

A MIXED-METHOD APPROACH TO THE EXPLORATION OF PRINCIPALS'
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TURKEY:
THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER PERSPECTIVES

By

Mehmet Sukru Bellibas

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ABSTRACT

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Instructional leadership has been a substantial focus of school improvement research over the last thirty years. The literature on effective schools has associated effective school leaders with those who spend a considerable proportion of their time dealing with instructional and curricular activities aimed at improving teaching and learning in schools. Consistently, many countries require principals to become instructional leaders in their schools. The importance of instructional leadership has also been acknowledged by the Turkish Ministry of Education, which mandated school principals to become involved more in instructional issues by entering classrooms, observing teaching, and providing teachers with necessary feedback.

Despite the prominence of the instructional leadership research, the literature has failed to provide extensive knowledge regarding how instructional leadership is understood and enacted in real school contexts. This deficiency is especially the case in Turkey, where the literature has focused mostly on descriptive analysis of either teachers or principals' perspectives. The purpose of my research was to focus on formal leaders' instructional leadership practices by investigating the extent to which principals become involved in instructional leadership, and by examining which contexts and personal characteristics explain current leadership practices. The study also aimed to inquire into how instructional leadership is understood and is enacted, depending on multiple administrative and instructional staff. I used the explanatory approach of mixed method research to conduct this research. Data for the quantitative part of the research came from TALIS

(Teaching and Learning International Survey), which included surveys of 191 principals and 3,637 teachers. The second part of this research involved an analysis of qualitative data, which depended on documents and interviews that were collected from six schools. These data involved a total sample of 36 participants, including 12 administrative staff, 18 instructional staff, and six counselors.

Descriptive analyses of the quantitative survey data showed that principals paid specific attention to the development of school goals and instructional problems, and that they were less likely to become involved in the direct supervision of classroom instruction. Although principals and teachers disagreed about the frequency of each leadership behavior being carried out by leaders, they concurred on behaviors that occurred with the highest and lowest frequency. Inferential analyses indicated that female principals and the principals working in private schools were more likely to carry out instructional leadership than others were.

The qualitative results further enhanced the knowledge regarding the type of instructional leadership being carried out by principals. I found that principals did become involved in various instructional leadership activities, yet most of these activities were not coherently linked to one another to bring about instructional change. In addition, I found that principals had a short vision concerning whether a leader can or should influence teaching. Principals lacked strong intention and specific action to contribute to teaching and learning in the classroom. Teachers' views in this regard were not different. Even though teachers were not reluctant to have a principal help them to improve their teaching skills, teachers seemed to be suspicious about the capability of principals to do so. Teachers' notion of a principal influencing instruction was substantially shaped and constrained by the idea of leaders lacking knowledge and expertise in the particular subject matter in which teachers considered themselves to be experts.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

International rankings such as PISA (Program for International Student Assessment), TIMSS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), and PIRLS (Progress in International Reading Literacy Study), which rank and compare countries in terms of student achievement, have received increasing attention over the last decade (Hanushek & Woessmann, 2010). These data have become very important sources of information regarding the effectiveness of education systems and their impact on student outcomes (Mullis *et al.*, 2000; Schnepf, 2007). The sources of student data available internationally have also enabled researchers to conduct a considerable number of comparative studies investigating the education systems of the high performing countries. Comparing themselves with other countries has triggered substantial criticisms in those countries regarding the quality of education provided to students (Naumann, 2005).

Due to Turkish students' poor performance on these international tests, Turkey has been one of the countries in which the quality of education is being severely criticized (Aksit, 2007). According to PISA, Turkish students are ranked as one of the least achieving students compared to other nations (OECD, 2004). The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) acknowledged the fact that students in Turkey scored so poorly, nowhere close to their counterparts in developed or developing countries (OECD, 2004). In response to that, the Ministry of National Education in Turkey has adapted several state-wide reform packages: a new curriculum that emphasizes student-centered learning, and the expansion of technology availability in classrooms. Through these reform movements, the Turkish education system is now experiencing an extensive transformation process which is considered a prerequisite for improvement. The main goal of the reform acts is to direct all the attention toward learning and teaching, the core pillars of the whole school system. By doing so, the Ministry intends to create effective schools in which

every student can receive a quality education and enhance their achievement. The reforms primarily are intended to enhance the quality of teaching and learning for all students (Grossman, Onkol & Sands, 2007).

Importance of the Problem

The 1970s' research on successful schools constantly found that effective schools had principals who were particularly concerned with and spent time on improvement of the teaching and learning aspects of the school (Briever, 1972; Bridges, 1967; Duke & Stiggins, 1985; Edmonds 1979; Eberts & Stone, 1988; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; McKenzie, 1988; Niedermeyer, 1977). In contrast to principals who spent most of their time dealing with managerial issues such as budget and paper work, and the implementation of rules and regulations, principals in effective schools directed their attention more toward the academic aspects of their schools, such as setting academic goals, assessing the effectiveness of teachers' instructional practices, and providing opportunities for instructional improvement. Such behaviors associated with the principals of effective schools were defined as "instructional leadership" (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Bridges, 1967; Hallinger, 1983, 2001, 2003, 2011, 2012; Marks & Printy, 2003; Hallinger & Murphy, 1983, 1985; Hallinger, Murphy, Well, Mesa, & Mitman, 1983).

Based on findings from effective school research, combined with the reforms' goal of improving learning and teaching, it can be argued that without having effective instructional leaders, it is difficult for the reform movements of the Ministry to accomplish their goals. In the current time of substantial reforms, Turkish schools need principals who concern themselves more with classroom instruction, student progress, and teacher improvement, in order to achieve their goal. In response to that need, the Ministry passed a law in 2010 that required school

principals to take on instructional leadership roles through developing their school's vision and mission, observing teaching and learning activities, and providing feedback to teachers regarding their performance, all in order to ensure high quality teaching and learning.

However, in contrast to this shift toward a more instructionally oriented focus in the education system, the traditional principalship model in the Turkish education context is predominantly associated with managerial tasks, such as maintaining student discipline, managing the school budget, completing mandated paper work, maintaining the flow of information with the authorities at the upper levels of the education system, and managing school materials (Ada & Gumus, 2013; Korkmaz, 2005; Simsek, 2004). As a matter of fact, such responsibilities are extensively emphasized in the Ministry's principal recruitment policies, evaluation criteria, and job descriptions. Despite the new requirements mandated by the Ministry calling on principals to concern themselves more with-teaching and learning, formally communicated responsibilities do not involve clear incentives for school administrators to improve instruction.

Other factors are helpful to understanding why principals might be more inclined towards managerial leadership and less likely to take on instructional leadership tasks. First, the Ministry's recruitment policy for principals includes limited standards in relation to instructional leadership. Second, conventional understandings among educators have been that a school principal would continue his job as long as he, or she, successfully maintained managerial expectations and was not involved in any sort of discreditable activity. Third, principal evaluation involves only a few standards that link principals to teaching and learning, and the process is carried out by inspectors who do not have time to effectively assess instructional leadership practices. Given this context, it makes sense that the state of instructional leadership

would be more emergent than established. As a start, then, it is useful to investigate developing patterns of instructional leadership and explore some of the assumptions and beliefs among teachers and leaders about these patterns.

Past Research on the Problem

Since the development of the concept in the 1980s, instructional leadership has been a substantial focus of educational research. Early researchers mainly concerned themselves with the development of significant conceptual knowledge – how we might clarify and define instructional leadership—and theoretical understandings of the value and influences of instructional leadership (Bossert et al., 1982; Hallinger, 1983; Murphy 1990; Petterson, 1993; Weber, 1996). Later research investigated the relationship of instructional leadership to teacher and student learning (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Gerrell, 2005; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger et al., 1983; Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1996; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Heck, Larsen, & Marcoulides, 1990; May & Spovitz, 2011; Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006; Leithwood & Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012; Supovitz, Sirinides, & May, 2010).

In Turkey, most instructional leadership research was based on survey data from teachers and principals as well, with the purpose of examining the extent to which Turkish school principals were involved in instructional leadership practices and what the variations were between the different regions in which they worked across the country (Aksoy & Isik, 2008; Bayrak, 2001; Can, 2007; Daglı, 2000; Gumuseli, 1996; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Inandi & Ozkan, 2006; Kaykanaci, 2003; Yavuz & Bas, 2010). Most of these studies concluded that Turkish principals were more likely to be concerned with managerial issues than with instructional matters. Other research that focused on principals' level of engagement in

instructional leadership, however, suggested reverse results; that is, principals in Turkish schools were highly involved in instructional leadership behaviors (Celik, 2002; Ergen, 2013; Gumuseli, 1996; Gurocak & Hacifazlioglu, 2012). In addition to research on principals' level of engagement in instructional leadership, the literature also focused on investigating of the relation of principals' instructional leadership to several other concepts, such as school climate (Sahin, 2011), organizational health (Recepoglu & Ozdemir, 2013), organizational dependence (Buluc, 2009) , teachers' job satisfaction, teachers' self-efficacy (Duyar, Gumus, & Bellibas, 2013), collective efficacy (Calik, Sezgin, Kilinc, & Kavgaci, 2012), and collaboration (Gumus, Bulut, & Bellibas, 2013).

Deficiencies in Existing Research

The field has only modest qualitative evidence concerning how instructional leadership is interpreted and practiced in actual school settings (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; May & Spovitz, 2011; Mitchell & Castle, 2005). That is, we have theories of what instructional leadership is and how it affects student learning, yet we do not know what particular dimensions of instructional leadership principals and teachers practice or observe. . The fact that the contemporary literature lacks qualitative inquiry into how instructional leadership is understood and practiced is particularly true in the Turkish educational context.

An overwhelming majority of studies on instructional leadership in Turkey are based on survey data gathered to understand to what extent principals demonstrate instructional leadership behavior. Quantitative research on instructional leadership has largely focused on its relationship to certain characteristics of individuals, such as gender, education level, and years of experience (Aksoy & Isik, 2008; Gokyer, 2010; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Serin & Buluc, 2012; Sahin, 2011). However, these studies have failed to go beyond descriptive analyses to make sense of

context and its influence on participants' perceptions and practices of instructional leadership (Aksoy & Isik, 2008; Bayrak, 2001; Dagli, 2000; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Inandi & Ozkan, 2006; Kaykanaci, 2003; Sahin, 2011; Yavuz & Bas, 2010). Research has yet to develop insights on how variations in school settings influence both the emergence of instructional leadership and the profile of practices associated with it. For example, there are only a few studies that examine the relationship of instructional leadership to factors related to the school, such as socio-economic status and school type (public vs. private), and to the principal and the teacher, such as gender, educational level, total years of experience and years of experience in their current schools.

A second limitation in this research is its limited sampling of elementary school principals, in schools in different provinces (eg, (Aksoy & Isik, 2008; Bayrak, 2001; Dagli, 2000; Gumuseli, 1996; Kaykanaci, 2003; Sahin, 2011; Serin & Buluc, 2012; Yavuz & Bas, 2010). Data gathered from different school levels and across regions will provide a more generalizable picture of instructional leadership in Turkey and offer some understanding of the variation that occur.

A third limitation associated with existing research is that studies mostly depend on the data derived from one single perspective. That is, they either ask teachers about their principals' instructional leadership behaviors, or they ask principals directly regarding their own behaviors (eg. Aksoy & Işık, 2008; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Serin & Buluc, 2012; Sahin, 2011; Turan, Yıldırım, & Aydogdu, 2012). There are only a few studies that jointly sampled and connected teachers' and principals' perspectives (eg, Gokyer, 2010; Inandı & Ozkan, 2006). Hallinger (n/a) indicated that it is important to use data from both teacher and principal's perspective in the instructional leadership literature, since most principals either overestimate or underestimate

their level of engagement in leadership behaviors. Including the teachers' perception enhances the reliability and validity of the data informing principals' instructional leadership.

The Potential Audiences of the Study

This study has significant practical implications for school principals who are passionate about helping teachers improve their instructional practices and increase student learning. The study revealed important information with regard to principals' understandings and practices of instructional leadership. It informed principals about certain behaviors of instructional leadership that were performed by principals working in [effective middle schools.] Various examples of instructional leadership behaviors and associated problems mentioned in this study can benefit principals in a sense that prompts them to reflect on their current practices for increasing the number of students passing the high school entrance exam and enrolling in prestigious high schools across the country. In this regard, the study involved common issues associated with instructional leadership practices and suggestions regarding how they might improve their skills and practice to overcome these issues and better to serve the needs of teachers and students.

In their effort to improve schools, national policy makers also must know that principals play a key role in the effectiveness of schools. In this regard, this study provides policy makers at the Ministry level with information concerning the country's principals' current practices of instructional leadership. Because the quantitative part of the study was derived from a relatively large-scale data set that represented the entire country, the results may inform the Ministry about the strengths and weaknesses of school principals in performing tasks associated with the improvement of teaching and learning activities in classrooms. The qualitative part also can inform the Ministry concerning how instructional leadership is perceived and enacted in schools and what type of problems principals face as they seek to increase their involvement in academic

matters. Therefore, the research can serve as a reference for the Ministry to determine the type of interventions and to revise the principals' job description, principal recruitment, and evaluation criteria.

Finally, another audience of the study is international or national researchers who are interested in school improvement and leadership. As literature on instructional leadership has been growing substantially at the global level, the current study provides an understanding of how the educational context of a country affects the perception and practices of instructional leadership in schools.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate how instructional leadership is understood, conceptualized, and practiced in secondary schools in Turkey at a time of substantial reform. It sought to develop a more empirically grounded picture of instructional leadership through a mixed method approach that develops understandings from qualitative field data but that also brings that data to bear on findings from a large scale survey.

According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010), contemporary mixed method research should adopt a cyclical approach which involves both deductive and inductive logics. The cycle in this study began with deductive analyses of quantitative survey data on instructional leadership collected from Turkish principals and teachers in 2008 through the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)—an international survey that depended on teacher and principal perceptions to reveal teaching and learning conditions in schools. My study first inquired into principals' specific instructional leadership behaviors as highlighted in the survey, and it aimed to explore how often Turkish principals got engaged in these behaviors, as reported by both themselves and teachers. Second, it examined the potential relationship between school

and principal characteristics and instructional leadership perceptions, in order to provide an understanding of the school, principal and teacher related factors that were associated with variations in the frequency of principals' specific instructional leadership behaviors.

In addition to findings regarding principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership, analyses of the TALIS data investigated the comparisons between principal and teacher level reports of instructional leadership. This was considered as a means to ensure the validity and reliability of findings by looking at the consistency between the reports from both sides. According to Hallinger (n.d.), while some effective principals were inclined to underestimate the extent that they performed instructional leadership, others who might not be considered effective overestimated their capacity to assess their behaviors associated with instructional leadership. It was therefore important for the research in this field to depend on multiple sources of data to examine principals' leadership behaviors. Hallinger drew upon teachers' reports to ensure validity and reliability. Aligned with his method, my study aimed to use teachers' reports as well and to compare them with principals' reports in order to provide a more valid and reliable picture of principals' instructional leadership behaviors in Turkish schools. Overall, this initial step (the quantitative part) provided a broad and reliable profile of instructional leadership behaviors and associated context factors as reported by principals and teachers working at middle schools in Turkey

My research then developed case studies of instructional leadership in a sample of six schools in order to examine more closely how instructional leadership was enacted by principals and understood by the school community, drawing upon the perspective of principals, assistant principals, teachers, and counselors. Inductive, interpretative analyses of this qualitative field data developed a more detailed and grounded profile of instructional leadership perceptions and,

importantly, behaviors. The primary aim of the quantitative part of the cycle was to examine instructional leadership behaviors that seemed to be more or less dominant, and to test the relationship of a number of school and personal characteristics to the frequency of the instructional leadership behaviors of principals. The purpose of the qualitative part of the cycle, on the other hand, was to enhance the explanation by furthering the knowledge and information acquired from the deductive quantitative analyses. This was achieved through more probing and in-depth questions that scrutinized principals' and teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership in their schools. The purpose with the qualitative inquiry was to focus on principals' instructional leadership behaviors that received either more or less attention, and to investigate how principals and teachers explain the type of instructional leadership enacted by principals and what encourages or discourages principals to demonstrate certain behaviors.

In the final part of this cycle (the conclusion chapter), analyses sought to shed light on how instructional leadership was understood and practiced, by bringing together all analyses and comparing and contrasting survey and case study profiles to probe the potential meanings, ambiguities, and reliabilities of the quantitative survey reports that influence perceptions, policies, and practices of the Ministry and other key actors in Turkey. The purpose here, and overall, was to inform the understandings and actions of policy makers and practitioners alike.

Research Questions

The main question of the study was: How is instructional leadership understood and practiced in schools in Turkey and what factors influence the way that principals enact instructional leadership? More specific questions were:

1. How do principals in Turkey perceive and report their own instructional leadership?

- a. Which instructional leadership behaviors are more or less prevalent, according to principals?
 - b. How are school characteristics associated with principal's reports of their instructional leadership behaviors?
 - c. How are principals' personal characteristics associated with reports of their instructional leadership behaviors?
2. How do teachers in Turkey perceive the instructional leadership of their principal?
 - a. How often do the principals demonstrate specific behaviors that are associated with instructional leadership, according to teachers?
 - b. How are schools' characteristics associated with teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership?
 - c. How are teachers' personal characteristics associated with teachers' perception of their principals' instructional leadership?
 - d. How are principals' characteristics associated with teachers' perception of their principals' instructional leadership?
3. How do the reports of teachers compare to the reports of principals with regard to principals' instructional leadership in the Turkish school context?

The above three main questions are quantitative and will be answered using the TALIS data. Below are the qualitative questions that were intended to further our knowledge regarding principals' understanding and enactment of instructional leadership:

4. How is principals' instructional leadership understood by administrative and academic staff?
5. How is instructional enacted by principals in lower secondary schools in Turkey?

6. How do principals and teachers explain sources of support and constraints to instructional leadership behaviors?

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The launch of the world's first artificial satellite, Sputnik, by the Soviet Union in 1957 generated substantial criticism with regard to the intellectual force of the United States. One of the main targets of the criticism was the education system. After this incident, the report of 1983, *A Nation at Risk*, escalated the criticism and proposed the need for a systemic change in education. The report, comparing US with other nations such as Japan, claimed that US schools were not sufficiently effective in equipping students with the necessary competencies, skills, and knowledge to bring out the intellectual force required to compete with other nations. Ever since, US researchers have directed close attention toward student achievement and the dynamics of effective schools that have the potential to produce desired student outcomes. For instance, in order to analyze factors associated with differences in student achievement, Coleman *et al* (1966) conducted an extensive study which, later, resulted in a prominent report titled *Equality in Educational Opportunity*. In this report, Coleman concluded that student socio-economic status is the most significant factor determining student achievement.

In response to the Coleman report, more sophisticated research that investigates characteristics of effective schools has been conducted (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008). A vast body of this research has found evidence that various school level factors, such as a safe and orderly environment, high academic press and expectations for students and staff, skillful principals, and good quality teachers, are also significantly associated with increased student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hoy & Hannum, 1997; Klitgaard & Hall, 1975; Marzano, 2007). That is, considerable variation in student achievement and school effectiveness can also be explained through various factors controlled by schools (Clark, Lotto, & Astuto, 1984; Edmonds, 1979), and hence school itself makes a difference in enhancing student learning (Hallinger, et al., 1983).

Recent research has also concluded that schools can play an important role in ameliorating student failure. In this regard, the most outstanding finding has been that the teacher possesses a critical position (Borman & Kimball, 2005; Ingersoll, 2001; Rockoff, 2004). The literature further stresses that the teacher particularly makes a difference in the schools that are filled predominantly with students suffering from low socio-economic conditions (Aaronson, Barrow, & Sander, 2007). In addition, what Elmore (2004) found concurs with the research stressing the influence of teachers on student learning. His research pointed out that some schools, albeit with a high-poverty student population, were doing as well as affluent schools on state-wide standardized tests. When such cases were further investigated, it was concluded that the difference between these schools could be explained in terms of the emphasis placed on continuous efforts for improving instructional quality, and on high expectations for student learning. This discussion brings us to the question, if the quality of teaching matters, how can instructional quality be enhanced so that increased student achievement might be attained?

A vast body of research on effective schools provides consistent evidence that effective leadership is the key factor for school improvement and student achievement (Duke & Stiggins, 1985). For instance, drawing on longitudinal data derived from hundreds of schools in Chicago, a recent study by Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, and Easton (2010) concluded that the school principalship is a significant driving force for a school to achieve high quality instruction and thereby to enhance student achievement. One of the key elements that constitute an effective principalship is the principal as an instructional leader. This study provides empirical evidence that when a school principal demonstrates strong instructional leadership, such as providing teachers with necessary professional development, establishing a school-wide vision, and

aligning instructional practice with the curriculum, student math and reading achievement increases to a measurable extent.

Instructional leadership as a model varies depending on researchers. There is not one single understanding of instructional leadership in the literature. Yet, as a concept in general, it suggests that principals establish school-wide goals and communicate determined goals with the staff (Hallinger, 1982; 2012; Murphy, 1990; Petterson, 1993; Weber, 1996); it requires principals to coordinate school curriculum, monitor student progress, and develop instructional strategies (Hallinger, 1982; 2012; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985); it provides the principal with a framework to observe and evaluate teachers' instructional practice, provide feedback, and offer incentives based on teacher and student progress (Hallinger, 1982; 2012; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Murphy, 1990); and it charges principals with the responsibility to make various professional development opportunities available to the academic staff (Hallinger, 1982, 2012; Weber, 1996). The ultimate goal in the emergence of this leadership model is to increase student achievement by augmenting teacher effectiveness, developing aligned curricula, and specifying school goals. Compared with other leadership theories, instructional leadership has a particular focus on the academic aspects of the school, such as educational goals, curriculum development, teacher improvement, and classroom instruction, in order to ensure the quality of teaching and eventually to enhance student learning.

The Evolving Concept of Instructional Leadership

The research on instructional leadership traces back to the 1960s, when numerous educational scholars directed a considerable amount of research toward understanding the characteristics and components of effective schools. This research has concluded that a principal working closely with teachers to enhance their instructional competency is one of the key common characteristics

of effective schools (Bridges,1967; Brieve, 1972; Clark et al., 1984; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger, 2012; Niedermeyer, 1977). Since then, various models stretching out instructional leadership have been proposed, and its impact on the processes and outcomes of schooling has been widely investigated. According to the literature, the research on instructional leadership can be classified into four categories, based on the evolution of their focus (Hallinger, 2012). These are:

- a) instructional leadership in the studies of effective schools;
- b) introduction of comprehensive instructional leadership models;
- c) studies investigating the impact of context factors on instructional leadership behaviors of principals and research on the impact of instructional leadership on teaching and learning;
- d) instructional leadership enactment in actual school settings,

Each category above represents different proclivities of research in relation to instructional leadership. In the first category, instructional leadership is considered a necessary function of effective school administrators who intend to foster student learning. In the second category, there has been considerable criticism about instructional leadership in terms of being a vague concept and not having a well-articulated concrete model. This also corresponds to the time when a number of researchers invested effort in expanding the view of school management by developing explicit models of instructional leadership. In the third category, the availability of various models encouraged researchers to investigate the impact of context factors, such as school and personnel characteristics, on the instructional leadership behaviors of principals, and the influence of these behaviors on teacher and student learning. However, the absence of research on how principals enact instructional leadership, and thereby what instructional leadership looks like in actual school settings, was still a considerable concern. Researchers in

the fourth category largely concerned themselves with filling this gap by conducting qualitative case studies of those who are considered to be effective instructional leaders.

