvement, school culture and climate, and school and community relationships. The results from this study could provide information through professional development for

practicing principals, who are charged with creating working conditions that support teaching and learning, on what instructional leadership practices are effective in keeping teachers committed to their school.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study focused on organizational commitment of elementary teachers and instructional leadership of elementary principals. A replication of this study could be conducted in high schools or middle schools in future research. The teachers and principals in this study practiced in public school settings. Future research could focus on private schools and compare instructional leadership and organizational commitment in private schools to public schools, or charter schools. Principal perceptions of self-reported instructional leadership could be compared to teacher perceptions of instructional leadership and teacher commitment to their school in future studies.

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APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO USE PIMRS

Dr. Philip Hallinger
199/43 Sukhumvit Soi 8
Bangkok, 10110, Thailand
hallinger@gmail.com

September 13, 2017


Dear Mary Skelton:

As copyright holder and publisher, you have my permission as publisher to use the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* in your research study. In using the scale, you may make unlimited copies of any of the four forms of the PIMRS.

Please note the following conditions of use:

1. This authorization extends only to the use of the PIMRS for research purposes, not for general school district use of the instrument for evaluation or staff development purposes.
2. This is a single-use purchase for the author's graduate research, thereby requiring purchase of additional rights for use in any future research.
3. *The user agrees to send a soft copy (pdf) of the completed study and the raw data set in Excel or SPSS to the publisher upon completion of the research.*
4. The user has permission to make minor adaptations to scale as necessary for the research.
5. If the instrument is translated, the user will supply a copy of the translated version.

Sincerely,



Professor Philip Hallinger

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION TO USE TCM



April 5, 2018

Mary Skelton
Louisiana Tech University
305 Wisteria St.
Ruston, LA 71272, USA

Dear Ms. Skelton,

Thank you for utilizing the TCM survey in your student research project. Subject to all terms and conditions to which you acknowledged and agreed on **2017-03-30** before downloading the TCM survey, Western confirms that its intent is to provide the TCM survey non-commercially to you personally (with no right to assign, sublicense or convey to others), for this one time use, at no cost. In the event of any conflict in terms or ambiguity created now or in the future as a result of the existence of this letter and the aforementioned T&Cs, the T&Cs shall always control. This letter is NOT an amendment to the aforementioned T&Cs which you have accepted.

All the very best with your student research project!

Regards,

Jordan Flemming
Digital Marketing Manager
WORLDdiscoveries at Western University

APPENDIX C

HUMAN USE APPROVAL LETTER



LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

MEMORANDUM

TO: Dr. Randy Parker and Ms. Mary Skelton *AK*
 FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director of Intellectual Properties
 SUBJECT: HUMAN USE COMMITTEE REVIEW
 DATE: June 23, 2017

In order to facilitate your project, an EXPEDITED REVIEW has been done for your proposed study entitled:

“The Relationship between Principal Instructional Leadership Behaviors and Teacher Organizational Commitment”

HUC 17-097

The proposed study's revised procedures were found to provide reasonable and adequate safeguards against possible risks involving human subjects. The information to be collected may be personal in nature or implication. Therefore, diligent care needs to be taken to protect the privacy of the participants and to assure that the data are kept confidential. Informed consent is a critical part of the research process. The subjects must be informed that their participation is voluntary. It is important that consent materials be presented in a language understandable to every participant. If you have participants in your study whose first language is not English, be sure that informed consent materials are adequately explained or translated. Since your reviewed project appears to do no damage to the participants, the Human Use Committee grants approval of the involvement of human subjects as outlined.

Projects should be renewed annually. *This approval was finalized on June 23, 2017 and this project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including data analysis, continues beyond June 23, 2018.* Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

Please be aware that you are responsible for reporting any adverse events or unanticipated problems.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. Mary Livingston at 257-2292 or 257-5066.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

P.O. BOX 3092 • RUSTON, LA 71272 • TEL: (318) 257-5075 • FAX: (318) 257-5079

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY UNIVERSITY



LOUISIANA TECH
UNIVERSITY.

OFFICE OF SPONSORED PROJECTS

MEMORANDUM

TO: Ms. Mary Skelton and Dr. Randy Parker

FROM: Dr. Richard Kordal, Director, Office of Intellectual Property & Commercialization (OIPC) *RK*
rkordal@latech.edu

SUBJECT: Human Use Committee Review

DATE: June 27, 2018

RE: Approved Continuation of Study HUC 17-097 REN19

TITLE: "The Relationship between Principal Instructional Leadership Behaviors and Teacher Organizational Commitment"

HUC 17-097 REN19

The above referenced study has been approved as of June 27, 2018 as a continuation of the original study that received approval on June 23, 2017. **This project will need to receive a continuation review by the IRB if the project, including collecting or analyzing data, continues beyond June 27, 2019.** Any discrepancies in procedure or changes that have been made including approved changes should be noted in the review application. Projects involving NIH funds require annual education training to be documented. For more information regarding this, contact the Office of University Research.