Effective School Research

After the 1950s, a plethora of studies directed their focus to the characteristics of principals working in effective schools, and hence the attention was toward the administrative dynamics that make a school productive. In these studies, the idea of the principal as a central figure for instructional improvement was usually embedded in the description of effective school principals, rather than an explicit mention of the term “instructional leadership.” Chase and Cuba (1955), for instance, identified effective principals as those who help teachers improve their instructional practices, act less authoritarian and more democratic, develop good human relationships with staff, and provide directions to reduce ambiguity. Consistently, Goldman and Heald (1968) found that teachers’ depiction of the effective principal was based predominantly on two main areas: a) staff involvement in activities, such as evaluating school effectiveness, and teachers being supervised in terms of their instructional practices; and b) provision of social support through good relationships and facilitating the work of the teachers.

Research on effective school leadership continued to prevail in the studies of school administration during the 1970s as well; however, the focus was more on case studies of specific schools (Clark et al., 1984). Edmonds (1979) stated that strong school leadership is a cornerstone for developing an effective school that makes a difference, especially in educating lower-income students. Even though the term instructional leadership was not used, one dimension of strong leadership in this study involved instructional leadership practices such as helping teachers develop effective instructional strategies, creating academic goals for students, and keeping track of the progress that students made. Descriptions of effective school principals in this study

associated various activities that could be attributed to instructional leadership. Similarly, Austin (1979) pointed out that high performing schools were frequently associated with effective principals who were experts in instructional matters, rather than those who expended plentiful time in dealing with managerial issues.

On the other hand, a few researchers at that time specifically used the term “instructional leadership,” and they proposed the term to be an indispensable function of the principalship in effective schools (eg. Bridges, 1967; Brieve, 1972; Niedermeyer; 1977). These early studies involved initial attempts to develop instructional leadership models. They often depicted instructional leadership as a model that required principals to take on new roles. For example, Brieve (1972) created a framework of instructional leadership composed of four principalship roles: administrative, supportive, coordinating, and initiating. The *administrative* role included mainly clerical activities, such as scheduling programs, managing the budget, and assigning people. The *supportive* role constituted any motivational or material support that facilitated instructional improvement. The *coordinating* role suggested that principals should carry out necessary changes that enable instructional staff to improve their practice. Finally, the *initiating* role meant that principals were the key figures who sought opportunities for that school and teachers to collaborate and to reach out with resources, such as professional development activities. Even though the last three roles connect the principal to instructional activities, the first role, administrative, was substantially focused on non-instructional matters.

In another study, Bridges (1967) examined four prominent instructional leadership notions that were prevalent in the 1960s—evaluator, helper, integrator and designer. He pointed out that the role of principal as *evaluator* is to monitor and evaluate teacher practice based on the goals and policies of the school. The principal as a *helper* is responsible for observing teachers

and giving them feedback to help them improve their practice. The principal who is an *integrator* works for complying with the school's expectations through the instructional practices of teachers. Lastly, those who are *designers* incorporate teachers in their efforts to enhance the techniques and skills necessary for instructional improvement. Bridges eventually asserted that none of these views were either comprehensive or appropriate for the skills of principals. He then provided an alternative view of instructional leadership—the *principal-as-experimenter*, which suggested that principals develop and implement strategies and programs for instructional improvement, and eventually evaluate the contribution of the strategies to the equality of classroom instruction easier to decide whether to keep or change the strategies.

The study of Blasé (1987), which aimed at discovering characteristics of effective leadership depending on the teachers' perspective, depicted leaders of effective schools whose behaviors were aligned with a number of practices of instructional leadership. He found that effective leaders were those who possessed expertise, were knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction, maintained high visibility, had clear and reasonable expectations, provided goals and directions, and praised and rewarded teachers' efforts toward improvement. De Bevoise (1984) defined instructional leadership as the accomplishment of certain actions, including establishing goals, providing staff with necessary resources for productive instructional practices, supervising and assessing teacher practice, managing professional development activities, and creating a school in which teachers engaged through professional collegiality. Elements pointed out in the study were consistent with the general portrait of current instructional leadership models.

Accordingly, Rosenholtz (1985) stressed the important role that principals of effective schools play by saying:

Principals of effective schools have a unitary mission of improved student learning, and their actions convey certainty that these goals can be attained. Such actions include recruiting outstanding teachers who have goals similar to their own and to those of other staff, organizationally buffering teachers to ensure that their efforts are directed toward raising student achievement, monitoring the academic progress teachers make, supplying additional technical assistance to needy teachers, and providing-mostly in concert with teaching colleagues-the opportunities to establish strategies to achieve instructional goals. (p.352)

Although these early effective school studies identified some of the key components of instructional leadership successfully, such as creating opportunities for teachers to improve, developing instructional strategies and techniques, and goal alignment, they failed to provide comprehensive conceptual frameworks or models that brought all the components together (Hallinger, 2012; Murphy, 1988). Hallinger (2012) summarized the problems in the research on instructional leadership at this stage as:

a) lack of clearly explicated conceptual frameworks, b) lack of valid and reliable instrumentation for studying the role, c) lack of theoretical models that articulate how this role influences student learning, and d) reliance on weak research designs, ill-equipped to test for causal effects. (p. 49)

Instructional Leadership Models

Even though in my analysis of effective school research above, I focused mostly on the instructional role of principals, the research on effective schools highlights three key roles of principals: managerial, instructional, and political (Cuban, 1998). Over time, it is evident that the instructional role of the principal gained more emphasis and became a separate field of research

called instructional leadership. Yet the concept seemed ambiguous in the 1970s, due to the lack of concrete models identifying key dimensions of instructional leadership. As a consequence of the awareness that instructional leadership was not conceptualized properly, and of the lack of evidence concerning its influence on student learning, researchers started developing various models and corresponding questionnaires that later brought about substantial scholarly attention and investment in the field of instructional leadership. In this part, I discuss multiple models proposed by researchers according to their chronological order.

One of the first studies developing a framework for the instructional leadership role of principals was carried out by Bossert et al. (1982). In this framework they identified instructional management as the interaction of three components: *principal management behavior*, *school climate*, and *instructional organization*, which, according to their claim, were supposed to bring about increased *student learning* (p.40). Principals can affect the organization of instruction through school-level factors, such as buffering instructional time, determining class size and composition, and grouping students and teachers. The other way through which principals influence classroom instruction is to produce a positive school climate. They stated that although the concept of climate itself was poorly defined, depending on the research, it could be argued that climate-related factors, such as teachers' and students' sense of efficacy, focus on goals, safe and disciplined school environment, supportive relationships, and faculty commitment, were important concepts that principals could work on to improve classroom instruction. Lastly, it was contended that although principals' management behaviors did not have direct influence on classroom instruction, they had an impact indirectly through instructional organization and school climate, as mentioned above.

Hallinger (1983)'s model. The instructional leadership framework proposed by Hallinger et al. (1983) was, perhaps, the most comprehensive and received the most scholarly attention. They identified instructional leadership as three dimensions: *Defining the school's mission, managing curriculum and instruction, and promoting a positive learning climate* (p.85). In addition, each dimension included a number of functions. The functions of defining the school's mission were *framing and communicating school goals* (p.85); and managing curriculum and instruction consisted of *knowledge of curriculum and instruction, supervision and evaluation of instruction, curriculum coordination, and monitoring student performance* (p.86). Promoting a positive learning climate involved several functions: *establishment of high expectations for students, establishment of academic standards and incentives for learning, protection of instructional time, and promotion of instructional improvement and professional development* (p.88).

The framework suggests that it is a critical function of school leaders who want to create an effective school and increase student achievement to determine a number of school goals in relation to students' academic achievement. The principal should also ensure that the school goals are absorbed by the staff. Once clear school goals are established, it is important to align the curriculum and the classroom practice of teachers with these goals. To accomplish this, principals need to coordinate curriculum, observe instructional practices of teachers, and provide teachers with feedback based on observations and other sources of evaluation. Finally, in order to improve instruction and thereby student learning, it is critical for school leaders to protect instructional time, determine standards, provide incentives and professional development based on the current state of classroom instruction and a teacher's effectiveness, and set high expectation for all students (Hallinger *et al.*, 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Murphy,

Hallinger & Mitman, 1983). Hallinger et al. (1983) also developed an instrument that measured the instructional leadership behaviors of school principals, called the “Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale” (PIMRS), which was later transformed into a form of three dimensions, including *defining the school’s mission, managing the instructional program*, and *promoting a positive school learning climate*, and 10 functions of instructional leadership behaviors (Hallinger, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2012).

Murphy (1990)’s model. Murphy (1990) developed a model derived from effective school research that was composed of four dimensions. His model of instructional leadership possessed close similarity with the model proposed by Hallinger *et al.* The first dimension of the model included developing school missions and goals and communicating these goals with the school staff. The second dimension, managing the educational program, involved various sub-dimensions such as supervising and evaluating classroom instruction, promoting good quality instruction, coordinating the curriculum, protecting instructional time, and monitoring the progress that students make. Another dimension was promoting an academic learning climate, and this included setting high standards and expectations, providing incentives for teaching and learning, maintaining high visibility, and promoting professional development. The last dimension was creating a supportive work environment, by promoting collaboration among academic staff, creating a safe environment, promoting student involvement, establishing and maintaining links between the school and parents, and securing outside resources supporting school goals.

Petterson (1993)’s model. A different instructional leadership model was developed by Petterson (1993). His model was constituted by various dimensions which were consistent with those identified by Hallinger (2001). The first dimension—*providing a sense of vision to the*

school—emphasized the importance of determining shared goals with respect to student achievement. Supporting classroom instruction and engaging others in the process of instructional improvement was another key component of his model. The third dimension involved monitoring instruction by visiting classrooms, observing teachers, and providing them with constructive feedback. Lastly, creating an instructional climate and school environment that was conducive to accomplishment of the determined goals corresponded to the effective learning climate dimension of Hallinger’s model.

Weber (1996)’s model. Weber (1996) also framed a model of instructional leadership that consisted of five dimensions. According to his model, *defining the school’s mission* was the first dimension which helps establish common goals and provides direction toward improvement. The second dimension, *managing curriculum and instruction*, referred to principals’ effectiveness in determining instructional practices with teachers that are compatible with the schools. The third dimension, *promoting a positive learning climate*, involved setting high expectation for students and staff, providing rewards for and recognizing improvement, and protecting instructional time. Another dimension, observing and giving feedback to teachers, required principals to conduct classroom observations and give feedback with respect to instructional performance. The last dimension was *assessing the instructional program*, to make sure that it was effective in bringing about desired outcomes.

McEwan (1998)’s model. In the book, *Seven Steps to Effective Instructional Leadership*, McEwan (1998) developed an instructional leadership model that identified seven dimensions. Her model viewed instructional leadership more as collective behaviors shared among the principal and teachers than as behaviors carried out exclusively by the principal. According to this model, principals share instructional improvement responsibilities by developing teacher

leaders and involving them in decision making processes. The first dimension of her instructional leadership model was *establishing and implementing instructional goals*. Consistent with established goals, she suggested that principals should *set high expectations for the staff* and offer instructional support to anyone who is in need of it. Other dimensions of her models included *creating a school culture and climate conducive to learning, communicating the vision and mission of the school, and maintaining positive attitudes toward students, staff and parents*.

Taking all models into consideration, it is evident that instructional leadership has been defined, conceptualized, and framed in many different ways. While conducting TALIS in 2008, OECD developed a conceptual framework of instructional leadership based on the models listed above. This model defined instructional leadership through three major functions: management of school goals, instructional management, and direct supervision of instruction, as indicated in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Instructional Leadership Framework in TALIS (2008), Created by OECD

Management of School Goals	1. Ensures PD Activity Consistent with Goals 2. Ensures Teachers Work According to Goals 3. Uses Student Results to Determine Goals 4. Uses Exam Results for Curriculum Development 5. Ensures Clarity for Curriculum Responsibilities 6. Works on Goals/ Development Plan
Instructional Management	1. Takes Initiative to Discuss Classroom Issues 2. Informs about Opportunities to Update Knowledge 3. Solves Problems Together 4. Pays Attention to Disruptive Behavior
Direct Supervision of Instruction	1. Conducts Classroom Observations 2. Gives Suggestions to Improve 3. Monitors Student Work 4. Ensures Classroom Activities are Consistent with Goals

Linking Instructional Leadership to Teaching and Learning

Effective school research found that strong leadership was one of the key components of the schools where student success was evident. This led to the development of the idea that there might be some connection between leadership and student achievement. An important body of effective school research therefore was concerned with the relationship between principal leadership and student learning. In a comprehensive review of the research that was conducted between 1980 and 1995, Hallinger and Heck (1996) examined principals' roles in school effectiveness. They discovered several models in the research that displayed how school principals might be associated with the student achievement. While some of these models suggested a direct relationship, the more comprehensive model proposed indirect relationships that occurred through various mediating variables. The model, which suggested a more complicated and indirect relationship with mediating variables, was also supported by the contemporary research (Leithwood et al., 2006)

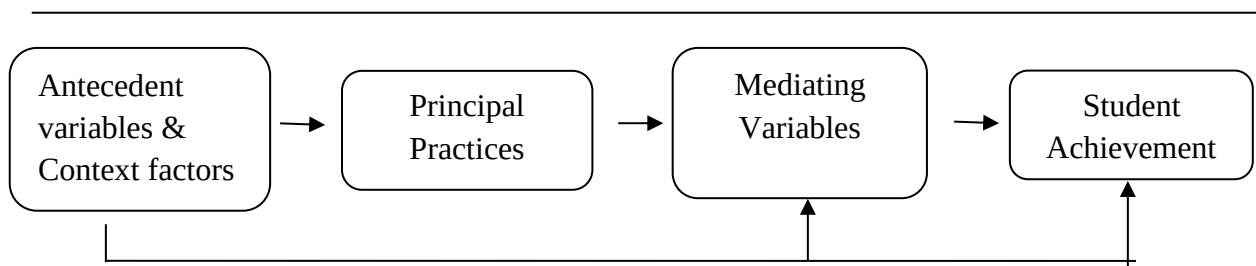


Figure 1: How School Leaders Influence Student Achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1996)

Figure 1 displays a model which suggests that the impact of principals on student learning is indirect. This finding motivated scholars to pay close attention to factors that mediate between leadership and student learning (Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012). Numerous studies focusing on mediating factors provided persuasive evidence that by performing instructional leadership practices such as making various professional development opportunities available to

teachers, contributing to the learning climate of the school, and promoting ambitious instruction, principals can change classroom instruction, and consequently affect student learning (Bryk et al., 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 2010).

Eberts and Stone (1988), for instance, analyzed the relationship between effective school leadership and student achievement. The concept of effective leadership in this study consisted of instructional leadership and conflict resolution, and the concept of instructional leadership was summarized through several functions of principals, such as setting priorities, evaluating instructional programs, and organizing and participating in the professional development of staff. Using a nationally-representative data set encompassing over 14,000 elementary school students, the study concluded that leadership behaviors with respect to instruction are more likely to improve student learning; however, principals being a strong school leader in behaviors which were not related directly to classroom instruction was not found to be directly associated with student learning. This early study is substantial in that it attempted to link instructional leadership to student achievement.

Hallinger *et al.* (1996) examined the relationship between instructional leadership and students' reading achievement. Compared with the research of Eberts and Stone (1988), they analyzed a relatively small set of data, which involved principal and teacher questionnaires and student test scores of 87 elementary schools from the U.S. They found that principals had an influence on student reading achievement, yet the influence was indirect, and it was largely carried out through principals' influence on the school's learning climate, such as the school's mission, teacher expectations, and student opportunities to learn. The study concluded that principals play an important role in building a school environment and climate that result in increased student achievement. Since these factors are unable to exert direct influence, future

research should focus on examining multifaceted mediating factors to provide a complete understanding of the situations through which school leaders might be linked to educational outcomes.

The study of Hallinger et al. (2006), indeed, furthered the understanding of principal leadership and the student achievement relationship by providing a framework within which the influence of leadership could be examined. The framework provided an understanding of the impact of leadership on student learning. They stressed that there is a need to focus on antecedent variables and context factors, which help develop a sense of dynamics that influence the development of instructional leadership behaviors, in order to comprehend how principals' instructional leadership affects student learning. For instance, Hallinger *et al.* used a number of antecedent variables, such as school SES, principals' gender, parental involvement, and principals' teaching experience, to examine the influence of context factors on the practice of principals' instructional leadership. The study also identified instructional leadership practices as one of the mediating variables. However, they ultimately emphasized that there exists more research focusing on how leadership affects student learning than research investigating the impact of context factors and antecedent variables on principals' leadership practices.

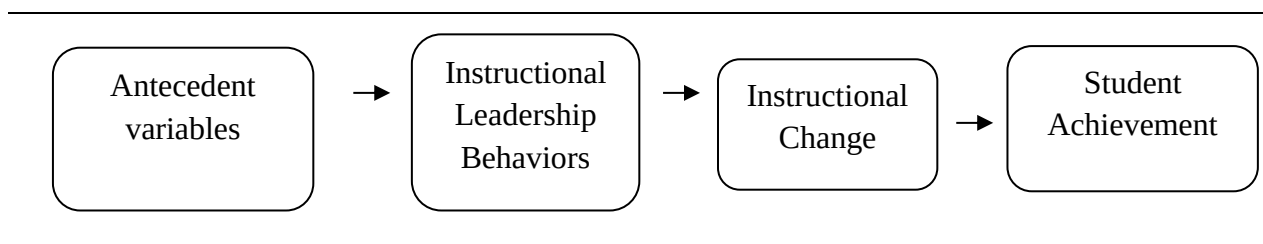


Figure 2: How Instructional Leadership is Associated with Student Achievement

Figure 2, which displays a model that links instructional leadership to student performance, suggests that antecedent variables are strongly associated with whether and how

principals perform instructional leadership behaviors. Investigation of how these variables are related with instructional leadership is important for understanding the context behind leadership practices. The literature pointed out that without taking into account antecedent variables, it is difficult to understand the context in which principals work and the relationship between principals' leadership behaviors and the context (Hallinger et al., 1996; Hallinger & Heck, 1998), because principals' decisions concerning what to focus on is not independent of the context and their characteristics (Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008).

A number of studies which examined the instructional leadership behaviors of principals also investigated the relationship between the level of behaviors practiced and school characteristics, such as parental involvement, student SES, and student composition (Goldring, 1990; Hallinger et al., 1996). Other studies investigated the relations of instructional leadership to principals' and teachers' personal characteristics, such as gender and professional experience (eg, Borden, 2011; Goff, Mavrogordato, & Goldring, 2012; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1983). For instance, Hallinger *et al.* analyzed the relationship of various antecedent variables to instructional leadership, including parental involvement, the socio-economic status of students, and the principals' gender. First, they found a positive relationship between parental involvement and instructional leadership; that is, principals were ranked higher in terms of practicing instructional leadership in schools where parents were frequently involved in schooling processes. Second, they found a positive association between the socio-economic status of students and principals' involvement in instructional leadership activities. This suggests that instructional leadership is more prevalent in the schools in which students have higher socio-economic status. Lastly, they also found some relationship between the principals' gender and

instructional leadership, such that female principals were more likely to engage in instructional leadership than male principals.

Apart from antecedents, researchers also directed attention toward understanding how instructional leadership is associated with student achievement. As a result of considerable scholarly work, there now seems to be a consensus among researchers that school leaders can increase student achievement, through their influence on the conditions that lead to instructional change. The focus of research, hence, has been on the factors that influence change in teaching methods and strategies (Hallinger & Heck, 1996, 1998, 2010; Heck, 1992; Leithwood et al., 2006; May & Spovitz, 2012; Robinson et al., 2008; Southworth, 2002; Supovitz et al., 2010). Yet it is also acknowledged that instructional change is not always straightforward (Hargreaves, 2004), and it requires a great deal of effort. Reviewing the extant literature, Richards and Skolits (2009) identified a wide variety of barriers to effective instructional change. These are habits, feeling uncomfortable and fear of change, viewing change as a threat, an unsafe work environment, lack of administrative support, and the pressure of accountability that results in doing what sounds the best. Therefore, principals who desire to influence change in teachers' instruction should effectively work on factors that remove barriers and provide sufficient support and encouragement to teachers to experiment with different instructional strategies that are known to be associated with increased student learning.

In response to the fact that instructional change is a challenging issue, the contemporary research has been devoting effort to exploring ways through which principals might influence teachers to provide better instructional practices to students. For example, May and Supovitz (2012) examined the extent to which principals' instructional leadership efforts resulted in change in teachers' instructional practice. They used data collected through principal web logs

and teacher surveys, from 51 urban schools. They found that the degree of instructional change depended on the interaction between teachers and principals, and that the time principals spent directly on classroom instruction was significantly associated with instructional change. They also found that the variation in change among teachers was larger than the variation among schools. The study concluded that principals who allocate more time and energy to a balance of targeted and broad instructional issues, and who also work closely with individual teachers, are more likely to change and improve teachers' instructional practices.

Similarly, drawing upon teacher survey and student achievement data collected from a school district during an academic year, Supovitz et al. (2010) examined the influence of the principal on teachers' instructional practices and student learning. Specifically, they investigated whether and how principals might be associated with changes in teachers' instructional practices. Their analysis suggested that "principals who focus on instruction, foster community and trust, and clearly communicate school mission and goals are associated with teachers who report making a greater degree of changes to their instructional practice" (p.43-44). The importance of communication, trust, and sense of community in instructional change supports the notion that effective instructional leaders should maintain close and effective relationships with teachers.

Sebastian and Allensworth (2012) also studied the relationship between principal leadership and change in teachers' instructional practices, using the framework of essential supports (Byrk et al., 2010), which involves some key components of instructional leadership such as professional community, quality of instructional program, and the learning climate of the school. Consistent with other studies, they also found an indirect effect of principals' leadership on classroom teaching. They found that the only factor that is significantly associated with classroom instruction is the learning climate of the school when between-school dynamics are

examined. Their finding suggests that principals can promote the quality of the instructional practices of teachers through their influence on the learning climate. The indirect influence of principals on the quality of teachers' instructional practices through program quality, such as professional development and program coherence, seems to be significant when in-school dynamics are addressed. School teachers who receive high quality professional development are more likely to possess high academic demand and better instructional practice by maintaining classroom order.

Enactment of Instructional Leadership

The emergence of instructional leadership definitions and the development of frameworks have satisfied the need for conceptualizing the term in theory; yet, as was stressed in the early studies, practices of instructional leadership in actual school settings through qualitative inquiry is an area that still needs considerable attention. For instance, De Bevoise (1984) contended that there cannot be a clear certain way of practicing instructional leadership; therefore, it is important to analyze how instructional leadership is being practiced in different educational contexts. Similarly, pointing out limitations in the literature on instructional leadership, Murphy (1988) stated,

Research that investigates the more indirect, less visible, and less technical ways that principals exercise their instructional leadership role is especially needed.

Studies that investigate the micro and macro contexts in which instructional leadership unfolds should also have a high priority. (p. 131)

Despite early attention to the need for specific practices of instructional leadership in various school contexts, responses to that gap in the literature mainly occurred after the 2000s, yet in a small number. For instance, Mitchell and Castle (2005) argued that the

concept of instructional leadership is vague because it is practiced differently in different contexts. In order to illustrate how Canadian principals understand and enact instructional leadership, they collected data from a sample that consisted of 12 purposively selected elementary school principals in southern Ontario, Canada. Those principals were selected from those who achieved huge impacts in building and improving teachers' instructional capacity. Drawing upon a qualitative method, the researchers collected data through semi-structured in-person interviews, focus group discussions, and in-school observations. The study's findings are consistent with the conceptual map of Hallinger (2005), which illustrated that principals think of instructional leadership through three components: curriculum expertise, providing professional development, and building a school culture conducive to learning. Furthermore, the study found that principals' enactment of instructional leadership was influenced by four dimensions: personal style that implies different leadership approaches, degree of coherence in their agendas, direction of instructional strategies, and availability of enabling structures such as meetings and workshops. The study further confirmed preceeding literature that instructional leadership is not practiced in the same way in different places and by different people; hence its' analysis should be context-based.

In order to unveil the mechanisms through which principals perform instructional leadership, Coldren and Spillane (2007) examined the role of boundary practices. Boundary practices have two components: boundary practice and boundary spanning activities. The authors defined boundary practices as routines which connect different communities of practice or constituencies, such as teachers and principals, and boundary spanning activities as individuals who connect different constituencies. The school sample was selected from those schools whose

teachers rated their principals as strong instructional leaders. The study found that effective leaders used various boundary practices to connect to teachers' instructional practices, including observing teachers and conducting formative and summative evaluations, collecting writing folders, monitoring student assessment results and using them to evaluate instructional programs, reviewing teachers' lesson plans, and orchestrating a major professional development program. In addition, boundary spanning activities helped principals connect teachers with external resources, such as professional development workshops. The study implied that principals who want to become effective instructional leaders can exert substantial influence on classroom instruction by using boundary practices.

Perspectives on Principals' Enactment of Instructional Leadership

The purpose of the previous section was to provide a framework within which the research on instructional leadership has evolved over time since the beginning of effective school research. My review of the literature started with factors leading to effective school research, which consistently contended that principals' involvement in educational issues is an important feature of schools that accomplish substantial student achievement (eg. Bridges, 1967; Bieve, 1972; Clark et al., 1984; Edmonds, 1979; Niedermeyer, 1977). However, effective school research has not been able to establish conceptual models associated with the term instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2012). Concrete models that categorize specific behaviors came out as a consequence of efforts of scholars who conducted a comprehensive review of effective school research (eg. McEwan, 1998; Murphy, 1990; Peterson, 1993; Weber, 1996). In the literature reviews, I also pointed out a different segment of research, which was predominantly concerned with investigating the association between instructional leadership and the teaching and learning that take place in schools (eg. Hallinger & Heck, 1996, 1998, 2010; Heck, 1992; Leithwood et al.,

2006; May & Spovitz, 2012; Robinson et al., 2008; Southworth, 2002; Supovitz et al., 2010).

Lastly, I briefly summarized a different type of literature that examined the specific means through which principals enact instructional leadership (eg. Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007).

Despite the existence of specific models displaying certain behaviors defined as instructional leadership, many scholars have suggested a different and sometimes contradictory definition of the concept as a result of the empirical research they have conducted on school leadership (Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Reitzug, 1997). This concurs with the argument that instructional leadership is considerably influenced by the educational context and the leaders' characteristics (Neumerski, 2012). The context is linked to how principals perceive and practice instructional leadership on a daily basis (Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Spillane, Diamond, & Jita, 2003; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond 2001). In this part of the review, I provide an analysis of different perspectives on how instructional leadership is understood and analyzed in a variety of qualitative and quantitative empirical research.

The Discussion of Principals' Direct versus Indirect Involvement

A considerable body of studies in the 1980s was designed to provide an understanding of the link between principals and instructional improvement. The concept of instructional leadership in these studies did not always imply principals' direct influence on classrooms and teaching. For instance, Gillat and Sulzer-Azaroff (1994) supported principals' direct involvement in instructional improvement and student learning. They argued that when the principal acts more like a teacher by observing classrooms, setting goals with students, and giving feedback and praise to students, student achievement is more likely to increase. In this perspective, the

principal is a strong instructional leader who should directly and actively engage in classrooms and work not only with teachers but also with students.

On the other hand, an important number of scholars have actually contended that direct influence is not as important as indirect influence, due to the nature of their job; hence, effective principals are more likely to affect teaching indirectly (Fireston & Wilson, 1985; Dwyer, 1985). From their perspective, instructional leadership might also involve what is traditionally considered to be managerial tasks, if such tasks provide an environment of support for instructional improvement and student progress (Kleine-Kracht, 1993; Mitchell & Castle, 2005).

Kleine-Kracht (1993) provided a different perspective on instructional leadership. She investigated how instructional leadership is carried out by conducting a qualitative case study of a high school that was recognized as a good school by the community, as well as by the US Department of Education. The author drew upon various sources of qualitative data, such as interviews, school visits, observations, and document analysis, to see an overall picture of the enactment of instructional leadership tasks. In this study, it appeared that the principal enactment of instructional leadership was through other people, such as chairs and administrators, by giving more authority to them so that they could exert more productive influence on teachers concerning instructional issues. The role of the principal as an instructional leader in this context was to select people who have more direct influence on teachers, to produce a work environment conducive to increased student success, and to encourage teachers toward change and innovation.

Blase and Blase (1999) also examined everyday practices of principals' instructional leadership, drawing upon teachers' perspectives. Data for this study was gathered using an open-ended questionnaire that asked teachers to describe in detail the characteristics or actions of their principals that helped them improve their instructional practices. The teachers' responses to the

questionnaires indicated that they did not want their principals to be directive in giving them instructional strategies; rather, they wanted to possess more autonomy in structuring instruction. Moreover, based on what teachers reported, the authors categorized principals' instructional leadership strategies into groups of activities—those which promoted reflection and those which provided teachers with professional growth. “Activities promoting reflection” included making suggestions, giving feedback and praise, using inquiry, and soliciting advice and opinions. Activities defined as providing professional growth included the study of teaching and learning, supporting collaboration among educators, and developing coaching relations among educators. In this context, the principals' instructional leadership role was more of creating opportunities and environments for teachers and teacher groups so that they could reflect on their own and colleagues' instructional practices.

Instructional Leadership as a Shared Responsibility

As schools have received more pressure through the prominent accountability movements, the support for teachers' involvement in instructional leadership activities has been substantial. Indeed, research indicates that school where teachers collaborate and take responsibility for improving the knowledge and skill of other colleagues are associated with effective organizations (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994). This finding supported the emergence of the idea of teacher leadership, which is based on the notion of empowering teachers to take more responsibilities beyond the classroom, such as getting involved in the decision making processes of the school and contributing to the professional development of other staff. In many cases, the way that teacher leadership is defined corresponds to distributed leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2005).

Distributed leadership. The idea of distributed leadership is based on the fact that carrying out all responsibilities of instructional, managerial, and political duties is beyond the capability of the one single person who is the school principal (Harris, 2009). Handling challenges to learning is much easier when people with different backgrounds, skills, and knowledge collaborate on the problem (Harris, 2008). Hence, the type of leadership that is distributed among the school community is more likely to create conditions within the school that are conducive to increased teaching and learning (Dimmock, 2011).

Leadership distribution can be carried out during various leadership processes, including decision making, improving student learning, empowering academic staff and students, and evaluating the schools' academic development (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). The school community can carry out these tasks by distributing the responsibilities among different school personnel, so that each person can become a part of the school-wide leadership. Leadership distribution, however, does not devalue the important role that formal leaders play. In the processes of leadership distribution, principals can lead and direct teachers and play the role of leader of leaders (Elmore, 2000).

Shared instructional leadership. The idea of distributed leadership has considerable implications for shared instructional leadership as well. The literature suggests that improving teaching and learning is not a straightforward task (Hallinger, 2012). It rather requires substantial amount of time and expertise to determine student needs based on data, to adjust the curriculum to student needs, to work with individual teachers to determine their instructional needs, and to provide the type of professional development that addresses the needs of teachers (Leithwood, 1994). In a school where instructional leadership is shared, each teacher who possesses more expertise in a particular subject matter takes formal and informal responsibility to contribute to

the professional development of each other. They collaboratively observe and reflect on the teaching practices of each other to solve problems related to classroom instruction. The formal leaders again play the role of leading leaders (Marks & Printy, 2003).

Spillane et al. (2001), for instance, develop a distributed perspective on the enactment of instructional leadership. In this study, they examined a number of schools to identify the type of leadership that emerged as a result of work regarding instructional improvement. In one of the schools, they observed that some important tasks of instructional leadership, such as forging close and friendly relationships with teachers, observing classroom instruction, and engaging in post-observation conferences, were enacted by the assistant principal. The principal, on the other hand, acted more as an authority figure whose connection with teachers was more formal and involved formal assessment of classroom instruction.

Shared instructional leadership integrated with transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership suggests that the principal plays a role of motivating and/or inspiring staff so that they develop awareness regarding school goals and prioritize the school to accomplish goals (Marks & Printy, 2003). Bass (1998) identifies four components of transformational leadership, including idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. A transformational leader demonstrates at least one of these functions.

Marks and Printy (2003) suggested that transformational leadership lacks an explicit focus on teaching and learning in the school. Therefore, they developed a study that linked transformational leadership and shared instructional leadership, in order to investigate the influence of an integrated model on student learning. Their research concluded that the school, in which the principal exhibits features of transformational leadership, and at the same time

instructional leadership is shared among the staff, has a higher performance in terms of the quality of pedagogy and student achievement scores.

International Perspectives on Instructional Leadership

The body of research that has been reviewed so far is based predominantly on US education and school context. Instructional leadership has also gained prominence internationally (Hallinger, 2012). Educational researchers in a large number of countries have investigated the instructional leadership behaviors of school principals, adapting the concept into their education and school context. For example, Brown and Chai (2012) expounded the efforts of the New Zealand government to build the instructional leadership capacity of novice school principals. Aligned with the available research, they developed an instructional leadership tool entitled “Self-assessment of Leadership of Teaching and Learning (SALTAL). The tool included various dimensions that enrich the scope of the instructional leadership concept, which has been primarily theorized by educational scholars from North America. Apart from key components that existed in PIMRS (Principals’ Instructional Management Rating Scale), an instructional leadership tool developed by Prof. Hallinger (1983) from North America, SALTAL also emphasized a collaborative leadership component (principals’ skills and competencies to work with others toward student achievement goal) and an ethical leadership component (dealing effectively and fairly with challenging staff issues). From this view, collaboration is a necessary skill of school principals that should be considered within the framework of instructional leadership.

Lee, Hallinger, and Walker (2012) conducted a qualitative study regarding the instructional leadership in international baccalaureate schools in East Asian countries, including Vietnam, Thailand, Hong Kong, and China. While they interviewed principals, teachers, and

students to understand the extent to which instructional leadership was distributed among different people, the study also involved important implications concerning the practices of instructional leadership in the East Asian context. As a result of the analysis of the interviews, they found that these schools had strong instructional leaders, yet their role was more as a facilitator who encourages the involvement of other staff in instructional leadership activities. However, a case study on a number of the Australian principals indicated that the way instructional leadership was enacted varied, depending on the principal. While some principals linked themselves more directly to classroom instruction, by spending a significant amount of time in classrooms to enhance teaching and learning, other principals worked with staff to build capacity as a means to influence instruction rather than engaging directly in the classroom (Gurr, Drysdale & Mulford, 2010).

Summary of Outstanding Issues and Questions

Educational research has overwhelmingly emphasized that principals should not be constrained to administrative activities; rather, they should be highly concerned with and involved in instructional and curricular matters in their schools. In this regard, instructional leadership studies have played an important role in informing both researchers and practitioners regarding the means through which school leaders might connect themselves with the core dynamics of the school—teaching and learning. The literature review on instructional leadership shows that the concept has emerged from effective school studies. Principals who focus more on teachers' competency and skills to teach and whether students learn have been found to be one of the indispensable components of effective schools.

Qualitative studies of effective schools have revealed a wide variety of behaviors and practices that are associated with instructional leadership. These behaviors and practices appear

more like a desultory scene of instructional leadership, until the time when scholars conducted extensive effective school research and organized those behaviors by developing instructional leadership models. These models were helpful for the field to conceptualize clearly the term and to conduct more sophisticated quantitative research. For instance, a considerable number of quantitative studies focusing on how instructional leadership might be associated with changes and improvements of teachers' instructional practices, and increases in students' academic achievement, came out after concrete models of the concept had been produced. Using various instructional leadership models, researchers reached the consensus that instructional leadership practices are substantial means through which school principals can be linked to the improvement of teachers' instructional practices. Since instructional improvement has a direct influence on student learning, school leaders' instructional practices were found to be indirectly associated with student learning. As a consequence, the literature on school leadership was able to conclude that principals are second to teachers in affecting student achievement.

Despite the fact that the development of instructional leadership models has made an important contribution to furthering the knowledge of how school principals work with teachers to enhance teaching, these models might also constrain the literature investigating the specific roles related to instructional leadership. Researchers have agreed that instructional leadership consists of a broad range of definitions and practices. Principals get involved in different practices, depending on the context they work in, and on their knowledge and beliefs regarding how to improve teaching and learning. For instance, while in some contexts the principal is considered as a strong instructional leader who is actively and directly involved in processes to improve teaching and learning, in other context principals are considered as agents who facilitate school instructional leadership among teachers by forging conditions for teachers to collaborate

and engage in reflection on their own and others' classroom practices. Another argument is that even managerial behaviors might be considered instructional leadership if they indirectly link to conditions that facilitate teachers' work. Instructional leadership, therefore, might imply different sets of practices for distinct principals and educational contexts; that is, a concrete model or definition may not be applicable to all principals or schools. This argument is also consistent with the literature which appears to emphasize different practices corresponding to principals assuming instructional leadership roles, and different means of enacting instructional leadership.

Furthermore, most of the practices or behaviors that are associated with instructional leadership were developed as a result of research on effective schools that made substantial progress in dealing with student failure and improving their achievement. This research, however, largely focused on the US context. The leadership practices emphasized in these studies, hence, can better represent the American education and school system, yet might have limited application to other contexts. As a consequence, it is possible to see efforts in different countries to develop their own understanding of instructional leadership that better fits their context. In sum, the need to investigate how instructional leadership is understood and enacted in different education and school contexts is substantial. Specifically, it is important to know what type of practices principals and teachers associate with instructional leadership, what constrains or supports principals to become instructional leaders, and how their personal characteristics and the characteristics of the context in which they work affect what they practice.

CHAPTER 3: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The literature suggests that leadership behaviors are substantially situated in context, and having an understanding of the context is crucial in examining and making sense of principals' leadership behaviors (Hallinger et al., 1996). In this part of the research, I provide a discussion of educational and social contexts associated with the Turkish educational system, in order to understand better the multifaceted issues that influence the development of principals' instructional leadership in Turkey. My analysis of the context involves various issues in relation to the Turkish education system. Specifically, I start with a discussion of educational structure, and talk about how someone becomes a principal in Turkey and what types of professional knowledge and experience they are likely to possess. Then, I shift the discussion to an examination of various issues that might constrain or support the development of principals' instructional leadership. These issues include the dominance of social mobility goals, recent educational policies and reforms from the Ministry, and the role of teacher committees in schools.

Bureaucracy and Centralized Control

The first educational reform in the history of Turkey took place in 1924, the second year of the declaration of the Republic. The prominent reform, entitled *Law on Unity of Education*, suggested that all educational institutions are to be combined and governed by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), in order to ensure centralized control of the state in the execution of all educational affairs (Erdogan, 2005; Gumuseli, 1996; Silman & Simsek, 2009; Simsek, 2004). The most comprehensive law that has determined the organization of the education system was introduced in 1992—Law on Organization and Duties of Ministry of National Education (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığının Teşkilat ve Görevleri Hakkında Kanun). According to the law, MoNE is

comprised of sections, including Central Organization (Merkez Teşkilatı), Provincial Organization (Taşra Teşkilatı), and Foreign Organization (Yurtdışı Teşkilatı) (MoNE, 2011b)

The Central Organization is located in Ankara, the capital city of Turkey, and it involves various branches, such as the Authority of Minister and the Turkish Board of Education, Principal Services Units, Counseling and Supervision Units, and Auxiliary Units. In general, the Central Organization is responsible for producing various policies, programs, rules, and regulations with regard to education and schools at the national level. For instance, the Ministry develops educational plans and programs; determines materials and textbooks and provides schools with educational materials; recruits school personnel, including principals, assistant principals, and teachers; determines qualifications for specific positions and defines the scope of responsibility for those positions; and evaluates the performance of recruited personnel (MoNE, 2011b). As a sub-system of the Provincial Organization, each province and district (each province has various districts) in the country has a branch of the Ministry that is responsible for the educational issues in that province or district. District Organizations in each province are connected to the Provincial Organization in that province. Schools are the last in the hierarchy, and they are governed by District and Provincial Organizations on behalf of the Ministry.

Principalship in the Turkish Educational Context

In this part, I discuss the principalship in the context of the bureaucratic and centrally controlled Turkish education system. Specifically, I address issues including the Ministry's principal recruitment policy, principals' formal job description, and the principal evaluation policy, in order to understand how someone becomes a principal, what types of professional experience, knowledge, and skills they are likely to have, and to what extent they are expected to assume instructional leadership roles.

Principal Recruitment Policy

The Ministry of National Education is the formal authority to produce and implement policies with regard to principal recruitment and appointment to different schools. According to the current recruitment policy of the Ministry, school staff that have accomplished two basic criteria—a) having at least a college degree, and b) having at least three years of teaching experience—are eligible for applying for a principalship position. Candidates are appointed to the schools based on the final grade they gained from a combination of administrator evaluation form and administrator selection exam results. The evaluation form is a tool that provides information regarding the background of the candidate, such as years of teaching and administrative experience, level of education, and awards and punishments. The administrator selection exam is designed to measure candidates' knowledge and competences in Turkish language proficiency (10%), formal writing (4%), communication (4%), school administration (4%), human relations (4%), school improvement (4%), ethical issues in education (5%), bureaucratic protocols (5%), and the Ministry's rules and regulations (60%) (MoNE, 2011a).

The Ministry's selection policy gives important information about the profile of knowledge and skills that principals are supposed to have. The most conspicuous point in the exam is the dominance of the criteria to know the rules and regulations developed by the Ministry, which occupies 60% of the total exam questions. The reason why rules and regulations are strongly stressed in the principalship exam is most likely a consequence of the centralized control system. The Ministry wants to make sure that schools are filled with principals who are knowledgeable about the way that the education system operates and are capable of running the school accordingly. Other components of the exam, such as bureaucratic protocols, language proficiency, and formal writing skills, also support the notion that the Ministry is primarily

concerned with the ease of the flow of information for maintaining a tight connection of the school to the Ministry, which is a critical characteristic of centrally controlled bureaucratic systems.

Taking into consideration the principal evaluation form as a criterion for the selection policy, it is difficult to predict the type of principal leadership roles that might emerge in the schools. However, we know that the components of the evaluation form—the level of education, and the years of teaching and administrative experience—are not strongly associated with instructional leadership, according to the contemporary literature in Turkey. This does not mean that they are not important at all. For instance, educational researchers suggest that having some level of teaching experience is crucial for effective enactment of instructional leadership, because this leadership type requires principals to have some level of pedagogical and content knowledge, and a sense of what good quality instruction in general looks like (Stein & Nelson, 2003). Teaching experience might be helpful for principals to acquire pedagogical and content knowledge that is more practice-oriented.

The principal selection exam gives some information about the role of principal as well. If the exam reflects knowledge and competencies properly, principals are presumably recruited from those who are skilled at turning national educational policies into practice at the school level; and Turkish language proficiency and formal writing indicates that they are supposed to have good formal communication skills. On the one hand, those types of knowledge and skills seem to be more compatible with managerial roles, such as completing the paper work required by the Ministry, managing the budget, and keeping track of the school and the academic schedule. On the other hand, other components of the exam, including school administration, human relations, and school improvement, which constitute 12% of the total exam questions,

involve knowledge and skills necessary for enactment of instructional leadership practice. This is because instructional leadership is seen as a substantial characteristic of principals aiming to improve the school. In addition, developing a good relationship with the academic staff is important for enactment of effective instructional leadership. The point, however, is that these components are in a minority, and they have not received much emphasis in the exam. Therefore, in general, based on the Ministry's principal selection criteria, it can be hypothesized that the managerial roles requirements are more salient and receive greater attention than instructional leadership roles.

Principals' Job Description

As discussed above, the principal selection criteria provide some information regarding the type of knowledge and skills that principals are supposed to possess before they are actually recruited. However, this information is limited in that it is difficult to predict the type of leadership roles they will be taking on once they start their work at a school, unless we look at the official documents that elaborate principals' responsibilities. Given the selection criteria, the type of knowledge they are supposed to have is known, but it is not clear what type of behaviors principals will be required to practice. Therefore, I intend this part of the discussion to include an analysis of official documents, such as the job description that expounds the expected roles of principals.

As discussed earlier, due to the centralized control characteristic of the education system, it is the Ministry of National Education that decides the responsibility of school principals in Turkey. Looking at the scope of the principals' job description as determined by the Ministry, we see that it encompasses both managerial and instructional leadership, even though it is not difficult to recognize that there is more emphasis on managerial responsibilities, such as

maintaining discipline, managing the budget, and ensuring the availability of school infrastructures. It is stressed in the rules and regulations which define the principals' job that principals are also the instructional leader in their school, and they are required to take on various instructional leadership behaviors, such as developing a school vision, improving the quality of teaching, supporting professional development, and rewarding successful students (MoNE, 2000). Given that definition, one would expect that Turkish principals develop a school vision and establish specific goals, engage in activities to evaluate the instructional practices of teachers, take initiative to respond to the needs of academic staff, have understanding of success for students, and reward students based on accomplishments.

Although it is promising to see that principals are expected to assume the instructional leadership role, the scope of instructional leadership responsibilities is usually abstract and narrowly defined. For instance, one of the responsibilities of principals is defined as “taking necessary steps to develop and improve school personnel” (MoNE, 2000). Giving this statement, it is evident that principals are required to work on teacher improvement, yet it is up to principals to decide what the necessary steps are. On the one hand, it is not always a disadvantage to have a lack of clarity in a job description, since weak definition of a job responsibility in a context of a strictly centralized education system might give principals a certain level of discretion in their enactment of school and personnel development. On the other hand, professional discretion might be problematic in the Turkish school context, where principals suffer from the paucity of available resources and inadequate in-service and pre-service training opportunities, which presumably hinders their capacity for instructional leadership (Gumuseli, 1996).

Abstract definitions of instructional leadership are not always the case. Recent regulations by the Ministry regarding the job description of principals seem to be clearer, more directive, and

more supportive of principals' involvement in instructional matters than they were before. For instance, in 2010 the Ministry added two new items to the job description of principals, one of which is directly related to instructional leadership. According to the recent regulations, it is now mandated that the school principal "observes the classroom instruction of each teacher at least once in each semester and provides guidance so as to improve teachers' performance" (MoNE, 2010). Since rules and regulations produced at the ministry level are a must for schools to implement, I now expect that the instructional behavior of principals, defined as direct supervision of classroom instruction, presumably increased in quantity across the country after 2010. Based on the regulation, I also presume that principals are engaged more in the classroom practices of teachers; they have a better sense of what good instruction looks like; and they are involved more in conversations with teachers to give them feedback about teachers' strengths and weaknesses, and to make suggestions about the ways to improve or directly to provide opportunities for teachers to promote practical skills.