You are requested to maintain written records of your procedures, data collected, and subjects involved. These records will need to be available upon request during the conduct of the study and retained by the university for three years after the conclusion of the study. If changes occur in recruiting of subjects, informed consent process or in your research protocol, or if unanticipated problems should arise it is the Researchers responsibility to notify the Office of Research or IRB in writing. The project should be discontinued until modifications can be reviewed and approved.

A MEMBER OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA SYSTEM

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APPENDIX D

**SUPERINTENDENT PERMISSION TO
CONDUCT STUDY**

SUPERINTENDENT'S PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Dear Superintendent,

My name is Mary T. Skelton and I am a doctoral student at Louisiana Tech University. I have successfully defended my research proposal, and have received permission to formally conduct dissertation research by the Human Subjects Committee at Louisiana Tech University. My dissertation topic is "The Relationship between Principal Instructional Leadership Practices and Teacher Organizational Commitment." The purpose of this study is to examine the potential relationship between perceived instructional leadership practices of principals and how these practices affect teacher organizational commitment. Data will also be sorted by grade level taught, years of experience as a classroom teacher, and tenure with current principal.

For the purpose of this study I will use the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* and the *Three-Component Model Employee Organizational Commitment Survey (TCM)*. Respondents will be a collective group of elementary classroom teachers in grades K-5 in selected school districts. Names of teachers, principals, schools, or school districts will not be used in the survey process, or in the final document. The combined survey will consist of 68 questions with Likert style responses, and is expected to take no longer than 20 minutes. Data will be administered electronically through Survey Monkey. Collected data will be kept confidential and stored on a USB drive kept in a secured and locked location.

If you grant me permission to conduct this research in _____ District, please sign and date below. Thank you for your support and consideration. Should you need to contact me, you may do so via telephone at 318-355-1756 or email at skelton.mary@yahoo.com. My committee chair is Dr. Randy Parker who can be contacted at doctor@latech.edu.

Superintendent Signature _____
Date _____

Sincerely,

Mary T. Skelton, Doctoral Candidate: Louisiana Tech University
Cc: Dr. Randy Parker, Dissertation Committee Chair

APPENDIX E

PRINCIPAL PERMISSION – EMAIL

Dear Colleague,

I am a former teacher and principal, and currently conducting doctoral candidate research at Louisiana Tech University on the relationship between instructional leadership practices and organizational commitment of teachers. **Permission to conduct research in your district has been granted by your superintendent.** Results from this research will be reported collectively and **not** by school, principal, or teacher, and will be kept completely confidential.

To conduct this research, I am asking principals to **forward this email to K-5 regular education teachers.** Teachers will click on the line that states “*please click here to open survey*” stated below. This link opens a 5-10 minute survey for teachers to provide their valuable insight and opinion.

Both teacher's and principal's assistance is greatly appreciated, and is very important to the outcome of this research. Again, thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

Mary Thurmon Skelton

skelton.mary@yahoo.com

[Please click here to enter survey](#)

APPENDIX F

COMBINED PIMRS AND TCM TEACHER SURVEY (SURVEY, TEACHER LETTER OF PARTICIPATION AND INFORMED CONSENT)

TEACHER LETTER OF PARTICIPATION AND CONSENT

Dear Colleague:

My name is Mary Skelton and I am a former Louisiana principal and teacher. I am also a doctoral student at Louisiana Tech University and am currently beginning my research for my dissertation titled: The Relationship between Principal Instructional Leadership Practices and Teacher Organizational Commitment. The purpose of my study is to examine the potential relationship between perceived instructional leadership practices of principals and how these practices affect teacher organizational commitment. I will also be seeking to identify the relationship between instructional leadership practices and high levels of teacher organizational commitment and low levels of teacher organizational commitment.

I am asking for your participation in this research and have secured permission from your district superintendent to conduct this study. The data will be collected from completed teacher surveys in grades K-5 in selected school districts. Participation will include completing an online survey with questions from the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) which assesses principal instructional leadership practices and the Three-Component Model Employee Commitment Survey (TCM) which assesses teacher organizational commitment.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and you may withdraw at any time without penalty. Should you choose to participate, it is understood that Louisiana Tech is not able to offer financial compensation and that there are no known risks associated with completion of this survey. All information will remain completely confidential and will not be matched to any specific school or principal. The data will be stored in digital form on a USB drive which will be kept in a secure locked location.

If you are willing to participate, please click on the survey link below, electronically sign and date the consent disclosure, and proceed with taking the survey. The survey link will be available for completion until _____. All questions must be answered and the submit button must be clicked to officially record your responses. If you have any questions, about your rights as a research subject you can contact the Louisiana Tech Institutional Review Board at (318) 257-3056. Thank you for your participation, and please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or difficulties. The survey should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Response to this email does not obligate you to participate.