School Inspection System

Annual school inspections by the Ministry constitute a substantial component of the education system in Turkey. The duty of school inspection is carried out by official inspectors assigned from the Ministry. They are responsible for inspecting the school in general, and for the performance of principals and teachers specifically. According to the Ministry, inspection has a wide variety of purposes, such as determining problems associated with teaching and learning; making sure that the school is operated based on principles of national education, and that the school uses time, materials, and human force effectively and efficiently; evaluating the performance of school personnel such as teachers and administrators; contributing to the communication and relationships among teachers, administrators and parents; increasing job

satisfaction and moral; and raising the outcome and effectiveness of the school to the highest level. Based on these purposes, the inspector observes the physical environment of the school and classrooms; engages in active communication with the principal and investigates documents about the school activities and progress; and evaluates teachers' performance by examining their annual plan, observing instructional practice, and checking for student learning. The outcome of inspection is a school inspection report that involves a summary of the strengths and needs of the school, the performance of administrators and teachers, and a corresponding grade for each personnel (MoNE, 2001).

School inspection includes considerable information concerning what the Ministry holds principals responsible for. The principal evaluation form, one of the outcomes of school inspection associated with the performance of principals, is the most helpful tool in order to investigate the type of behaviors that they are more likely to perform. The form is divided into, and therefore evaluates principals' performance, in five categories: maintaining the physical conditions of the school, maintaining and evaluating educational activities, carrying out bureaucratic responsibilities, taking care of administration and community involvement, and being involved in personal improvement activities. When the sub-components of each category are further examined, it becomes clear that the only category that is directly related to instructional leadership is maintaining and evaluating educational activities. This category requires school principals to be involved in activities such as detecting instructional problems and working on them for solutions; making sure that educational outcomes are aligned with school goals; measuring and evaluating student achievement; securing the uniformity of teachers' planning, implementation, and evaluation strategies; searching for the reasons of lack of student success; and developing strategies to deal with problems (MoNE, 2001). Given those

benchmarks on which principal evaluation is based, it makes sense to expect that school principals establish school goals and manage instructional programs by monitoring student progress, determining a clear process for planning and implementing instruction, evaluating student achievement, monitoring student progress, and dealing with impediments to student success.

School inspectors evaluate principals' performance based on those five categories in the principal evaluation form; they give a grade corresponding to each category, and they also give a final grade that shows overall performance. Even though the inspection law does not provide sufficient information regarding the significance of this grade, one clear point is that those who acquire a high grade might be rewarded depending upon suggestions by the inspector. At the same time, it is stressed that the purpose of inspection is not to judge but to provide recommendations and inform the Ministry about the need of professional development for school personnel. Therefore, the principal evaluation form serves as a tool for the Ministry to unveil areas in which principals are in need of improvement. Corresponding professional development topics and activities are determined based on reports provided by the Ministry. Professional development activities are mostly carried out through seminars held at the state level and the city level.

Overall, examining the principal recruitment system, the formal job description, and the evaluations via school inspectors, it is evident that school principals are expected by the Ministry to perform more managerial duties. However, as indicated above, there are also some components in each system that require principals to conduct various instructional leadership activities. These include developing a school vision, ensuring consistency among teachers in their strategies to plan and implement instruction, evaluating student performance, taking

necessary steps to help teachers improve, observing instruction and giving feedback to teachers, investigating problems associated with lack of student achievement and corresponding solutions, and rewarding student success.

Although the analysis of the principalship in the Turkish context indicates that the Ministry mandates school principals to get involved in instructional leadership activities in addition to performing managerial tasks, quality is always a concern due to several reasons. One of the very first problems is related to the Ministry's principal selection process. The selection criteria, including the principal evaluation form and the exam, do not take into account formal training regarding the principals' effectiveness in improving teaching and learning. Hence, it can be argued that the criteria involved in the Ministry's principal recruitment policy are not capable of selecting effective instructional leaders (Ada & Gumus, 2012; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013). Second, as mentioned in the beginning, because the system is too bureaucratic and deals with a large number of bureaucratic issues that are everyday activities of principals, they might lack sufficient time to get engaged in instructional leadership behaviors, such as classroom observations, in a systemic manner (Gumuseli, 1996). Third, it is always a concern that school principals may simply get involved in instructional tasks, such as establishing goals, observing teaching, and giving feedback, with the purpose of meeting the requirements mandated by the Ministry, instead of seeing the process as an avenue for teacher improvement. Fourth, in order for principals to conduct effective classroom observations and provide teachers with constructive feedback, it is articulated in the literature that they need to acquire at least some level of content and pedagogical knowledge in a variety of subject matters (Stein & Nelson, 2003). However, due to a number of reasons, it is less likely that Turkish principals acquire such knowledge to become effective instructional leaders.

First, university departments that prepare school administrators are critical sources for principals to gain skills and knowledge regarding instructional leadership. However, most leadership programs are theory-oriented and do not offer practice-based courses that can prepare principals for actual school conditions (Ada & Gumus, 2013; Gumus & Bellibas, 2013). Furthermore, Ada and Gumus (2012) compared educational administration programs in Turkish universities to those in US universities, and they found that most programs in Turkish universities do not offer courses aiming to teach the knowledge and skills pertaining to instructional leadership. Second, as discussed above, professional development activities for school principals involves only seminars that are organized by the Ministry, based on the reports of school inspectors. Many researchers have pointed out that since the inspections depend mostly on the subjective judgment of the inspector, are conducted once or twice a year, and are done in a short period of time, they are not capable of determining the actual needs of principals (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Memduhoglu & Zengin, 2012; Taymaz, 2002; Uysal, 2011). Therefore, corresponding professional development is less likely to be effective in helping principals gain knowledge and develop skills to become instructional leaders.

Tension in Educational Goals

Establishing consistent educational goals plays a deterministic role in producing an effective education system which supports student success. Labaree (1997) identified the US education system as driven by three major goals—democratic equality, social efficiency, and social mobility. This way of classification also serves as a framework within which I discuss Turkish national educational goals. He indicated that from the perspective of the *democratic equality* goal, education serves the public benefit and is designed to prepare students for good citizenship and political roles. From the viewpoint of the *social efficiency* goal, however, the role of

education is to help students gain skills required for the economic growth of the country. These two goals are based on the notion that education should be a public good and should promote society as a whole. By contrast, the *social mobility* goal considers education as a private good which intends to provide individual students with credentials that will enable them to improve their own social position.

In the Turkish education context, the primary goal of the national education system is based on *democratic equality*. It is stressed in the *main law of national education* that the purpose of primary schools is to raise citizens according to principles of the country, such as democracy, to augment student awareness regarding their personal skills, and to help them learn the national culture and become a member of the larger society, and so on (MoNE, 1973). Similarly, at the secondary level, educational goals are also based on *democratic equality*. For instance, *the law on the secondary school* describes the purpose of the school as “helping them recognize the society by providing students with the basic cultural knowledge and by helping them gain consciousness to search for solutions to the problems and to promote social and cultural development of the country.” At the same time, there is also a particular emphasis on social efficiency at the secondary level. The same law states that “the purpose of secondary education is to prepare students for higher education or/and occupations, or/and for life and work (MoNE).” It is evident that these types of goals are very abstract, and it is very difficult to measure the extent to which they are accomplished (Erdogan, 2005). Because it is difficult to measure, the primary concern of the Ministry has been about the processes of schooling rather than the outcomes. As a consequence of the nature of national educational goals, I argue that at the school level there is not any mechanism from the Ministry that pressures principals to increase student achievement. That is, there is a lack of incentive for principals to increase

student achievement. In other words, principals will not be penalized due to student failure, or awarded in the case of increased student success.

National exams, on the other hand, occupy an important part of students' life in Turkey. Students who desire to acquire esteemed social positions have to go through two critical exam systems in their K-12 education experience: high school and university entrance exams (Ozoglu, 2011). As discussed above, the national educational goals are based predominantly on democratic equality, and therefore an increase in test score is not a primary goal. Yet the educational system is organized in a way that makes it unable for students to attend a good quality high school unless they pass the high school entrance exam. It is also not possible for students to attend college without earning a high score on the university entrance exam. Based on the reality of exams, it could be argued that even though educational goals emphasize democratic equality and social efficiency, the system that is organized around exams better fits the social mobility goal. This presumably causes a tension between the interests of national education and of parents: Most parents consider education as a credential for students to be eligible for taking the university entrance test, in order to get a college degree for better social positions; by contrast, according to the Ministry, it is a process to prepare good citizens for society and for the job market. Therefore, increases in students' test scores are the primary purpose of parents; yet school personnel do not pay much attention to what students get on tests.

In this context, where the majority of school personnel such as principals do not care much about student test scores, yet the national level exams are part of the education system that parents and students care about the most (Aksit, 2007), the development of *dersane* (private tutoring institutions) and private schools becomes inevitable. Most parents and students seek out private tutoring institutions and private schools which are highly motivated to get students high

test scores on the national exams, rather than expecting public schools to prepare students for the national exams (Ozoglu, 2011). In addition, owing to the nature of the centralized education system, parents exert the least influence (if not none) on the decision-making mechanism of public schools, such as curriculum and teacher selection. Therefore, it would make sense to argue that parents put pressure on principals at the private schools, rather than on those working at the public schools, so as to make necessary changes and improvement in the private school to increase student test scores. Public school principals who do not receive pressure, either from the Ministry or from parents, are less likely to engage in activities that promote student test scores, simply because there is no pressure from parents or the Ministry for them to do so.

Unlike public schools, it is more likely that private schools and tutoring institutions receive pressure from parents as well as the market of private schooling, particularly in regards to student learning outcomes (Friedman, 1997). They receive pressure from parents because parents want their children to get a high score on the national exam. They also receive pressure from the market since there is a substantial competition among private schools in Turkey in terms of getting the largest number of students either to the best high schools or to the best colleges in the country. Teachers' and principals' performances are judged based on whether student test scores increase. As a result, it is meaningful to expect that private school principals have more concerns about classroom instruction and student test scores, and hence instructional leadership is more salient among private school principals. Specifically, we expect that private school principals establish academic goals and set high expectations for individual students to get higher test scores; they monitor students' academic progress to make sure that students' test scores are in a trend of constant increase; they supervise and evaluate teachers' instructional practices; and they provide incentives for teaching and learning to ensure that schools have good

quality teachers that help students get the highest possible score in the national exams. However, these are exclusively based on an assumption. We do not really know whether or to what extent principals in private schools actually do assume instructional leadership roles with higher frequency than public school principals do, since there is a lack of research examining instructional leadership in private schools in Turkey.

Taking into consideration all the factors I discussed above, I assert that it is less likely that public school principals take on instructional leadership roles. In fact, most of the literature in Turkey concurs with this argument. For example, investigating elementary school principals' instructional leadership behaviors from the teachers' perspective, Aksoy and Isik (2008) found that the most frequent behavior of public school principals is to ensure that classes start and end on time, yet visiting classrooms and observing teachers' instructional practice is only done on an occasional basis. Similarly, another study concluded that overall the instructional leadership behaviors of public school principals are low in frequency, particularly in the sub-component of making professional development opportunities available for teachers (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013). However, most studies of the instructional leadership capacity of school principals in Turkey have focused on elementary school. The need for additional research that includes middle and/or high schools is substantial so that a more complete understanding of instructional leadership in Turkish context is possible.

Recent Educational Policies and Reforms

Despite the current situation, there is also some evidence which supports the development of instructional leadership in Turkey. The first one is related to the abolishment of *dersane*(s), private tutoring institutions. The *dersane* is usually seen as a threat to the prominent principle of the education system—equal opportunity. Therefore, the current government is decisive in

abolishing the *dersane* and allowing those institutions to establish or shift to private schools. As a consequence of this policy, a dramatic increase in the number of private schools is highly likely. At the same time, it is predicted that students who cannot afford private education will stay in public schools, and these schools will regain attention from students, parents, and the community. Public school teachers and principals will presumably receive pressure from parents to better prepare children for national exams.

International exam results such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) show that on average Turkish students are performing below the average of students from OECD countries (OECD, 2004). Lack of success has made a significant impact on national educational policy, particularly in the last eight years. In 2005, the Ministry of National Education introduced a national curriculum reform that pays more attention to classroom instruction and student achievement (Aksit, 2007). The reform aims at improving the national curriculum by shifting classroom teaching from teacher-oriented to student-oriented instruction, and implementing project-based student assessment (Talim Terbiye Kurulu, 2005). It is my conviction that such changes will also affect the role of principals. As I discussed earlier, principals are primary personnel responsible for implementing policy by the Ministry at the school level. Because the nature of the policy change is related more to classroom instruction, as a result of the new policy change principals should engage more in the classroom in order to make sure that teaching and learning activities are consistent with the Ministry's policy.

Similarly, recently the Ministry revealed another national project that aims to improve classroom instruction, by expanding the availability of technological devices, including projectors and interactive white boards. The project also involves distributing tablet computers to each student and teacher (FATİH Project, 2012). The reform that attempts to improve teaching

and learning in schools in Turkey presumably puts significant pressure on school administrations. Principals have to make sure that all devices are installed in the classrooms, and that teachers are integrating them into their teaching style. They will presumably engage more in discussions with teachers about the problems of technology integration into instruction and possible solutions. This in turn will promote their understanding of classroom instruction and their roles as instructional supervisors.

Teacher Committees

Teacher subject matter or grade level committees, known as *zümre öğretmenler kurulu* and *şube öğretmenler kurulu*, are important structures for principals in Turkish schools to become more involved in indirect instructional leadership activities. The Ministry mandates that teacher committees should hold meetings at the beginning of the academic year, during the academic year, at the end of academic year, and whenever is needed. The meeting consists of assistant principals, teachers, and, in some cases, students as well. The purpose of the meetings is to establish consistency among educational programs and courses; to manage effective use of educational materials and labs; to prepare instructional techniques and materials for courses; to discuss various educational and instructional problems and seek solutions to them; to investigate the appropriateness of the school environment for student success; to discuss up-to-date issues regarding education; to produce common measurement and assessment materials; and to seek solutions to students' problems.

In a hierarchical school system, where the establishment of informal relationships between the teacher and the principal concerning instructional improvement may be difficult, it is more convenient for teachers who teach the same subject matter to contribute to the instructional improvement of each other in an informal way (Karaman, Yucel, & Donder, 2008).

Although the teacher committees also involve dealing with various managerial issues, they can be a substantial opportunity for teachers to collaborate in conducting informal classroom observations and to share instructional materials. Through subject matter committee meetings, teachers can discuss instructional issues that emerge from their observations, and they can give feedback to one another.

In 2006, the ministry also required teacher committees to provide a comprehensive report regarding instructional techniques, materials, and student progress to the principal (MoNE, 2003). This involves opportunities for principals to enact the instructional leadership role. Principals, for instance, can play an important role in contributing to the effective operation of teacher communities. Research indicates that principal involvement in direct supervision of teaching and the management of classroom instruction facilitates the development of professional collaboration among teachers in the Turkish context (Gumus et al., 2013). Principals can encourage and facilitate the learning of subject matter teachers, by joining teacher committee meetings and listening to their ideas, providing necessary resources to make their work more effective, and creating school-based professional development opportunities.

Implications

In this part of the proposal, I have provided a discussion of instructional leadership in the Turkish context in order to understand the factors influencing its development. Specifically, I discussed the principalship in Turkish schools, including their recruitment, job description, evaluation, and professional development opportunities. In addition to the principalship, I also examined the structure of the education system, national educational goals, the social context, the Ministry's contemporary policies, and their potential impact on the development of principals' instructional leadership behaviors.

Overall, the analysis of the principalship suggests that there is more emphasis on the managerial role of the principal in comparison to instructional leadership roles in Turkey. Principals are recruited by the Ministry through exams and principal evaluation forms. When the scope and content of the exams and evaluation forms are analyzed, it is clear that principals are selected from those who are more familiar with the rules and regulations produced by the Ministry, who are more capable of communicating with the upper authorities in the hierarchy of the education system, and who possess more experience in administration and knowledge concerning the school system. The formal description of the principals' job is also consistent with their recruitment policy, such that it also involves more tasks associated with managerial roles. However, it is also the case that recent regulations have mandated principals to get involved more in classroom instruction, by observing teaching and giving feedback to teachers. This is more likely to make them become closer to the classroom, where teaching and learning take place, and to influence the amount of time they spend on instructional tasks.

Lastly, the principal evaluation policy of the Ministry was analyzed. The analysis showed that principal evaluation, which is done once or twice a year in a short period of time by the inspectors sent from the Ministry, is less likely to assess principals' actual performance. Particularly because instructional leadership is a continuous process, inspectors can hardly judge principals regarding their effectiveness in working with teachers to improve instruction. Therefore, professional development offered to principals as a result of reports from inspectors is presumed to be lacking in terms of a comprehensive focus on the instructional leadership roles of principals. This situation is more likely to reduce the control of the Ministry on the principal's role as instructional leader, and therefore impair the accountability of principals to get involved in instructional improvement activities.

Furthermore, the analysis suggested the conflict of school principals being more likely to devote attention to the effective operation of the school instead of to the primary outcome— student achievement due to the lack of incentives from the Ministry for student learning. It can therefore be argued that public school principals' primary concern is not to improve student test scores, but rather to establish a school that runs smoothly. On the other hand, in an education context where national exams are critical in determining students' future academic endeavors, private school principals who receive pressure from parents for better student test scores are more likely to be concerned about the quality of teachers and classroom instruction. Therefore, it is much more meaningful to expect that the instructional leadership occurring at private schools is stronger, compared to public schools. As indicated earlier, this argument is only based on an assumption; that is, there is lack of focus on private school principals in terms of what instructional leadership roles they in fact often engage in, to what extent they engage in them, and what they understand about instructional leadership.

However, I also mentioned significant educational reforms introduced by the Ministry with the purpose of improving teaching and learning in schools. Aligned with such reforms, regulations that require principals to engage in classroom observations and feedback to teachers could be considered substantial factors that might contribute to the development of the instructional leadership role of principals in public schools in Turkey. Therefore, additional research is needed to examine whether and to what extent recent educational reforms and legislation that mandate principals' involvement in classroom instruction actually influence their understanding and practices of instructional leadership.

CHAPTER 4: METHODS

The purpose of the research was to provide an extensive picture of the development of instructional leadership in Turkey. More succinctly, the study aimed to illustrate the level of principals' instructional leadership behaviors and the factors associated with that level of leadership, by using a large-scale international survey (TALIS) data set. In addition, it aimed to further the explanation of the quantitative findings by gathering qualitative data that focused on principals' and teachers' perceptions regarding their understanding and enactment of instructional leadership. Such a comprehensive study can hardly be done using a single method. Therefore, I intended the study to gather data utilizing the elements of different methods—qualitative and quantitative. In this chapter, I first present a discussion concerning why incorporating a blend of methods might develop better understandings of instructional leadership in schools. I then elaborate a mixed methods approach that best fit the nature of my research questions. Finally, I sketch out the framework for my data collection and analysis process.

Mixed-Method Design

There are two research methodologies dominating educational research: quantitative and qualitative. Each methodology has strengths and limitations that both attract and repel researchers (Drew, Hardman, & Hosp, 2008; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). The way these methodologies are employed in research demonstrates a tendency toward dichotomy; that is, studies are usually dominated by either a qualitative or a quantitative method (Newman, 2000; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). Yet there is also an increasing number of cases that combine some elements of both types to conduct more reliable, comprehensive, and extensive investigations of a proposed problem. These combinations are called *mixed method designs* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007).

In contrast to the general inclination toward research based on one single methodology, a growing number of researchers point out the capacity of mixed method designs to produce in-depth answers to targeted research questions (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Johnson et al., 2007; Lopez-Fernandez & Molina-Azorin, 2011; Newman, 2000; Siraj-Blatchford, Sammons, Taggart, Sylva, & Melhuish, 2006; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010; Viadero, 2005). Mixed method approaches were born as a response to the limitations of using one single methodology (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Hence, the purpose of using mixed methods is to enhance the strength of research findings and to lessen the limitations stemming from each approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Drew et al., 2008; Kopacsi & Walker, 2000).

Each of the three approaches has its own ontological assumptions; that is, each has a different definition of reality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Quantitative researchers' definition of reality is based on the positivist viewpoint—they seek one unique reality that is objective and undisputed (Johnson & Gray, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002; Schulenberg, 2007). According to their understanding, knowledge is free from the researcher and context. Because of this, quantitative researchers ultimately want to produce generalizable conclusions (Biesta, 2007). Although the sample size is limited compared to the actual population, the participants are ideally randomly selected (Drew et al., 2008), in order to provide more reliable information about the large number of people to whom the results can be generalized (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011).

Quantitative design uses a limited sample to represent the population concerning a given problem. Analyzing various variables by using quantitative methods enables researchers to test differences while controlling for a number of factors that might affect the targeted variable (Newman, 2000; Drew et al., 2008). Moreover, numerical scores are usually central to this type

of research. Results and conclusions derived from analyses are considered to be more objective and are less likely to be manipulated (Newman, 2000). These are considerable advantages that appeal to many researchers and policy makers who intend to influence government officials to make substantial policy changes.

However, positivist-based quantitative methodology also involves a number of limitations. The most conspicuous limitation of quantitative research is that the numerical representation of the unit of measurement can only provide a superficial understanding of performance, and it lacks the capability to provide a context-based understanding of the problem (Drew et al., 2008). For instance, instructional leadership includes a wide range of practices that vary, depending on school personnel and context. A quantitative design might give a sense as to which dimensions of instructional leadership are more or less prevalent; however, more in-depth investigation is required to uncover participants' beliefs, understandings, and practices, and their relationship to the context in which leadership occurs. The quantitative approach alone lacks the elements and characteristics that could support such a type of research (Viadero, 2005).

In contrast to the quantitative method, the qualitative method depends predominantly on constructivist and interpretist viewpoints that highlight the interpretable aspects of reality. (Johnson & Gray, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Sale et al., 2002). Reality is socially constructed; that is, “there is more than one reality due to a process of interpretation whereby the social actors negotiate meaning and understanding” (Schulenberg, 2007, p. 100). From this perspective, positivism, which seeks one undisputable reality, is problematic because one reality is not possible in a situation where different people understand the world from different viewpoints (Schulenberg, 2007).

Qualitative research aims to describe a particular situation extensively, by conducting an in-depth investigation of a problem in its natural settings, because the natural setting influences the way social actors understand the world (Drew et al., 2008; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). These characteristics of the qualitative approach are compatible with some of the research questions that I investigated: How do principals and teachers explain sources of support and constraints to instructional leadership behaviors in the Turkish school context? How is instructional leadership understood and enacted by school principals? Due to the nature of these goals, it is necessary to engage in deep conversation with principals and teachers to unveil their understanding of the reasons behind their current behaviors of instructional leadership.

Although there is not one single definition of mixed methods research, the consensus is that it aligns with a pragmatic orientation. The pragmatic approach rejects the dichotomy of constructivism and positivism. According to the pragmatic viewpoint, the way to “truth” is the method that is best suited to reaching research goals and purposes (Biesta, 2007; Howe, 1988). Incorporating the elements of both methods is possible and acceptable if this provides better answers to the proposed research questions (Biesta, 2007; Gorard & Taylor, 2004).

Depending on individual methods’ approach to “reality,” I was convinced that instructional leadership could be better understood by combining both quantitative and qualitative methods. I believed that each method alone could not provide convincing answers to the questions in the current study. For example, understanding the instructional leadership behaviors that Turkish principals are more frequently engaged in was possible through a quantitative approach. However, providing persuasive answers to the extent to which principals enact certain instructional leadership behaviors, how they enact them, and what factors influence

the way that they enact them required a method that brings together the components of both quantitative and qualitative methods in a systematic manner.

It is well articulated in the literature that the best way to determine which method to employ for a specific study depends on the research questions (Creswell & Clark, 2006; Gorard & Taylor, 2004; Viadero, 2005). We know that there are quantitative questions, such as how much of something is happening and where, that are amenable to quantitative methods, while queries into the how and why of these things are much less so. A combination of such questions in the same research requires a mixed method design.

The purpose of this study was not solely to examine factors that best explain the outcome or to analyze the situation and context; it was indeed to incorporate various features of both methods to provide a complete understanding of the research questions (Schulenberg, 2007). The study was compatible with a mixed method approach since it involved quantitative and qualitative questions. For instance, questions examining the influence of broad patterns of teacher, school, and principal characteristics on instructional leadership perceptions and behaviors were quantitative. These were more “what” and “to what extent” type of questions. Other questions examined the reasons behind principals performing certain tasks less or more frequently than others, and the way they understand and enact instructional leadership. These were more “how” and “why” questions. When all these types of questions were asked and answered in one single research project in a systemic cycle, a mixed method design was required.

Type of Design

According to Drew et al. (2008), the mixed method approach can be used in three ways depending on the research design—*data accuracy and validity, enhancing explanation*, and

extending the results. If the mixed method approach is preferred for the purpose of data accuracy and validity, the researcher uses both qualitative and quantitative methods at the same time to collect data corresponding to the question of interest. If the objective, on the other hand, is to enhance the explanation of a situation or finding, the initial step involves collecting quantitative data. The qualitative data, which constitutes the second step, is collected to further the description of a practice or the explanation of a problem. This approach is also called *explanatory design* (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Finally, a study aimed at extending the results requires the researcher first to collect qualitative data and then design a quantitative approach based on the initial findings of the qualitative approach. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) refer to this type of research as *exploratory design*.

My goal was to enhance understanding and further explanation with regard to the concept, scope, and practices of instructional leadership in the Turkish educational context. This type of research could best be conducted by an *enhancing explanation (explanatory)* mixed-method design. I first used a quantitative method to produce results regarding the extent to which instructional leadership is practiced by principals in lower secondary Turkish schools, as perceived by principals and teachers. I then used a qualitative method to deepen the investigation for understanding how the concept was understood and enacted.

This process could, however, simply be carried out by analyzing quantitative data first and then collecting and analyzing the qualitative data. Both methods should, however, be mixed in a way that feeds into each other, so that drawing a more complete picture of the problem is possible (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Teddlie and Tashakkori (2007) referred to this characteristic of mixed method research as an “iterative, cyclical approach to research, which includes both deductive and inductive logic in the same study” (p. 10). This required effectively

demonstrating the relationships between the two data sets and their analyses, and to bring them together in such a way that both parts interact with and inform each other in a systemic fashion.

In this research, I started the cycle with deductive logic, using quantitative methods. I examined the frequency of instructional leadership behaviors by school principals, drawing upon TALIS 2009, a large-scale international data set that measured teaching and learning conditions in schools as reported by principals and teachers. This provided an opportunity to make general conclusions regarding how often Turkish principals engage in each behavior associated with instructional leadership.

The quantitative cycle also involved inferential analyses. I looked at various school and personnel characteristics (of teachers and principals) to examine the association of these factors with the principal's instructional leadership behaviors. The results of these analyses informed the sampling strategy for the qualitative part. I determined the participating schools, teachers, and principals for the qualitative cycle, based on the results from the quantitative analyses. Moreover, the quantitative cycle involved an analysis of consistency between what principals reported about themselves as instructional leaders and what teachers reported about them. I then delved into the results derived from the quantitative analyses by extensively analyzing a number of selected cases through the inductive logic of qualitative research. In this second cycle of the research, I tried to further the explanation and to go beyond the frequency of specific behaviors; I strived for understanding why some behaviors seem to be more important to principals, while others received less attention, by interviewing principals, assistant principals, and teachers. and by investigating how principals enact specific behaviors of instructional leadership.

There are recent examples of studies in educational leadership which support the research design used here. For example, a study by Barnes, Camburn, Sanders, and Sebastian (2010),

examining the degree to which principals attending a district-based professional development program changed their practices, drew upon an explanatory, mixed method design. They used quantitative data (such as logs that described principals' daily involvement in leadership and management activities) to investigate change in principals' practices and qualitative sources (including interviews, observations, and narrative responses to video simulation), and to analyze the nature of these changes. Using a mixed methods approach enabled the researchers not only to examine whether professional development made a difference in the practices of principals, but also to shed light on the type and nature of changes and the process by which change occurred. Using qualitative data also helped verify the results of the quantitative analysis.

The design used by Louis and Robinson (2012), whose purpose was to examine how school principals understood external mandates and the way in which their understandings influenced their work, also models an explanatory approach. Specifically, they first collected quantitative data through teacher and principals surveys, and then they conducted a case study to "flush out" primary findings from the surveys. In other words, drawing upon a quantitative design, they used a large-scale data set to examine how principals' perceptions of external accountability affected their work. In addition to surveys, qualitative case analysis carried out through interviews was helpful to understanding further the complexity of the issue. For instance, the survey data showed that state and district policy mandates were more likely to increase the likelihood of principals engaging in instructional leadership activities. The case studies helped researchers unveil how principals situate the district and the state in their work, and what emotional factors were involved in the process.

Secondary Data and Analysis – the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)

The first cycle of this study involved analyses of a secondary data set, TALIS 2008, created by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). TALIS provided a rich set of data with regard to the teaching and learning conditions in lower secondary schools (grades 6-8) in many countries. It aimed to help countries examine the conditions of teaching and learning in their schools and to develop corresponding policies for the betterment of these conditions. The first TALIS survey was conducted in 2008 and included 23 countries, including Turkey (OECD, 2009). Data collection in Turkey involved 191 school principals and 3,637 teachers. The data was composed of principal and teacher survey responses about teachers' professional development, their instructional attitudes, beliefs, and practices, teacher appraisal and feedback, and principals' beliefs, attitudes, and practices of school administration (OECD, 2009). For this research, I focused attention on the TALIS teacher and principal survey items and indexes associated with instructional leadership.

The TALIS Principal Survey

The TALIS principal survey measured three dimensions that represent the construct of instructional leadership as a whole. These are:

- a. management of school goals;
- b. instructional management;
- c. direct supervision of instruction in the school,

Based on factor analysis and indexes done by OECD, instructional leadership constituted 14 items in total (see appendix 1). Six of them corresponded to *the management of school goals* and involved working on school goals, aligning classroom instruction and professional development activities with those goals, developing curriculum, and using data in the process of

setting goals and developing curriculum. Almost all instructional leadership models in the literature started with a dimension in relation to the school goals. For instance, in the instructional leadership model developed by Hallinger (2003) the management of school goals corresponded to “defining the school’s mission.”

Four items in the principal survey were indexed as *instructional management* and included discussing and solving classroom problems, paying attention to disruptive behaviors, and informing teachers about professional development activities. In Hallinger’s model, those items correspond to the dimension entitled “developing the school learning climate program.”

The final four items in the principal survey were indexed as *direct supervision of instruction in the school* and included observing classroom instruction, making suggestions to teachers about their practices, monitoring student work, and ensuring instruction to be consistent with the academic goals. This is similar to Hallinger’s “managing the instructional program” dimension, which involves supervising and evaluating teachers’ instruction, monitoring student progress, and coordinating curriculum.

There are some differences between the instructional leadership model in the TALIS principal survey and Hallinger’s model. For instance, while principals’ engagement in curriculum activities is indexed under the dimension of “management of school goals” in the TALIS principal survey, Hallinger listed development of curriculum under “managing the instructional program.” Another difference is that the TALIS principal survey lacked some key dimensions that existed in Hallinger’s model, such as providing incentives to teachers and learning and communicating school goals (see Figure 3).

Instructional Leadership in TALIS
Principal Survey

Hallinger's Instructional Leadership
Model

Management of School Goals

Teachers work according to goals
Use student performance to
determine goals
Working on school development plan
Making PD consistent with goals
Use exam results for curriculum
development
Coordinating curriculum

Defining the School's Mission

Frames the school's goals
Communicates the school's goals

Management of Instruction

Discussing classroom matters
Informing teachers about
opportunities to grow
Solving classroom problem together
Paying attention to disruptive
behavior

*Developing the school learning
climate program*

Protects instructional time
Provides incentives for teachers
Provides incentive for learning
Promotes professional development
Maintains high visibility

Direct Supervision of Instruction

Observing instruction
Giving teachers suggestions
Monitoring students' work
Ensuring classroom activities to be
consistent with goals

Managing the Instructional Program

Coordinates the curriculum
Supervises and evaluate instruction
Monitors student progress

Figure 3: Matching Instructional Leadership in the TALIS Principal Survey with Hallinger's Instructional Leadership Model

The TALIS principal survey instrument was given to 191 lower secondary school principals in Turkey in 2008; it asked them to choose from four types of frequencies—never, seldom, quite often, and very often—to indicate how often they perceived themselves as performing specific behaviors identified as instructional leadership.

The TALIS principal data included school and principal characteristics that made it possible to assess factors that might contribute to variations in instructional leadership. School

characteristics were (1) school type (public or private), (2) location (village, town, city, and large city), (3) percentage of parents with high school degree, (4) percentage of parents with collage degree, (5) number of students, and (6) number of teachers (see Table 2).

The school location variable was re-coded where categories included a very small number of schools and also to align better to a wider literature. The original data set identified five categories of location, including village, small town, town, city and large city. I combined the category of small town with town, and the category of large city with city; this led to a new location category system of simply village, town and city.

Table 2

Demographic Information for Schools in TALIS

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>School Type</i>		
PUBLIC	140	74.9
PRIVATE	47	25.1
Total	187	100
<i>Location</i>		
VILLAGE	7	3.8
TOWN	66	35.7
CITY	112	60.5
Total	185	100
<i>Percent of Parental Education (College)</i>		
LESS THAN 10%	74	40.2
10% -20%	36	19.6
20% -40%	32	17.4
40% -60%	23	12.5
60% OR MORE	19	10.3
Total	184	100
<i>Percentage of Parental Education (High School)</i>		
LESS THAN 10%	29	15.7
10% -20%	34	18.5
20% -40%	45	24.5
40% -60%	45	24.5
60% OR MORE	31	16.8
Total	184	100

Principal characteristics were (1) gender, (2) highest level of education, (3) total principalship experience, and (4) experience in their current school (see Table 3).

Principals' and teachers' experience categories were also re-coded. The TALIS data set included seven categories of principal and teacher experience, both in their current school and in total: 0-1 years, 1-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-20 years, and 20 years and

more. For the teacher data set, I combined the first two categories to create a 0-2 year category and the last two categories to create a 20 years and more category and, for reasons explained below, combined all other data into a 3-20 years category. The categorization of principal data was similar with one exception: I created “a 16 years and more” category due to the small number of principals in the last two categories.

The combinations were based on sample sizes and the educational context in Turkey. In Turkey, teachers are supposed to be supervised by a more experienced teacher or the principal during their first year of teaching. In fact, in their first year teachers are considered as trainees who are provided with extensive professional development by the Ministry. The second year then can be considered the year when these teachers actually start teaching. Therefore, the first two years represent an apprenticeship where new teachers receive a substantial amount of support from either the school's principal or an experienced teacher. The second category of data corresponds to teachers and principals with 3-20 years of experience. These teachers and principals are the mainstream and there is not much difference among them in the eyes of the Ministry, except for the fact that those with more experience are paid little more. The last categories—16 years or more for principals and 20 years or more for teachers, respectively—represent principals and teachers who are either at the age of or close to retirement. They are considered to be sources of feedback and support. A large number of new teachers are advised by these educators; therefore, their ideas, thoughts and relations developed as a result of many years of experience might positively or negatively affect instructional leadership activities in their schools.

Table 3

Demographic Information for Principals in TALIS

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
FEMALE	16	8.6
MALE	169	91.4
Total	185	100
<i>Educational Level</i>		
COLLEGE	178	96.2
GRADUATE	7	3.8
Total	185	100
<i>Experience in Their Current School</i>		
0-2 YEARS	56	30.4
3-15 YEARS	121	65.8
16 and MORE YEARS	7	3.8
Total	184	100
<i>Total Principalship Experience</i>		
0-2 YEARS	20	10.8
3-15 YEARS	111	59.7
16 and MORE	55	29.5
Total	186	100

The TALIS Teacher Survey

Part 32 in the official teacher survey consisted of nine items through which teachers assessed their principal's management style (see Appendix 1). These teachers were selected from the same 191 schools as the principals. Since two sets of data (the principal and the teachers) had a school ID for each school, it was possible to link teachers to their principal.

Two of nine items were associated with school goals: "principals define goals to be accomplished by the staff of the school" and "principals discuss educational goals with teachers" (OECD, 2009). A number of items in the teacher survey, such as defining school goals, ensuring that teachers work according to these goals, and working on school improvement, also existed in

the principal survey. An analysis of these items could bring considerable information about principals' capacity in *managing school goals* according to teachers' perceptions. Similarly, two items in the teacher survey (part 32)—“when a teacher has problems in his/her classroom, the principal takes the initiative to discuss the matter” and “inform teachers about possibilities for updating their knowledge and skills”—matched items in the principal survey factored as *instructional management*. However, two other items that constituted instructional management in the principal survey, including solving instructional problems and paying attention to disruptive classroom behaviors, did not exist in the teacher survey and unfortunately prevented comparisons.

The teacher survey also possessed a number of items indexed in the principal survey as *direct supervision of instruction in the school*. For example, just like the principal survey, teachers were asked to evaluate the principals' effectiveness in observing teachers' instructional practice and in making suggestions about the ways to improve. The teacher survey also included an item that is an important sub-component of instructional leadership: “complimenting teachers for special effort and accomplishments.” This item was consistent with *providing incentives for teachers*, as defined by Hallinger (2001, 2012).

Instructional Leadership in the TALIS Teacher Survey

Hallinger's Instructional Leadership Model

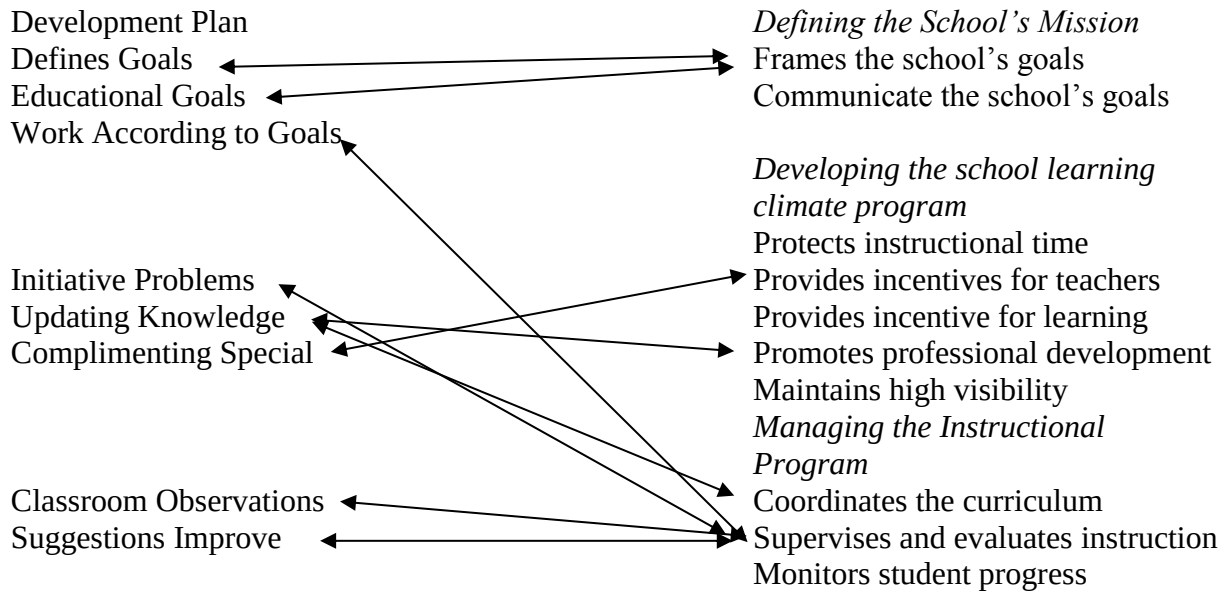


Figure 4: Matching Instructional Leadership in the TALIS Teacher Survey with Hallinger's Instructional Leadership Model

The TALIS teacher survey instrument was given to 3,637 lower secondary school teachers in 191 Turkish schools in 2008; it asked them to choose one from four responses of frequencies—never, seldom, quite often, and very often—that indicated the extent to which they perceived their principals performing specific school management behaviors (MoNE, 2010). Based on the literature, I considered 9 items as representing instructional leadership behaviors. The teacher data set also involved a number of teachers' characteristics: (1) gender, (2) educational level, and (3) total teaching experience (see Table 4).

Table 4

Demographic Information for Teachers in TALIS

	Frequency	Percentage
<i>Gender</i>		
FEMALE	1,755	55.5
MALE	1,405	44.5
Total	3,160	100
<i>Educational Level</i>		
COLLEGE	2,928	93.0
GRADUATE	220	7.0
Total	3,148	100
<i>Total Teaching Experience</i>		
0-2 YEARS	366	11.7
3-20 YEARS	2,254	72.0
20 and MORE YEARS	512	16.3
Total	3,132	100

Quantitative Data Analysis

Table 5

Research Questions, Corresponding Sources of Data and Analysis of Data

Research Questions	Source of Data	Data Analysis
1. How do principals in Turkey perceive and report their own instructional leadership?	TALIS Principal Survey	SPSS Descriptive Statistics
a. Which behaviors of instructional leadership are more or less prevalent in schools, according to principals?		SPSS ANOVA
b. How are schools' characteristics associated with principals' perceptions of instructional leadership?		Correlation and Regression
c. How are principals' personal characteristics associated with their perception of instructional leadership?		SPSS ANOVA and Regression
2. How do teachers in Turkey perceive and report the instructional leadership of their principal?	TALIS Teacher Survey	SPSS Descriptive Statistics
a. In which behaviors of instructional leadership are the principals strong or weak, according to teachers?		SPSS ANOVA
b. How are schools' characteristics associated with teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership?		Regression and Correlation
c. How are principals' personal characteristics associated with teachers' perceptions of their principals' instructional leadership?		SPSS ANOVA and Regression
d. How are teachers' personal characteristics associated with teachers' perception of their principals' instructional leadership?		
3. How do the reports of teachers compare to the reports of principals with regard to principals' instructional leadership in the Turkish school context?	TALIS Principal and Teacher Survey	SPSS T-test and Multiple Regression

The quantitative analyses of study data involved three main questions that aimed to investigate lower secondary school principals' instructional leadership behaviors in Turkey, according to principals' and teachers' perception (see Table 5). Each of first two questions was composed of three sub-questions. While the three sub-questions under the first main question examined principals' reports of their instructional leadership behaviors and their association with a number of school and principal characteristics, the three sub-questions of the second main question investigated teachers' reports of principals' instructional leadership and its relationship to a number of school and teacher characteristics. The purpose of the third question was to compare the principals' and teachers' reports.

Descriptive Statistics

I produced the mean and standard deviation of each instructional leadership item in the principal and teacher data sets, sorting by school type to separate the analysis of public and private schools. In general, these analyses provided an understanding of how principals rated themselves and how teachers rated principals as instructional leaders, and to what extent their rating differed between public and private schools.

T-Test

For question 3, I used a T-test to examine the difference between principals' report of themselves and teachers' report of their principals.

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

For questions 1b and 1c, I used one-way ANOVA statistics to test for mean differences in the principal instructional leadership indexes between and among categories of school and principals characteristics. For questions 2b, 2c, and 2d, I used the same method to test for mean

difference on instructional leadership items in the teacher survey between and among categories of teacher, school, and principal characteristics.

Correlation (r)

I used this analytical method for questions 1b and 2b, to examine the relationship between school size and principals' and teachers' perceived instructional leadership. My purpose was to test whether the perceived instructional leadership of principals changed with changes in the number of students in the school.

Multiple Regressions

I utilized multiple regression analyses for questions 1b, 1c, 2b, 2c, and 2d, to test the potential influences of teacher, school, and principal characteristics. Independent variables that were found to be significantly related to instructional leadership were included in the regression model. I used TALIS indexes of instructional leadership, including school goals and management of instruction and supervision, as dependent variables in the analyses of the principal survey data. With the teacher survey data I created a dependent variable of instructional leadership by aggregating nine items. For question 3, I employed multiple regression models to test the relationship between principals' self-reports and teachers' reports of their principals, using five instructional leadership items used in both surveys. The regression was run at the teacher level, with teachers in a school matched with their principal.

Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

The nature of research questions 4, 5, and 6 is qualitative, hence these questions required investigation of instructional leadership beyond descriptive survey analysis. Below, I articulate the design of the qualitative research, including selection of sites, schools, and participants, the sources of data, and the procedures to collect and analyze the data.

Table 6

Qualitative Research Questions, Corresponding Sources of Data and Analysis of Data

Research Questions	Source of Data	Data Analysis
4. How is principals' instructional leadership understood by administrative and academic staff?		
5. How is instructional leadership enacted by principals in lower secondary schools in Turkey?	Interviews and Documents	Qualitative Data Analysis
6. How do principals and teachers explain sources of support and constraints to instructional leadership behaviors?		

In the case of question 5, I used interview data triangulated with documents to investigate principals' enactment of instructional leadership. Note that the data gathered involved principals' and teachers' reports and perceptions of enactment, and not direct observations of behavior.

Participants

The method used to select participants was purposive sampling. Purposive sampling selects participants most able to inform the study's key questions (Maxwell, 2005; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). In this way, a deeper understanding of the proposed questions was possible (Patton, 2002). I selected principals among those who were known as "effective school leaders" by many people, including teachers and principals, working at various schools. Because my purpose for the qualitative section was to understand principals' understanding and enactment of leadership, a purposive sample helped me to include principals that had some level of knowledge or practice regarding instructional leadership. They were among the principals who strived for making a difference in terms of student achievement. This provided me with a chance to engage in meaningful communication with principals regarding how they thought of principals' involvement in the processes of improving teaching and learning, through which practices they

were involved, and finally what constrained their involvement. A principal who did not show interest in improving teaching and learning would not reveal the type of knowledge I wanted to acquire through this study.