Sincerely,

Mary T. Skelton

Human Subjects Consent

The following is a brief summary of the project in which you are asked to participate. Please read this information before signing the statement below. You must be of legal age or must be co-signed by parent or guardian to participate in this study. Pregnant women are not eligible to participate in this study.

Title of Project: The Relationship between Principal Instructional Leadership Practices and Teacher Organizational Commitment.

Purpose of Study/Project: The purpose of my study is to examine the potential relationship between perceived instructional leadership practices of principals and how these practices affect teacher organizational commitment. I will also be seeking to identify the relationship between instructional leadership practices and high teacher organizational commitment and low teacher organizational commitment.

Procedure/Instruments: Permission has been granted from your district superintendent for this study to be conducted. The data will be collected from completed teacher surveys in grades K-5 in selected school districts. Participation will include completing an online survey with questions from the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger (1985) which assesses principal instructional leadership practices and the Three-Component Model of Commitment (TCM) by Meyer & Allen (1993) which assesses teacher organizational commitment.

Please read and electronically sign below:

I attest with my electronic signature that I have read and understood the description of this study, and its purposes and methods. I understand that my participation in this research is strictly voluntary, and my participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship with Louisiana Tech University or grades I may receive from Louisiana Tech University. Furthermore, I understand that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any questions without penalty. Upon completion of the study, I understand that the results will be freely available to me upon request. I understand that the results of my survey will be confidential, accessible only to the principal investigators, me or a legally appointed representative. I have not been requested to waive nor do I waive any of my rights related to participating in this study. I attest that I am over 18 years of age, and I am not pregnant.

As a participant, I understand that Louisiana Tech University is not able to offer financial compensation and that there are no known risks associated with completion of this survey.

Signature of Participant

Date

**THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

PART I: Please provide the following information about yourself:

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

_____1 _____5-9 _____more than 15

_____2-4 _____10-15

(B) Years' experience as a teacher at the end of last school year:

_____1 _____5-9 _____more than 15

_____2-4 _____10-15

(C) Grade level teaching this school year

_____K _____1st _____2nd _____3rd _____4th _____5th...

(D) Gender of your principal: _____Male _____Female

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

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

5 represents *Almost Always*

4 represents *Frequently*

3 represents *Sometimes*

2 represents *Seldom*

1 represents *Almost Never*

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

PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE
Teacher Form 2.1

To what extent does/did your principal (at the end of last school year)?

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Frequently	Almost Always	
1	2	3	4	5	
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers at the school.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress).	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals when or mission in forums with students (e.g. assemblies or discussions).	1	2	3	4	5
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and directions of the school.	1	2	3	4	5

Almost Never 1	Seldom 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Almost Always 5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction.			1	2 3 4 5
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a Regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, Last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference).			1	2 3 4 5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations).			1	2 3 4 5
15. Point specific weaknesses in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluation).			1	2 3 4 5
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice Principal, or teacher-leader).			1	2 3 4 5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions.			1	2 3 4 5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives.			1	2 3 4 5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests,			1	2 3 4 5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials.			1	2 3 4 5
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress.			1	2 3 4 5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to discuss curricular strengths and weaknesses.			1	2 3 4 5

Almost Never 1	Seldom 2	Sometimes 3	Frequently 4	Almost Always 5	
23. Use tests and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter).	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tarty and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personal file.	1	2	3	4	5

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

PART III: TCM Organizational Commitment Scale

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the Organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by marking a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Undecided 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7			
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.			1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Slightly Disagree 3	Undecided 4	Slightly Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7				
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current organization.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This is the end of this survey. Thank you for taking the time to answer the survey questions.

APPENDIX G

VITA

VITA

Mary Thurmon Skelton was born in Homer, Louisiana and later moved to Monroe, Louisiana where she attended school in the Ouachita Parish School System. Upon high school graduation, Mary began her collegiate career at the Northeast Louisiana University, where she graduated in 1987 with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Elementary Education (K-8). Mary began teaching in the Ouachita Parish School System at West Monroe Junior High School. She later transferred to Swartz Elementary School. In 1985, Mary was named Ouachita Parish Teacher of the Year. Mary later received the Teacher Leader certification through Louisiana Tech University.

After nine years of classroom teaching, Mary was named Curriculum Coordinator for Swartz Upper Elementary School. After encouragement by her principal, Mary returned to the University of Louisiana at Monroe to complete a master's degree in Educational Leadership in 2003. Later that same year, Mary was named Assistant Principal at Swartz Upper Elementary School.

In 2005, Mary was named Principal of Swartz Upper Elementary School. After several years as an administrator, Mary made the decision to return to Louisiana Tech University to pursue a career goal of earning a doctorate in Educational Leadership.

Mary currently holds the following certifications: Elementary Education (K-8), Teacher Leader, Educational Leader – Level 2, Principal, Elementary School Principal, Parish/City School Supervisor of Instruction.