I selected principals, assistant principals, teachers, and counselors in lower secondary schools (grades 4-8), in order to make the qualitative data consistent with the TALIS survey data. All sampled schools were located in the province of Istanbul, Turkey. Because Istanbul is the most populated and diverse province of Turkey, it provided the opportunity to select the most appropriate sample.

Selection of schools and participants was based on the quantitative findings. The quantitative analyses showed that school type (public vs. private) and principal genders were factors with significantly different means for principals and teachers' perceived instructional leadership. Therefore, I selected both public and private schools with a mix of male and female principals. In total, I chose six schools (two private and four public) and six participants in each school. Eventually, the qualitative sample involved 36 participants, composed of one principal, one vice principal, three teachers and one counselor in each of six schools.

It was not in my initial plan to interview school counselors. However, when I went to the first school to schedule interviews with the principal, I had a chance to meet the school counselor and explain the purpose and content of my research. He provided information about his work with the principal and teachers on student achievement, and he recommended I include school counselors in the research. He stated that school counselors play a critical role in the processes of helping students learn: counselors are involved in the teacher committee meetings, they frequently discussed with teachers concerning students' learning problems, and they determine student needs and teach parents and teachers about how they might address those needs.

Therefore, I decided that having a counselor's view on instructional leadership might provide a useful perspective, so I added them to the sample.

To identify schools, I first focused on school principals. I made contact with officers at the branch of Ministry of Education in Istanbul, and with several principals and teachers whom I was acquainted with, to find principals who were considered to be effective instructional leaders. (A challenge I encountered was that few people were familiar with the formal concept of instructional leadership, requiring me to explain what instructional leadership was, how it was defined, and what dimensions it involved. I created a pool of 30 schools based on their suggestions. I then decreased the list to 10 schools, considering their comments and the mix of school types and leaders that I sought. I made contact with principals working at those schools through school visits. After visiting eight schools, I had six willing principals in the desired mix of schools. Demographic information of the schools and participants is provided below.

Table 7

Demographic Information for Schools in the Qualitative Sample

Schools	Type	Size (students)	Socio-Economic Status (SES)
A	Public	940	Medium
B	Public	2230	Low
C	Public	780	Medium
D	Public	350	High
E	Private	540	High
F	Private	470	High

Table 8

Demographic Information for Principals in the Qualitative Sample

School	Code	Gender	Major	Teaching Experience	Experience in Current School	Total Experience
A	A1	Male	Elementary	3	4	4
B	K1	Male	Social Studies	4	4	4
C	E1	Male	Geography	5	3	10
D	M1	Female	Elementary	0	4	4
E	D1	Male	History Teacher	6	3	3
F	F1	Female	Elementary	6	4	4

Table 9

Demographic Information for Other Participants in the Qualitative Sample

Code	Gender	Status	Experience in the Current School	Total Experience
A2	Male	Math	3	20
A3	Male	Social Studies	2	19
A4	Female	Counseling	4	5
A5	Male	Assistant Principal	3	11
A6	Female	Turkish	4	9
K2	Male	Assistant Principal	5	14
K3	Female	Math	7	13
K4	Female	Turkish	5	12
K5	Male	Science	6	16
K6	Male	Counseling	3	5
E2	Female	Counseling	2	4
E3	Female	Social Studies	4	21
E4	Male	Turkish	2	14
E5	Male	English	2	10
E6	Male	Assistant Principal	3	13
M2	Male	Counseling	2	5
M3	Male	Social Studies	10	33
M4	Female	Math	2	13
M5	Female	Social Studies	8	12
M6	Male	Assistant Principal	2	4
D2	Female	Science	2	14
D3	Male	Counseling	3	12
D4	Female	Turkish	2	5
D5	Male	Social Studies	2	8
D6	Female	Assistant Principal	2	4
F2	Male	Counseling	4	4
F3	Female	English	3	12
F4	Male	Assistant Principal	3	18
F5	Male	Math	2	16
F6	Male	Social Studies	2	8

Sources of Qualitative Data and Procedures

Data for the qualitative study were gathered through interviews and documents. Interviewing is the most commonly used method in qualitative research (Rogers & Bouey, 1996). I conducted semi-structured interviews with teachers, principals, vice principals, and counselors. The face-to face interview protocol consisted of two sets of open-ended questions that asked participants about their understandings of the concept of instructional leadership, and about either their own practices (if principals) or their perceptions of their principal's practices (if otherwise). I prepared both sets of questions, assuming that Turkish principals and teachers may not be familiar with the formalized concept of instructional leadership but would understand many of the behaviors associated with it. Therefore, I attached a document to the consent form which provided a general definition and purpose of instructional leadership. I did not elaborate specific behaviors or practices associated with it, in order to reduce the bias due to the definition (see Appendix 3). The problem was that they were not familiar with the terminology. However, they understood and knew various behaviors associated with instructional leadership as a matter of professional awareness and practice.

I provided each participant with the consent form a day or two before each interview (see Appendix 3). Most interviews took place in teacher meeting rooms or offices in schools. Because the interviews were face-to face, confidentiality concerns were expected to emerge. Before starting the actual interview, I tried to establish a warm-up conversation. Conversations often started with introducing myself and letting the participant talk about his or her background. Many participants were interested in the education system and schools in the U.S., and in comparisons between the U.S. and Turkey. Other participants wanted to know more about the

importance of the research. For instance, two teachers asked me why I wanted to investigate instructional leadership and why instructional leadership is important.

After warm-up conversation, I showed participants the voice recording device I planned to use. Some participants seemed not to care much, but others had some concerns about the purpose of tape-recording. I explained that it was very important for me to catch every sentence they used for the sake of effective data analysis and to focus more on what the participant was talking about during the interview instead of spending my whole attention on note-taking.

Apart from interviews, other sources of data were documents. I asked principals to share with me any documents that might reveal information concerning the instructional leadership activities of principals. Principals in each school shared various documents, including the strategic plan of the school, decisions of grade level teacher meetings, classroom observation materials, and professional development provided to teachers.

Qualitative Data Analysis

Audio-recorded interviews were transcribed and analyzed in their original Turkish. I started data analysis right after the first interview, and I continued analysis as I interviewed the participants. Early data analysis was important since it enabled me to “focus and shape the study as it proceed(ed)” (Glesne, 2011). I used memo writing to refresh my mind and open it to new ideas and perspectives (Glesne, 2011), and I used rudimentary coding schemes to foresee where the study was going. In this way, it was possible for me to modify the interview questions to stay focused or to reveal additional information that seemed important (Glesne, 2011). The early data analyses also provided me with an opportunity to reflect on individual interviews and to figure out whether there were points that needed to be clarified.

I conducted the final interview data analysis after I completed all interviews and transcriptions. Final data analyses involved coding and displaying the data. I reflected and worked on coding schemes that I developed during early data analysis by further classifying and categorizing. This was a cycle of defining and sorting the data, which helped me to recognize the relationships of one code to others. By combining codes or dividing them into different codes, based on the relationships between them, I organized these codes into categories and sub-categories (Glesne, 2011).

Trustworthiness (Reliability and Validity Issues)

TALIS items have been validated by OECD, with reliability and validity analyses conducted for each country (MoNE, 2010; OECD, 2009). Promoting the trustworthiness of qualitative data, findings and interpretations are most commonly promoted through triangulation (Merriam, 2002), which can be carried out in multiple ways. In this research, I used two strategies of triangulation: multiple sources of data (such as documents and interviews with teachers and principals) and multiple methods (by using an enhancing or explanatory design to investigate the TALIS data through the qualitative study).

Another strategy to ensure validity is member checks. After I finished the analysis of the interviews and documents, I asked eight participants to comment on the findings, to make sure that the way I had categorized their views accurately represented their perceptions. (Glesne, 2011; Merriam, 2002). In addition, I included other researchers in the process of qualitative data analysis, by having two volunteer researchers reflect on my interpretations of the raw data.

A third issue is external reliability, which is usually interpreted as generalizability. As the TALIS data included a relatively large set of data from randomly selected schools all over the country, it may be possible to make generalizable conclusions. In the case of qualitative

research on its own, it is the reader who, based on the presented data and interpretations, decides whether findings might apply beyond their immediate context (Merriam, 2002). Therefore, I provide information of the context and empirical data (direct quotations and text) to let the reader decide whether findings might transfer to other contexts.

This study brings two data sets together, and it may explain and enhance what specific meanings we assigned to the TALIS data. TALIS data is an important source of information regarding principals' instructional leadership in Turkey. It provides a substantial amount of data that enables us to examine the extent to which principals are involved in certain tasks associated with instructional leadership, and the factors that explain principals' involvement in these tasks. But it is also important to point out that the information we can acquire using TALIS survey is limited in the sense that it does not allow an understanding of the way that principals carry out instructional leadership tasks that they are good at. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize TALIS findings without a qualitative inquiry that reveals their knowledge regarding how they interpret specific behaviors of instructional leadership and how they enact such leadership. A qualitative study supporting the TALIS data gives us more confidence in the generalization of findings.

Limitations and Threats to Validity and Reliability

Conducting a mixed method design was not straightforward. Cameron (2011) identified five challenges to mixed method research; some of those challenges applied here. This research was my first attempt to integrate quantitative and qualitative methods, so it presented a number of stretches and challenges.

An effective strategy of conducting mixed method research is to select qualitative sample from the participants who take part in the quantitative study. As the survey participants were not identified, this was not possible, and a purposeful sampling method was used instead.

However, the purposeful sampling enabled me to select participants that fitted the results of the survey. For instance, I selected principals from of both genders and school types, since these two factors significantly explained the level of principals' involvement in instructional leadership tasks.

Another sampling problem is about the teacher samples. When I made initial contact with school principals and explained the purpose of my research, most of them wanted to pick the participants in the school. Even though principals did not pick all participants, I had to accept their suggestions in several cases, due to teachers' inflexible job schedule. Principals tended to suggest those whom they were acquainted with for many years. Although this way of sampling involved some bias, it was helpful and meaningful to include these teachers in the study, since they provided deeper information about their principal than others did.

I paid specific attention to the place for the interviews, and picked the most appropriate one for the highest level of confidentiality. Nevertheless, some teachers were very cautious when they talked about their principals. Despite my considerable effort to explain the confidentiality of the study, some of them told me that they did not want to say things that the principal would not like to hear. For instance, a number of teacher participants complained about the type of formal leadership in Turkey, while stressing that their principals were not among those that they complained about. However, they provided me with more generalizable information about the type of instructional leadership that the principals they had been acquainted with carried out.

An important proportion of this study depended on self-reported data, which involves a high risk of bias. To reduce the bias due to self-reported data in the qualitative study, I used multiple sources of information, such as documents and interviews. In addition to that, I had to visit each school many times to conduct the interviews, owing to the inflexible schedules of

teachers and principals. During my visits, I had many chances to observe various activities. For instance, I spend several days with different principals, attending meetings with them and observing their formal and informal conversations with teachers. I also had an opportunity to participate in various subject matter and grade level meetings. I considered and used this process as a chance to ask additional questions and compare observational data with self-reported data. The process was useful to check the reliability and validity of self-reported data to an important extent.

Although it may not cause any bias, a limitation of the study was due to the difference between the teacher and principal survey items. In the principal survey, items were structured around sub-dimensions of an instructional leadership model. This enabled me to use sub-dimensions instead of using items to analyze the TALIS principal survey. However, the teacher survey items were not designed in a way that constituted a well-structured instructional leadership model. I compared a number of teacher survey items with those of Hallinger's instructional leadership model and the model developed for the principal survey, to create a list of items that corresponds to instructional leadership. The result was that not all items in both surveys were the same. There were only a few items in both teacher and principal surveys that were created to measure the same instructional leadership behaviors. I still used the teacher survey data to reduce the bias that arose from the self-reported data of the principal survey.

CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

The main focus of this chapter involves the analyses of the study's quantitative questions. My purpose in this chapter is to understand the strengths and weaknesses of principals in terms of instructional leadership, and to detect context factors that explain the variation in principals' behaviors by examining a secondary data set (TALIS) that included both teachers' and principals' perceptions. The findings presented in this chapter provide the sampling rationale for the qualitative field study. This chapter is divided into four sections.

Drawing upon the TALIS principal data set, the first section explores how principals consider themselves as an instructional leader, which behaviors are more or less prevalent, and what school context and principals' characteristics are related to the extent that they are engaged in instructional leadership as a main construct, as well as in each dimension that constitutes the construct of instructional leadership. I address each quantitative question (1a, 1b, and 1c) in sequence.

The second section uses the TALIS principal data set to show how teachers perceive their principal as an instructional leader. Specifically, questions here were designed to reveal information regarding what behaviors of instructional leadership are more or less prevalent among principals, and what school contexts and teachers' and principals' personal characteristics, are related to each item associated with instructional leadership. In this part I addressed each question 2a, 2b, 2c, and 2d in sequence.

The third section corresponds to the third quantitative question. It was designed to compare and contrast similar items in the teacher and principal data sets, in order to examine whether there were any significant differences between teachers' and principals' responses with regard to the extent to which principals demonstrate a specific leadership behavior.

The last section involves a summary discussion of findings of this chapter and the implications for the design of the qualitative component of this study.

Principals' Perceptions of Their Instructional Leadership

Question 1a: Which Behaviors of Instructional Leadership are More or Less Prevalent in Schools, According to Principals?

Question 1a inquired into principals' specific behaviors related to instructional leadership; it was designed to examine the frequency of behaviors being practiced as perceived by principals. This helps us understand which behaviors principals think they demonstrate more or less frequently. In order to answer the question, I developed descriptive statistics, including the mean and standard deviation, for each item of the principal data set, sorting by school type (public vs. private)

Descriptive analyses given in Table 10 below show that principals in public schools had the lowest means in the items "taking exam results into account in decisions regarding curriculum development ($\bar{X} = 2.62$)" and observing instruction in classrooms ($\bar{X} = 2.82$), and the highest means in the items "paying attention to disruptive behavior in classrooms ($\bar{X} = 3.52$)" and "solves problems together ($\bar{X} = 3.41$).” Principals in private schools, on the other hand, got the lowest means in the items "conducts classroom observations ($\bar{X} = 3.02$)" and "takes initiative to discuss problems ($\bar{X} = 3.09$)," and the highest means in the items "pays attention to disruptive behavior ($\bar{X} = 3.76$)" and "ensures that teachers work according to the school's educational goals ($\bar{X} = 3.68$)."

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Items Associated with Instructional Leadership in the Principal Survey

	Public School			Private School			Total		
	$\bar{X}$	N	SD	$\bar{X}$	N	SD.	$\bar{X}$	N	SD
<i>Management of Goals</i>									
Ensures PD Activity Consistent with Goals	3.07	139	.491	3.45	47	.503	3.17	186	.519
Ensures Teachers Work According to Goals	3.32	137	.484	3.68	47	.471	3.41	184	.505
Uses Student Results to Determine Goals	3.07	136	.533	3.38	47	.534	3.15	183	.550
Uses Exam Results for Curriculum Development	2.62	136	.799	3.30	46	.726	2.79	182	.835
Ensures Clarity for Curriculum Responsibilities	3.04	137	.534	3.36	47	.605	3.12	184	.570
Development Plan	3.32	135	.581	3.50	46	.624	3.36	181	.596
<i>Management of Instruction</i>									
Take Initiative to Discuss Classroom Issues	3.20	136	.630	3.09	47	.620	3.17	183	.628
Informs about Opportunities to Update Knowledge	3.15	137	.588	3.38	47	.573	3.21	184	.592
Solves Problems Together	3.41	136	.614	3.57	47	.617	3.45	183	.617
Pays Attention to Disruptive Behavior	3.52	137	.570	3.76	46	.480	3.58	183	.558
<i>Direct Supervision of Instruction</i>									
Observes Classrooms	2.82	137	.678	3.02	47	.737	2.87	184	.697
Gives Suggestions to Improve	2.93	137	.584	3.34	47	.600	3.04	184	.613
Monitors Student Work	3.12	137	.635	3.45	47	.503	3.21	184	.619
Ensures Classroom Activities Consistent with Goals	3.02	137	.492	3.40	47	.614	3.12	184	.550

These results suggest that in general principals paid more attention to school goals and management of instruction, and they were less involved in activities corresponding to direct supervision of instruction. Also, there were two items that implied collaboration between the principal and teachers; these were “the principal and teachers work on a school development

plan” and “when a teacher brings up a classroom problem, we solve the problem together.” Both items had relatively high means compared to other items. This suggests an inquiry into instructional leadership in the Turkish context that is based on collaboration.

Question 1b: How are Schools’ Characteristics Associated with Principals’ Perceptions of Their Own Instructional Leadership?

Question 1b inquired into how school context characteristics were related to the instructional leadership of principals, as perceived by principals. I conducted a one-way ANOVA for each independent categorical variable, including school type (public vs. private), location (city, town and village), percentage of parents with high school degree (less than 10%, 10%-20%, 20%-40%, 40%-60% and 60% and higher) and percentage of parents with bachelor degree (less than 10%, 10%-20%, 20%-40%, 40%-60% and 60% and higher) to answer the question. As for the continuous variable (school size), I conducted a Pearson’s Correlation analysis. I used three indexes of instructional leadership (management of school goals, instructional management, and direct supervision of instruction) and the main construct of instructional leadership as dependent variables. I only include here tables for the independent variables that were significantly associated with instructional leadership. Other tables are provided in the Appendix section.

Table 11

ANOVA Table for the School Type (Public vs. Private)

	School	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	p
Management of Goals	Public	139	-0.629	.806	1	32.884	.000
	Private	47	0.172	.892	184		
Instructional Management	Public	137	0.379	.952	1	2.084	.151
	Private	47	0.602	.783	182		
Supervision of Instruction	Public	137	0.225	.650	1	24.670	.000
	Private	47	0.794	.753	182		
Instructional Leadership	Public	137	-0.015	.895	1	22.675	.000
	Private	47	0.703	.884	182		

Table 11 displays ANOVA analysis for the difference between public and private schools. The descriptive data in the table show that private schools had higher means in all indexes than the means of public schools. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) table shows a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the management of school goal index for the school type (public vs. private): $F(1, 184) = 32.9, p = .000$, and in the direct supervision of instruction index: $F(1, 182) = 24.7, p = .000$. This result suggests that there was a statistically significant difference between public and private schools with respect to principals' engagement in the management of school goals and the direct supervision of instruction. Also, the overall instructional leadership index was significant at the $p < .05$ level: $F(1, 182) = 22.7, p = .000$. However, there was not any statistically significant difference between public and private schools in the index of instructional management.

Table 12

One-Way ANOVA for Percentage of Parents with a Bachelor Degree

		N	X	SD	df	F	p
Management of Goals	Less Than 10%	74	-0.646	.830	4	4.342	.002
	10% -20%	36	-0.574	.806	179		
	20% -40%	32	-0.347	.762			
	40% -60%	23	-0.153	1.048			
	60% Or More	19	0.171	1.034			
	Total	184	-0.434	.898			
Instructional Management	Less Than 10%	73	0.471	.885	4	.490	.743
	10% -20%	36	0.259	1.073	177		
	20% -40%	31	0.367	.785			
	40% -60%	23	0.421	.956			
	60% Or More	19	0.572	.851			
	Total	182	0.416	.910			
Direct Supervision of Instruction	Less Than 10%	73	0.217	.654	4	3.974	.004
	10% -20%	36	0.323	.732	177		
	20% -40%	31	0.296	.629			
	40% -60%	23	0.601	.737			
	60% Or More	19	0.858	.831			
	Total	182	0.367	.719			
Instructional Leadership	Less Than 10%	73	0.010	.845	4	2.849	.025
	10% -20%	36	0.004	.991	177		
	20% -40%	31	0.147	.784			
	40% -60%	23	0.390	1.032			
	60% Or More	19	0.718	1.111			
	Total	182	0.154	.939			

Another important school context characteristic analyzed here is the percentage of parents with a bachelor degree. The descriptive statistics table above suggests that, with a few exceptions, as the percentage of parents with a bachelor degree increased, so did some item means. The ANOVA (Table 12) indicates that the difference between at least two categories of

percentage of parents with bachelor degree was significant at the $p < 0.05$ level for the management of school goals index: $F(4, 179) = 4.3$, $p = .002$; the direct supervision of instruction index: $F(4, 177) = 3.97$, $p = .004$; and the instructional leadership index: $F(4, 177) = 2.8$, $p = .002$. Similarly, the difference among groups for the instructional management index was not significant. These results suggest that the higher number of parents with a bachelor degree was significantly related to principals' perception of their own instructional leadership.

Table 13

Pearson-Product Moment Correlation between School Size and Instructional Leadership in the Principal Survey

		Current School Enrolment
Management of Goals	Pearson Correlation	-.264**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	184
Instructional Management	Pearson Correlation	-.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.263
	N	182
Direct Supervision Of Instruction	Pearson Correlation	-.234**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	182
Instructional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	-.229**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	182

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 13 displays the correlation between school size and instructional leadership indexes. The table suggests that there was a negative relationship between school size and management of school goals ($r = -.264$), instructional management ($r = -.083$), direct supervision of instruction ($r = -.234$), and instructional leadership ($r = -.264$). Also, the correlation was significant

at $p < 0.001$ level for all indexes except instructional management. It can be concluded that as the school size increased, principals' perceived overall instructional leadership went down. That is, principals in bigger schools were less likely to engage in instructional leadership activities.

Question 1c: How are Principals' Personal Characteristics Associated with Their Perception of Instructional Leadership?

This question required an analysis of the relationship between a number of principals' personal characteristics and their perceived instructional leadership. To answer this question, I conducted an ANOVA analysis for each independent variable, including gender (male and female), level of education (bachelor or lower and masters or higher), total experience (0-2 years, 3-16 years and 16 years and more) and experience in the current school (0-2 years, 3-16 years and 16 years and more). The dependent variables used here are indexes of instructional leadership, including management of school goals, instructional management and direct supervision of instruction, and an overall construct of instructional leadership. Tables for only the significant independent variables are included here.

Table 14

One –Way ANOVA for Principals' Gender (Male and Female)

	Gender	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	p
Management of Goals	Female	16	0.434	.964	1	16.823	.000
	Male	168	-0.491	.852	182		
Instructional Management	Female	16	0.761	.736	1	2.280	.000
	Male	166	0.400	.928	180		
Supervision of Instruction	Female	16	1.120	.698	1	20.365	.000
	Male	166	0.306	.689	180		
Instructional Leadership	Female	16	1.037	.955	1	15.656	.000
	Male	166	0.093	.908	180		

The descriptive statistics displayed in Table 14 show that female principals had higher means in all indexes than the means of male principals. To understand whether this difference

was significant, I produced an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) table. The ANOVA result shows a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in the management of school goal index: $F(1, 182) = 16.8, p = .000$; and in the direct supervision of instruction index: $F(1, 182) = 20.4, p = .000$. This result suggests that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female principals' perceptions with respect to their engagement in the management of school goals and the direct supervision of instruction, in favor of female principals. Also, the overall instructional leadership index was significant at the $p < .05$ level: $F(1, 182) = 22.7, p = .000$. However, the mean difference between female and male principals was not significant for the index of instructional management.

Overall, the one-way ANOVA results indicate that principals' gender was the characteristic of school leaders that was most significantly related to their perceived instructional leadership. Other characteristics, including the principal's level of education, total experience, and experience in the current school were not found to be significantly associated with instructional leadership (see Appendix 5). Among school characteristics, the type of school, the percentage of parents with a bachelor degree, and school size were all found to be significantly related to principals' perceived leadership behaviors. On the other hand, school location did not seem to be significant (see Appendix 4).

Given these ANOVA results, I conducted a multiple regression analysis for each significant dependent variable, regressing each on the independent variables that were found to be statistically related to each dimension of instructional leadership. This allowed me to control for the impact of each significant predictor on the dependent variable.

Table 15

Multiple Regression for Variables Predicting Management of School Goals

Dependent Variable: Management of School Goals					
Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
(Constant)	.043	.588		.073	.942
Gender	-.588	.231	-.187	-2.546	.012
Parents with Bachelor	-.005	.061	-.008	-.083	.934
Public or Private School	.604	.221	.296	2.736	.007
School Size	-8.370E-5	.000	-.074	-.899	.370

$R=0.437$, $R^2=0.191$, Adjusted $R^2=0.173$, $F(4,174)=10.278$, $p<0.05$

Table 15 displays a multiple regression analysis for the relationship of various factors to the management of school goal index. It shows that gender was a significant predictor of the management of school goals. Controlling for parents' education, school type, and size, male principals on average had means 0.588 points lower than female principals did in their perception of the management of school goals. The difference was significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.012$). Also, on average principals at private schools had a mean that was 0.604 points higher than what principals at public schools had, in regard to perceived management of school goals, controlling for gender, parental education, and school size. The difference was significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.007$). All factors together accounted for 19% of the total variation in the management of school goal index ($R^2=0.191$, $F(4,174)=10.278$, $p<0.05$).

Table 16

Multiple Regression for Variables Prediction Direct Supervision of Instruction

Dependent Variable: Direct Supervision of Instruction					
Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
(Constant)	1.050	.476		2.207	.029
Gender	-.595	.187	-.236	-3.187	.002
Parents with Bachelor	-.002	.050	-.004	-.047	.963
Public or Private School	.406	.179	.248	2.262	.025
School Size	-5.049E-5	.000	-.056	-.670	.504

$R=0.423$, $R^2=0.179$, Adjusted $R^2=0.160$, $F(4,172) = 9.387$, $p<0.05$

When the same independent variables were regressed on the direct supervision of instruction index, the results (Table 16) showed that on average female principals had a mean that was 0.595 points higher than what male principals had, controlling for other factors in the regression. The difference was significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.002$). Similarly, on average private schools had a mean that was 0.406 points higher than what public schools had, and the difference was significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.025$). All factors in the regression accounted for 18% of the total variation in the direct supervision of instruction index ($R^2=0.179$, $F(4,172) = 9.387$, $p<0.05$).

Table 17

Regression Results for Variables Predicting Instructional leadership

Dependent Variable: Instructional Leadership					
Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
(Constant)	.868	.631		1.375	.171
Gender	-.671	.248	-.204	-2.711	.007
Parents with Bachelor	-.039	.066	-.057	-.593	.554
Public or Private School	.595	.238	.278	2.501	.013
School Size	-7.386E-5	.000	-.063	-.740	.461

$R=0.397$, $R^2=0.158$, Adjusted $R^2=0.138$, $F(4,172) = 8.056$, $p<0.05$

Finally, when all variables that turned out to be significant according to the ANOVA results were regressed on the overall instructional leadership index, gender and school type factors were found to be significantly associated with principals' perceived instructional leadership (see Table 17). Controlling for other variables, on average female principals had a mean that was 0.67 points higher than what male principals had, and this difference was statistically significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.007$). Similarly, principals in private schools had a mean that was 0.595 points higher than what principals in public schools had, and the difference was statistically significant at the 0.05 level ($p=0.013$). Other factors, including parental education and school size, were found not to be significantly related to instructional leadership when principals' gender and school type were controlled. It was found that all variables in the regression accounted for 16% of the total variation in the overall instructional leadership index ($R^2=0.158$, $F(4,172) = 8.056$, $p<0.05$)

Teachers' Perception of Principals' Instructional Leadership

Question 2a: In Which Behaviors of Instructional Leadership are The Principals Strong or Weak, According To Teachers?

Question 2a inquired into principals' specific behaviors associated with instructional leadership, and it was designed to examine the frequency of those behaviors practiced, as perceived by teachers, using the TALIS teacher data set. This helped understand which behaviors teachers thought their principals demonstrated more or less frequently. In order to answer the question, I developed descriptive statistics, including the mean and standard deviation of each item for the teacher data set, sorting by the school type (public vs. private).

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics for Items Associated with Instructional Leadership in Teacher Survey

	Public School			Private School			Total		
	$\bar{X}$	N	SD	$\bar{X}$	N	SD	$\bar{X}$	N	SD
Works on Development Plan	2.50	2313	.769	3.05	706	.735	2.63	3019	.794
Defines Staff Goals	2.61	2308	.761	3.06	700	.686	2.71	3008	.768
Discusses Educational Goals	2.78	2321	.725	3.11	708	.707	2.86	3029	.735
Works According Goals	2.82	2319	.713	3.24	706	.627	2.92	3025	.715
Takes Initiative to discuss Problems	2.42	2309	.818	2.65	703	.799	2.48	3012	.819
Informs about Opportunities to Update Knowledge	2.24	2305	.837	2.73	704	.822	2.35	3009	.858
Compliments Special Effort	2.44	2309	.836	2.76	708	.841	2.52	3017	.848
Observes Classrooms	2.00	2306	.690	2.47	705	.799	2.11	3011	.744
Give Suggestions to Improve	2.15	2310	.772	2.64	706	.786	2.27	3016	.802

When teachers' perceptions of their principals were considered, the lowest means in public schools were in "conducts classroom observations ($\bar{X} = 2.00$)" and "gives teachers suggestions to improve ($\bar{X} = 2.15$)," and the highest means of public schools were in "ensures that teachers work according to the school's educational goals ($\bar{X} = 2.82$)" and "discusses educational goals with teachers ($\bar{X} = 2.78$)."

Similarly, in private schools the lowest means were in "conducts classroom observations ($\bar{X} = 2.47$)" and "gives teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching ($\bar{X} = 2.64$)," and the highest means were in "ensures that teachers work according to the school's educational goals ($\bar{X} = 3.24$)" and "discusses educational goals with teachers ($\bar{X} = 3.11$)."

One conspicuous result was that items with the lowest and highest means were the same in the two types of schools. On average, teachers indicated that their principal was less involved

in conducting classroom observations and in providing suggestions as to how to improve themselves based on observations.

The question 2b, 2c and 2d below inquired into the relationships between school context factors and principal and teacher characteristics, and the teachers' perception of the extent to which principals perform specific behavior associated with instructional leadership, drawing on the TALIS teacher data set. I conducted one-way ANOVA statistics to examine how each school and principal and teacher characteristics were related to each survey item. The table below indicates items that were found to be significantly different between at least two sub-groups of each factor. ANOVA tables for each factor are provided in the Appendix.

Question 2b: How are Schools' Characteristics Associated with Teachers' Perceptions of Their Principals' Instructional Leadership?

Table 19

One-Way ANOVA Results for Relationship of School Related Factors to Teachers' Perceived Instructional Leadership

Level	Characteristic	Significant items ($p < 0.05$)
School	School type (Public and Private)	All items are significant
	Location (Village, Town and City)	Works on Development Plan Informs about Opportunities to Update Knowledge Compliments Special Efforts Observes Classrooms
	Percentage of Parents with High School Diploma	All items except take initiative to discuss problems
	Percentage of Parents with a Bachelor Degree	All items are significant
	School Size (Current number of students)	All items are significant

When the relationship between school characteristics and leadership items as perceived by teachers was considered, the ANOVA results (see Table 19) showed that school type and location, the percentage of parents with a high school diploma, and the percentage of parents with a bachelor degree were significantly related to at least several instructional leadership items. First, the difference between school types was significant for all items. Private schools had higher means in all leadership items (see Appendix 7). Second, schools located in villages had higher means than those located in town or cities. However, the difference was significant only for the items “works on development plan, informs about opportunities to update knowledge compliments special efforts” and “conducts classroom observations” (see Appendix 7). Third, the difference in the percentage of parents with a high school degree was significant for at least two categories for each item, except for the item “take initiative to discuss problems.” Yet there was not any consistent pattern across items. On the other hand, parental education (bachelor degree) showed a consistent pattern: a higher percentage of parents with a bachelor degree was related to a higher frequency of perceived instructional leadership. The difference between at least two categories was significantly related to all items. Moreover, Pearson’s Correlation analysis revealed that school size was negatively correlated with all teacher survey items. This means that as the number of student increased, the frequency of items decreased, as perceived by teachers.

Question 2c: How are Principals’ Personal Characteristics Associated with Teachers’ Perceptions of Their Principals’ Instructional Leadership?

Table 20

One-Way ANOVA Results for Relationship of Factors Related to Principal Characteristics to Teachers’ Perceived Instructional Leadership

Principal	Gender (Male and Female)	All items are significant
	Educational level (Bachelor or Less and Masters or Higher)	Take initiative to discuss problems Observes Classrooms
	Total experience (0-2 years, 3-16 years, 16 and more years)	All except “Observes Classrooms”
	Experience in the Current school (0-2 years, 3-16 years, 16 and more years)	All items are significant

When principals’ characteristics were taken into account, principals’ gender, total experience, and experience in the current school seemed to be important in regard to teachers’ perception of their principal as engaging in instructional leadership behaviors. First of all, the results of ANOVA (Table 20) indicated that female principals had a higher mean than male principals had on all leadership items, and the difference between genders was significant for all items (see Appendix 8). Second, principals’ educational level was only important for the items “conducts classroom observation” and “takes initiative to discuss problems.” While principals with a masters’ degree or higher education got a higher mean on classroom observation activities, principals with a bachelor degree or less had a higher mean in discussing teachers’ problems. Third, principals’ total experience was an important factor in explaining variation in all items except classroom observation. Interestingly, the mean difference among three categories of

experience indicated that more experience was associated with lower item means. Finally, principals' experience in their current school was also significantly related to all leadership items in the teacher survey. In general, principals with 16 years and more experience had a higher mean on all teacher survey items (see Appendix 8).

Question 2d: How are Teachers' Personal Characteristics Associated with Teachers' Perception of Their Principals' Instructional Leadership?

Table 21

One-Way ANOVA Results for Relationship of Factors Related to Teacher Characteristics to Teachers' Perceived Instructional Leadership

Level	Characteristics	Significant items (p<0.05)
Teacher	Gender (Male and Female)	Discusses Educational Goals Defines Staff Goals Works on Development Plan Works According Goals Compliments Special Efforts Observes Classrooms
	Experience (0-2 years, 3-20 years, 20 and more years)	Discusses Educational Goals Defines Staff Goals Works According to Goals Takes initiative to discuss problems Informs about Opportunities to Update Knowledge
	Educational level (bachelor or less and masters or higher)	<i>No significant item</i>

Question 2d inquired into the relationship between teacher characteristics and their perceptions regarding the instructional leadership of principals. The ANOVA analyses (Table 21) showed that there was a significant difference between female and male teachers' perceptions in the six items of teacher data. For the first four items (discusses educational goals, defines staff goals, works on development plan, and works according to goals), female teachers had higher means; for the other two items (compliments special efforts and observes classrooms), male teachers had higher means (see Appendix 6). The results also showed that teacher experience

mattered for the items “discusses educational goals, defines staff goals, works according goals, takes initiative to discuss problems” and “informs about opportunities to update knowledge.”

Teachers with 0-2 years of experience had a more positive view of their principal as an instructional leader. On the other hand, differences in the educational level of teachers were not found to be associated with any item (see Appendix 6).

Given the one-way ANOVA results from the analyses of the teacher survey, among all school characteristics (school type, parental education, and school size), principals’ characteristics (gender, total experience, and experience in the current school), and teacher characteristics (gender and teaching experience) seemed to be significantly associated with the variation in leadership items (or at least more than half of nine items). For the multiple regression analysis to control for the effect of each independent variable, I aggregated the collection of these nine items into one item and regressed that on all significant independent variables (school, principal, and teacher characteristics). This helped to measure the significance of each factor by controlling for the other factors.

Table 22

Multiple Regression for Variables Predicting the Aggregated Item (Instructional Leadership)

Dependent Variable: Instructional Leadership					
Variables	B	SE	β	t	p
(Constant)	2.485	.126		19.681	.000
School Type	.304	.044	.216	6.859	.000
Parents With High School	.017	.010	.037	1.794	.073
Parents With Bachelor	.005	.014	.011	.370	.712
School Size	-5.495E-5	.000	-.072	-3.144	.002
Principal Gender	-.173	.043	-.083	-3.990	.000
Principal Total Experience	-.017	.009	-.046	-1.943	.052
Principal Experience In the current School	.011	.010	.023	1.076	.282
Teacher Gender	-.005	.023	-.004	-.217	.828
Teacher Experience	.022	.022	.019	.993	.321

$R=0.332$, $R^2=0.110$, Adjusted $R^2=0.107$, $F(9, 2704) = 37.248$, $p<0.05$

The multiple regression analysis (Table 22) indicated that the school type (public vs. private), the principals' gender (female vs. male), and school size were statistically significant in explaining the variation in the overall instructional leadership item. To be specific, the mean difference between female and male principals was 0.173 in favor of females, and the difference was significant at the 0.001 level ($p=0.000$), controlling for all other factors. Second, the mean difference between public and private schools was 0.307 in favor of private schools, and the difference was significant at the 0.001 level ($p=0.000$), controlling for all other factors. Last but not least, there was a significant negative association between school size and instructional leadership as perceived by teachers, controlling for all other factors ($B=-5.495E-5$, $p=0.002$). That is, as the school size increased, the frequency of principals' engagement in instructional leadership decreased, according to teachers. Other factors, including teacher gender and experience, principals' experience, and parents' educational level, were not significant when school type and principals' gender were controlled. All factors in the regression accounted for 11% of the total variation in teachers' perceived instructional leadership ($R^2=0.110$, $F(9, 2704) = 37.248$, $p<0.05$).

Relationships between Teachers' Assessment of Their Principals and Principal Self-Assessment

Question 3: How do the Reports of Teachers Compare to the Reports of Principals with Regard to Principals' Instructional Leadership in the Turkish School Context?

The third quantitative question inquired into the relationships between teacher and principal perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership. First, I employed a t-test for each item to investigate whether teachers and principals significantly differed in their rating of principals' instructional leadership behaviors.

Table 23

T-Test for Relationship between Responses of Teachers and Principals to Each Item

	Sample	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	t	p
Classroom Observations	Teacher	3044	2.11	.74	3043	156.84	.000
	Principal	3093	2.89	.68	3092	236.70	
Suggestion to Improve	Teacher	3049	2.27	.80	3048	155.75	.000
	Principal	3093	3.04	.62	3092	274.11	
Working According to Goals	Teacher	3058	2.92	.72	3057	225.33	.000
	Principal	3093	3.39	.51	3092	372.37	
Discussing Matters	Teacher	3045	2.47	.82	3044	166.24	.000
	Principal	3073	3.15	.63	3072	278.36	
Updating Knowledge	Teacher	3042	2.35	.86	3041	151.03	.000
	Principal	3093	3.20	.58	3092	309.29	

Table 23 demonstrates t-test results for the relationship between the responses of teachers and principals to each instructional leadership item that exists in both data sets. The result showed that there was a statistically significant difference between teachers' and principals' responses in their perception of principals' instructional leadership. Overall, principals had higher perceptions of themselves than teachers had for principals across all items of instructional leadership.

Although the t-test suggested that principals perceived themselves as stronger or more active instructional leaders than teachers perceived them to be, the test does not provide any information on how principal and teacher perceptions might influence one another. To investigate whether and how principals' and teachers' perceptions are related, I employed two types of multiple regression analyses.

Table 24

Multiple Regression Analysis for the Relations of Principals to Teachers

Dependent Variables (Teachers)	Independent Variables (Principals)						Male	Private	Size
	1	2	3	4	5				
1. Classroom Observations	.097						-.227	.325	-2.775E-5
2. Suggestion to Improve		.024					-.084	.302	-6.348E-5
3. Working According to Goals			.016				-.128	.278	-6.190E-5
4. Discussing Matters				.020			-.152	-.016	000
5. Updating Knowledge					.073		-.030	.190	000

Table 24 displays outcomes of a multiple regression analysis in which items in the principal data were used as predictor variables for corresponding items in the teacher data, controlling for school level variables (type and size) and principals' characteristics (gender). I repeated the same regression for each item. This first model worked on a top-down perspective in which teachers' perceptions are shaped by the principal (Bass, 1998). The values represent coefficients, and a bolded coefficient indicates a significant relationship.

The results showed a positive and significant relationship between principals' and teachers' reports of classroom observation activity. The coefficient (0.098) indicates that a 1-point increase in principals' self-assessment corresponds to 0.098 points increase in teachers' assessment of their principals, controlling for school type, size, and principals' gender. Outside of this classroom observation data, however, no items in the principal data reliably predicted the corresponding item in the teacher data. Overall, only school level context factors seemed to predict teachers' perceptions of their principal.

Table 25

Multiple Regression Analysis for the Relationship of Principals to Teachers

Dependent Variables (Principals)	Independent Variables (Teachers)							
	1	2	3	4	5	Male	Private	Size
1. Classroom Observations	.084					-.315	-.027	000
2. Suggestion to Improve		.012				-.372	.205	000
3. Working According to Goals			.007			-.414	.272	-9.698E-5
4. Discussing Matters				.012		-.202	-.040	1.205E-5
5. Updating Knowledge					.030	-.080	.0.85	000

Table 25 demonstrates the second regression analysis, in which I used teacher data as independent variables regressed to corresponding items in the principal data, controlling again for school and principal variables significantly related to overall instructional leadership levels. I repeated the same regression for each item. This second model considered how teachers' perceptions might influence principals' perceptions' and/or how they might mutually interact.

Results of this second model were similar to the first. That is, the only significant relationship between teacher and principal responses was in principals' engagement in classroom observation. A 1-point increase in teachers' perception of whether principals observed teaching was associated with .084 points increase in principals' self-assessment, controlling for all other factors. There was no relationship between any other items. Variations in principal perceptions were more related to gender and school type than to teacher perceptions.

Summary of Quantitative Findings and Implications for Qualitative Research

The purpose of the quantitative analyses was to examine Turkish school principals' involvement in instructional leadership behaviors; to understand the extent to which school, principal, and

teacher level factors explained variations in their involvement; and to compare how principals and teachers perceived principal behaviors.

The analyses consistently showed that principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership were largely positive: on most items principals rated themselves above a 3 ("quite often") on the 4-point scale. The differences between the perceptions of teachers and principals were statistically significant.

Within this profile, principals saw themselves as engaging more frequently in solving teachers' problems and paying attention to student behaviors than in observing classrooms, giving suggestions to teachers regarding how they can improve their skills, or taking exam results into account to make decisions. Although teachers perceived principals as engaging in all of these activities less frequently, their perceptions of the relative frequency of particular actions followed the same patterns as the principals.

These patterns were also similar across public and private schools. Principals rated themselves more highly than teachers, and teachers and principals concurred that principals were involved less in direct supervision of instruction and more in behaviors related to instructional management and management of school goals, but disagreed on the frequency of these behaviors.

On the question of what factors might explain variation in principals' leadership behaviors, ANOVA results showed consistently stronger results among private schools and schools with a female principal. In both cases principals and teachers reported higher levels of instructional leadership activity.

Analysis indicated that the percentage of parents with a bachelor's degree and school size explained some variation in leadership indices. However, once the school type was controlled,

these factors were no longer significant; most likely because of the overlap of private school enrollment by parents with a bachelor's degree, and also the smaller size of private schools.

Many ANOVA results from the teacher data set were consistent with results from the principal data: on average, female principals and private school principals were perceived to demonstrate more frequent instructional leadership behaviors. Several factors showed initial differences, including school size, principal level of experience, and the educational level of the school community. However, these factors were no longer significant when other factors were controlled. Overall, the teacher data suggested that instructional leadership was more likely to be higher in a private school, in a school with a female principal, and in a school with a smaller number of students.

The descriptive analyses of the teacher and principal data suggest relatively low principal engagement in leadership behaviors directly related to the core of teaching and learning. These behaviors include taking into account student results, observing teaching, giving feedback to teachers, and monitoring student work. It is therefore important to inquire into why principals paid more attention to the management of instruction than they did to the direct supervision of instruction. I centered the qualitative study of schools around questioning principals' and teachers' perceptions and understandings of instructional leadership in order to explore this question.

The quantitative analyses also indicated some substantial variations between and within teacher and principal responses. The most consistent variations in the teacher data reflected differences between public and private schools. In the principal data, most of the variation seemed to be a consequence of gender and school type.

In this research I found that the isolation between teacher and principal in the practices of instructional leadership was the case both in public and private schools, yet in different ways. Principals in private schools seemed to isolate themselves from many activities of instructional leadership, particularly teacher observation, feedback and professional development. Principals in public schools however indicated that they engaged in many activities in-person in such a way that did not include any teacher in the process of improving teaching and learning. It is well known among educational researchers and practitioners that “isolation is the enemy of improvement” (Jamentz, 2002).

If Turkish principals in both public and private schools desire to make a difference in the quality of education provided to students, they are to work collaboratively with teachers. While public school principals can collaborate with teachers by including them in their effort to help teachers grow, private school principals can collaborate by joining in and contributing to efforts exerted by subject matter teacher committees. To this end, the following chapter provides more insight into how instructional leadership is understood and enacted depending on the perceptions and reports of principals and teachers.

CHAPTER 6: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

The quantitative chapter concluded that principals in Turkey were more engaged in the management of instruction, such as discipline and classroom problems, and less engaged in practices related to the supervision of instruction, such as observing teaching and providing teachers with constructive feedback regarding classroom performance. In addition, most variations in the sample were related to school size, public and private school status, and principal gender. On average, principals in private schools and in schools with smaller numbers of students, as well as female principals, were more likely to be engaged in instructional leadership activities. I drew on the quantitative analyses to determine the sample for the qualitative study. Because the TALIS data suggested statically significant differences between female and male principals, and between private and public school principals, I sampled private and public schools and a male and a female principal in each school type.

My purpose was to investigate principals' and teachers' (and counselors') perceptions of principal instructional leadership to examine their consistency with the quantitative findings, as well as to investigate patterns of engagement with particular activities.

It is important to point out that the data that shape the finding of this chapter are a measure of principals' and teachers' beliefs, assumptions and values about instructional leadership and about their environments and not measures of observed practices. Although in various points of this chapter I report on actions and behaviors these are based on participants reports and reflections.

The data for this qualitative chapter were collected through semi-structured interviews and documents that revealed principals' involvement in instructional issues. I selected six middle schools from the largest and the most cosmopolitan city of Turkey, Istanbul, based on the

quantitative findings. This allowed me to bring some level of variation to the qualitative data. The sample included two public and four private schools. The principals in one private and one public school were female. I also drew on the perception of other school members by interviewing three teachers, one assistant principal, and one school counselor in each school.

Qualitative Themes

Before presenting the main qualitative themes, I would like to point out that during my interviews I heard considerable complaints, particularly from principals, regarding schools being too large and limited financial resources. Principals listed those two problems as significant challenges to their instructional leadership. They often acknowledged the importance of working on instructional improvement, yet they also stressed that it was impossible for them to devote time to the classroom where teaching and learning take place, due to the fact that the efforts to find money and deal with a large number of students were substantial and overwhelming, which consequently caused frustration and diminished motivation to deal with issues surrounding instruction and student learning.

Well, (as principals) we are dealing with monetary issues more than we do educational issues. Otherwise, how can we afford servants' salaries, painting, cleaning and so on? Now, all administrators have the same concern: what we going to do next month, how we will find money. For instance, we have nine servants working in the school. The state pays the salary of only two. So we need an additional amount of 13-14 thousand liras (about 6,500 dollars). We have a canteen that makes 4,800 liras every month but still I need to find another 9,000 liras. So what? Our job should have been providing good education and good instruction to students. I should have discussed with teachers about

student success and progress. But what I am doing instead is trying to find money and unfortunately this is not something good. (K1)

Two years ago we used to have a very few number of students compared to what we have now. The number almost doubled, but the school is the same school in terms of building and resources... Now, this brings a lot of problems. How am I going to accommodate such a huge number of students? The only way I can do is basically to double the class size. But then it becomes difficult to avoid classroom discipline issues... I have never seen such a big number of discipline issues before. You saw what happened just today (referring to the incident of a student being stabbed). Now I have to deal with police officers and the parent... Two years ago, we used to talk about student success (and) European Union projects but now we are focusing on what we can do in order to prevent discipline problems... (A1)

Although some researchers acknowledge that large school size and limited financial resources are important challenges to instructional leadership (Leithwood, 1994), it is also stressed that this should not be an excuse for principals not to invest time in working on instructional improvement (Brewer, 1993; Grissolm & Loeb, 2011; Kleine-Kracht, 1993; Rosenblatt & Somech, 1998). School leaders can work on and create conditions in the school through which teachers can receive sufficient support to enhance their knowledge and skills and to improve the overall quality of instruction (Horng & Loeb, 2010).

With this in mind, during my interviews I tried to investigate how instructional leadership was understood and enacted. Analyzing the responses of participants and documents, I developed several main themes that summarize the qualitative data.

Theme 1: Teachers' Understanding of Effective Schools and Principals Has Limited Focus On Instruction and Principals' Instructional Leadership

I started interviews with broader questions that I prepared to provide an understanding of principals' and teachers' perceptions of effective principals and schools. Specifically, I asked them how they think of an effective principal, what effective principals do, and what characteristics define an effective school. My primary purpose with these questions was to make sense of whether and how they situate the instructional roles of principals in their depiction of effective leadership and schools.

One response from a teacher successfully summarizes what the other participants pointed out:

A good school is the one that have higher student achievement. By the achievement I mean how many students passed the high school entrance exam and placed a Science or Anatolian high school. This is the first thing I look at. Then there are other things.... For instance, the physical appearance; is it clean? Is there sufficient resources? In addition, the extent to which school is connected to the community and specifically parents...(E3)

Based on responses from participants in public schools, the description of an effective school can be categorized into five themes:

1. high student achievement measured by number of students who enter a prominent high school;
2. adequate infrastructure;
3. presence of socio-cultural activities;
4. high parental involvement;
5. acknowledgement from the surrounding community,

In private schools, the description of participants' understanding of an effective school focused mostly on physical appearance, the quality of infrastructure, and student test scores. The reason these factors were emphasized was explained by a principal who described what a private school is like:

This is not a public school, it is private. So, the way it operates is different. At the end, you are providing service and in return you get money from parents. Of course, when money is involved, things become different. As a principal, in addition to educational issues I need to think like a salesman. Advertisement is not an important thing in public schools but it is very critical in private schools. For instance, cleanness is very important. We have to satisfy people. (F1)

Based on interviews, I found that student achievement was the most frequently mentioned characteristic of the effective school. Almost all participants stated that student achievement was their first priority. Adequate infrastructure and parental involvement was described by 25 participants as prerequisite for accomplishing higher student achievement rates. Being acknowledged by the surrounding community was described by 13 participants as a consequence of the school being prominent in student achievement rates. Finally, socio-cultural activities, such as organizing picnics and cultural dance events, were considered as a means to bring the school community together to socialize people. The majority of the teachers (23) believed that this is essential since the purpose of schooling is not solely to increase student test scores but also to prepare them for their social life.

Unfortunately, nowadays if you ask people what is the purpose of the school, 99% will tell you it is high school exam. That is right, we want our students to win the best high schools. But this is just one goal, it is not everything... Students are our future. We are

educating our future. We need to teach them our culture. We need to give them the mission to contribute to the community. So, I think a good school should be able to socialize people, integrate the school with the community by bringing people together, by organizing cultural events...(A3)

In general there is a tendency to associate effective schools with concrete student outcomes more than leadership behaviors or instructional practices. The results of high school entrance exams, including average scores, and the number of students placed at a desirable high school, indicate to many whether a school is good or bad, effective or ineffective. (M2)

One of the female principals complained about schools being too filled with pragmatic purposes and ideas about instructional leadership being so narrow that it lacked a spirit of learning.

There is lack of spirit (in instructional leadership), I mean as if there is lack of creativity in the theory of instructional leadership. It does not involve any emotions raised from creativity of other stakeholders. I do not know how to explain. There is a wish tree outside this room. That is a very emotional thing. It does not fit any principles of instructional leadership. From a pragmatic perspective, it might not benefit a lot to education and instruction. That tree brought a lot of spirit to this school. That is what I call spirit. That is what instructional leadership lacks. (M1)

The interviews showed that the school personnel were interested in increasing student learning, yet their description of the effective principal was not directly related to achievement. It was rather related to the means that might lead to achievement. When teachers and principals were asked to describe their understanding of an effective principal, they mostly referred to relationships and characteristics that have considerable potential to remove barriers to an

effective school represented by high student achievement rates. In terms of characteristics, the effective principal was considered to be the one who has technical and theoretical knowledge of school administration and who is open to new ideas and willing to take risks (see Figure 5). The innovation aspect of leadership was desirable because teachers thought that principals did not possess sufficient courage to take initiative to make substantial changes, due to the centralized control of the Ministry.

I think the very first thing is being an innovative person. The school principals should be open to new ideas. Because a lot of time let say you have an idea and want to talk with the principal. He would probably discourage you. Why? Because anything beyond the regular operation of the school is too risky, and they do not want to take risk. But sometimes you should be able to take risk otherwise how can you change things right?

(M5)

The second important aspect of effective principals was related to relations. Teachers indicated that effective principals should have good communication, be trusted, treat all personnel equally, be well acquainted with and develop good relationships with students, teachers, and parents, and involve parents and teachers in decision making processes.

The most important thing for me and I think my colleagues would agree is communication. How does the principal communicate with teachers? This is important. The way that he/she asks you to do things, the type of language he/she uses makes a difference...(M5)

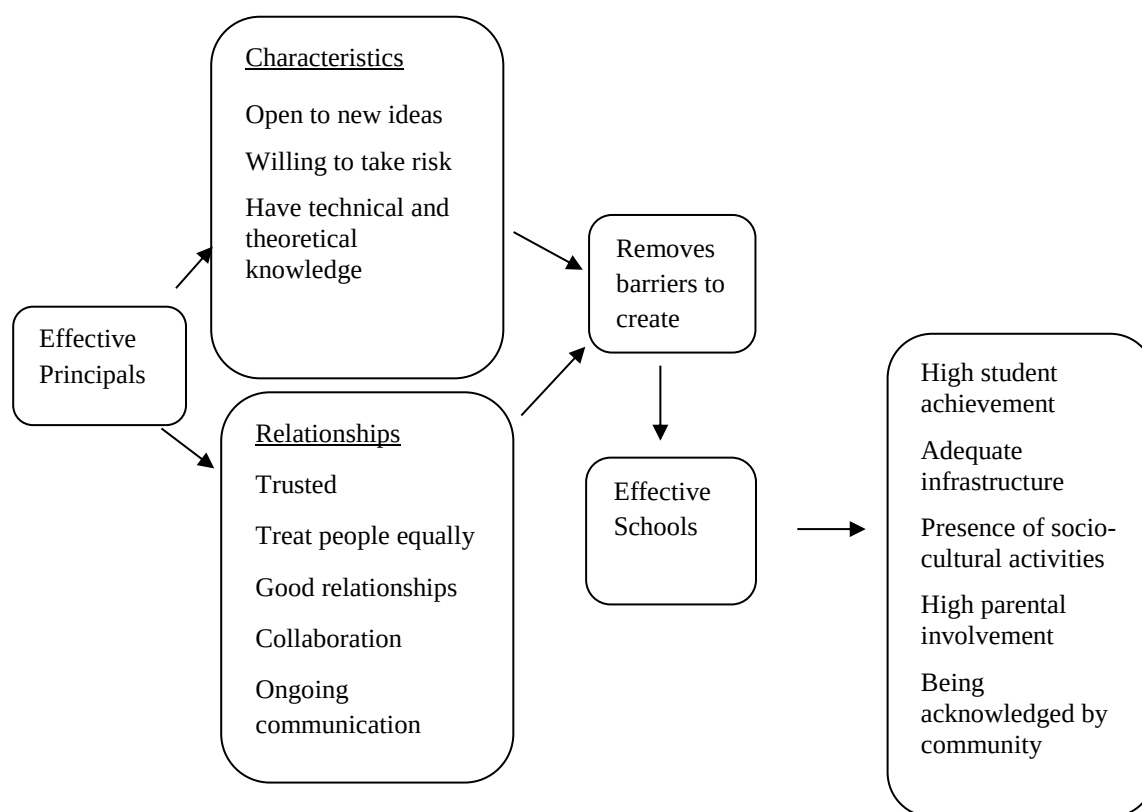


Figure 5: Participants' Description of the Effective School and Principal

Despite the general view that did not associate effective leadership with principals dealing with instruction, a few teachers (3) indicated that effective principals cannot be isolated from teaching. For instance, one teacher said,

First of all, the principal should be equipped with sufficient knowledge of teaching. So far I have not work with those kinds of principals...My philosophy is this; a person who does not like teaching cannot be a good principal. Okay, a principal is an administrator, but he/she should not give up (focusing on) teaching. Otherwise, there is always

disconnect between the principal and teaching, and consequently principals start becoming managers running a business. (A2)

Those teachers described effective principals as those who should have concerns about good education, effective teaching, and student learning. However, they also indicated that there were very few principals who paid attention to the extent to which teachers were effective in instruction and student learning:

I think effective principal is the one who is also an effective teacher. You cannot be a good principal without being a good teacher. I do not agree with the idea of principals not caring about what teachers are doing in classroom and whether students are learning but a lot of principals do not do these things... Our principal, for instance. He is a very nice person, he has good relationship with all teachers, he tries his best to provide us with whatever we need. But is he a type of principal who pays attention to teaching, No...(K5)

Overall, it became evident through my interviews that teachers' and principals' perceptions of an effective school elaborate the need to focus on student learning, adequate infrastructures, socio-cultural activities, parental involvement, and community acknowledgement, and their perception of effective leadership is influenced by their expectation of good relationships, communication, innovation, and risk taking. Many teachers also emphasized the importance of collaboration between principals and teachers to create an effective school. The way that they explained collaboration was, however, quite different from a traditional U.S. understanding of collaboration. Their concept of collaboration referred more to a principal's willingness to communicate, to support teachers, and to include them in the decision-making processes than working together on problems of instruction.

None of the teachers or principals mentioned a type of effective school in which instructional improvement is a goal, and only a few teachers indicated that the leader should be engaged in activities related to the improvement of the instructional capabilities of the teaching staff. It can therefore be concluded that high achievement rate was desirable among the school staff, since this was an indication of the school being effective, yet there seemed to be a lack of vision regarding the fact that instructional improvement is key to increased student learning and success. This brought me to the question of whether and how principals were involved in instructional matters despite limited understanding of effective principals as instructional leaders.

Theme 2: Principals Influence Classroom Instruction and Student Outcomes by Creating Conditions in Which Teaching and Learning Is Possible and by Providing Material and Motivational Support to Teachers

In the second part of the interview I focused attention on whether and how principals influence classroom instruction, because this is essential to instruction leadership. I asked teachers questions, including whether and how principals might help teachers to improve their instructional quality and increase student achievement.

Principals, particularly those in low-SES and crowded schools, considered dealing with discipline to be an important aspect of instructional leadership. Although it was not directly related to classroom instruction, school level discipline was thought to be a way to create a safe school environment where teachers and student can be engaged in teaching and learning activities without any fear or concern about security:

To be honest, teachers do not like someone intervening in their classroom because they are expert in what they teach. They do not talk directly to me about this (fact), but I know they do not like it. But it makes sense. As a principal, I cannot know as much they know about what they teach...But this does not mean that I am not important for what is going

on in classroom. I do my best to reduce discipline problems. Whether it is about the school or classroom, I and my assistant we spend a lot of time to deal with discipline problems in order to make the school and classrooms safe places for teachers and students. (F1)

According to the interview data, principals can also influence classrooms by dealing with teacher and student absenteeism and hence protecting instructional time. The frequency of student and teacher absenteeism seemed to vary, depending on the SES of the school. There were more complaints about student and teacher absenteeism in low SES schools than in high SES schools, where school size was relatively smaller.

It was indicated by leader and teacher participants that school principals paid considerable attention to absenteeism and wanted to make sure that students were not left behind due to either the student or teacher being absent. However, they did not deal with absenteeism by themselves. The interview data suggested that the responsibility of principals for dealing with absenteeism was shared among assistant principals and teachers. The principal may get involved if there is a chronic issue. The responsibility was primarily given to assistant principals, who worked closely with teachers to diminish the impact of absenteeism on teaching and learning. For instance, if a teacher was absent, assistant principals first attempted to assign an available teacher. In case of a teacher shortage, assistant principals took the responsibility for substituting for the absent teacher.

Several teachers pointed out that principals play a critical role in providing support to teachers. The type of support included monetary and motivational factors. Teachers seemed to be satisfied if these types of support were provided:

You may know that since last several years we had a new type of curriculum that asks us to engage students in various projects, called project-based learning. The idea is to teach them while doing. I think principal is important at this point. If he/she supports what you are doing and encourages teachers to do more projects with students, we have the motivation for coming up with more projects. (M3)

For instance, I am math teacher and I had a project about “Pi Value”...In order for me to do this project, I need some money to buy materials. Now it is difficult or not possible to ask students for the money. That is the law. So what do you do? You ask your principals right?... And he is a great principal. So far, he provided me with whatever I needed to complete the project. (K3)

It was also indicated that principals provided support to teachers in their efforts to increase the number of students passing the high school entrance exam and to place them in prominent high schools across the country. Throughout the school year, students took several trial tests, including national and local exams organized by the Ministry that revealed students' current achievement. If the school personnel wanted to have additional exams, school principals sought external resources, which were usually private tutoring institutions.

Last summer for instance I requested help from a private tutoring institution. I wanted them to provide us with some tests that they were giving to their students. We gave several (tests) to our students last year in addition to what the Ministry gave. This tests are important for us to learn the level (score) of our students. (K1)

Overall, participants indicated that even though principals may not directly influence teaching in the classroom, they can contribute to teaching and learning by creating a safe environment represented by one being free from discipline issues, by dealing with absenteeism,

by informing about opportunities for professional development, and by providing necessary material support to teachers. Responses also showed that principals influenced student outcomes by encouraging teachers to work with students on projects and by providing necessary monetary support to teachers (Figure 6).

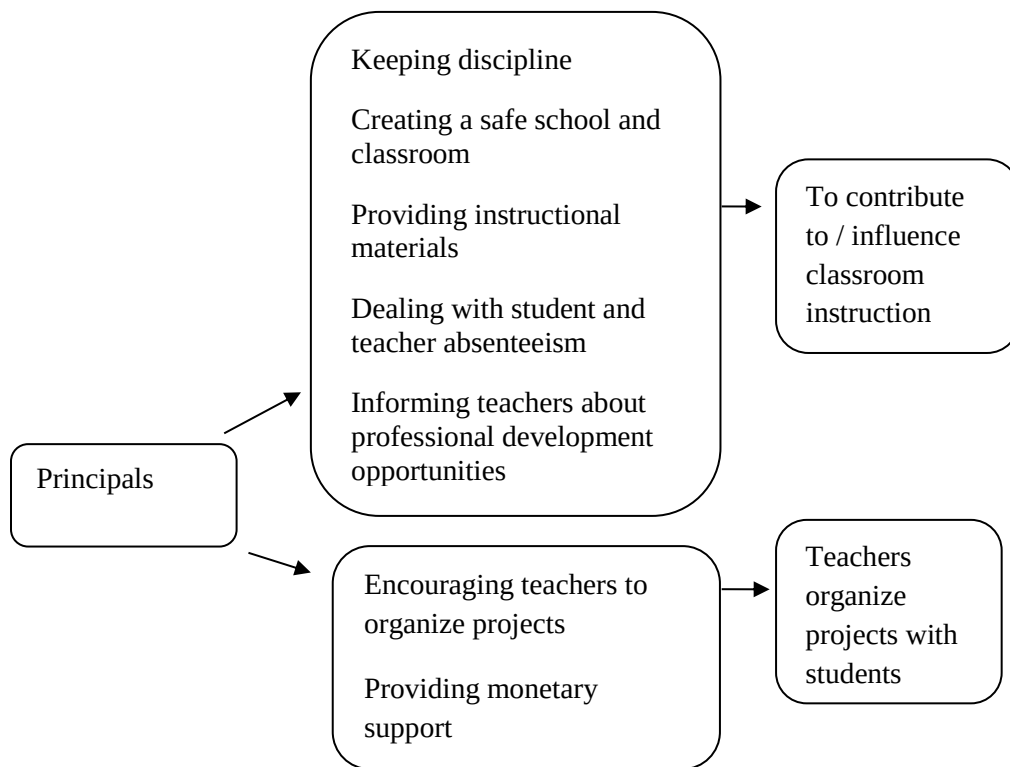


Figure 6: Participants' Description of How Principals Influence Classroom Instruction and Student Achievement

Theme 3: Principals Enactment of Instructional Leadership and a Focus on the Improvement of Teaching

After several questions inquiring into principals' and teachers' understandings of effective schools and principals, and how principals might influence classroom instruction, I asked more targeted questions that directed attention to principals and teachers thoughts on specific leadership behaviors, including school goals, instructional problems, and supervision of

classroom instruction. These questions were important to bring out how instructional leadership was understood and enacted, and to explain the reasons behind the type of instructional leadership enacted.

School goals. During my interviews, I asked several questions regarding school goals, including what they involve, and how they are determined and operated. Based on teachers' responses to these questions, I grouped school goals into two categories: formal and informal goals. Formal goals were written and known by the entire school personnel, but informal goals were more related to what people personally wanted to see as a consequence of their work.

Both interview and document data suggested that formal goals in both public and private schools involved similar characteristics. Formal goals corresponded to those that were determined once every four years through a formal meeting by the strategic planning committee composed of the principal, assistant principal, teachers, and the head of school-family collaboration. According to my analysis of strategic plans, goals were very similar across the four schools (including two private schools). They were usually grouped into four categories: educational goals, instructional goals, infrastructural goals, and socio-cultural goals. For the purpose of my research, I focused only on educational and instructional goals that involved various topics, including classroom infrastructure, counseling, professional development for teachers, and student achievement.

In two public schools goals related to instruction were too broad and were not strategically planned in a way that could be put into practice. That is, there was no clear explanation of how these goals would be accomplished, who would accomplish them, and how principals could make sure that the goals were accomplished. Examples of instructional goals included "encouraging teachers to participate in seminars and instructional programs organized

in the city, adopting a student oriented instructional approach, working on students to help them gain a reading habit, evaluating the effectiveness of instruction through trial exams held in the city, carrying out necessary improvement, and applying a reward system.”

In other schools, however, the school strategic planning committees were able to establish more specific goals and a general action plan that determined several steps and the staff who were responsible for each step. One public school, for instance, established four goals. The goal that focused on student learning was “making the school among the top two public schools in the average test score gained through SBS (nation high school entrance exam). The action plan corresponding to the goal included “(1) testing student achievement level through trial tests twice a year and extensively analyzing the data gained from the test, (2) subject matter teachers will assess student performance through exams at the end of each subject unit, (3) seminars will be given to students in order to increase their motivation, and (4) unsuccessful students will be determined and the reasons for student failure will be investigated.”

It can be seen that the student achievement goal was demanding and specific. The school community wanted the school to be among the best. The operational steps to the achievement of the goal focused more on the assessment of students’ current learning. It is obvious that the schools wanted to analyze data and investigate reasons for failure. Yet there was not much information regarding the extent to which the focus would be instructional improvement, since student achievement goals were not elaborated in a way that linked student learning to classroom teaching.

The second type of goal, which I referred to as informal goals, was significantly stressed by almost all participants, that is, to increase student achievement measured by the number of students entering a prestigious high school. It was also possible to include this goal in the

strategic plan, but I observed that teachers were more enthusiastic about test scores than about the way this goal was expressed in the formal plans.

A small number of teachers, however, were against the idea of associating student achievement with the high school entrance exam. In their understanding, this was a very limited vision, because the purpose of school should not be constrained by student test scores that did not give any information regarding important outcomes such as creativity. Nevertheless, the high school entrance exam dominated schooling since stakeholders were aware of the fact that a good high school was a means to university entrance, which was usually associated with a good job and life.

The important issue here is to understand how schools work on student achievement and help students accomplish better test scores on the high school entrance exam. I mentioned before that principals collaborated with private tutoring institutions to get students more trial tests, and they used that data to determine what students needed. Principals were much more interested in the ranking of the school, and they did not seem to pay attention to patterns in student test results as much as teachers did. One teacher said,

We use exam (trial tests) results to see how our students are doing... Initially, results go to the principal and he looks at what is going with the student achievement scores. He compares new results with previous test results to see if there is any increase in the average scores... In terms of local exams (that many schools take at the same time), he looks at how the school is doing compare to other schools...(E5)

This suggested that principals did not show concern about developing strategies to address issues that arose from the data. However, teachers played an important role in using this data to bring out student needs. Teachers received an analysis of their students' test scores, and

they interpreted them. It is important to point out here that it was not mandatory for teachers to work on student achievement using student data. As a consequence, it was emphasized that not all teachers were interested in spending time on the interpretation of test results. Other teachers seemed to be eager to understand problems and to work through them:

When I receive student test scores I try to understand who are failing and why? Where (in which subject) are my students strong and where they are not. This is helpful for me to decide what to focus more, what to teach more. Then, I sometimes give an additional hour of instruction to students in the subject that they are weak. (E4)

I think I tried hard for eight graders last year. That is why I am feeling very comfortable to speak out. I cannot say the same thing for all teachers. But there are some teachers who are really doing hard work and want to help these kids enter better high schools by giving more instruction, giving more homework, checking whether students are working at home and collaborating with parents. (E3)

It is evident from these statements that some teachers were interested in using data to identify problems. However, problems were often referred to students' personal or parental issues. In this case, corresponding efforts to deal with problems did not involve a focus on teachers or teaching:

I first try to do my responsibility in case of student failure. I open an additional course for students to take and improve their achievement. If the student still failing, I talk with the school counselor and try to understand the problem. They are very helpful for us to deal with problematic students. (M4)

A school counselor: when students come to us, the first thing we try to understand is whether students have any personal or parental problem because there are a lot of things

that can affect student learning.... If there is no problem, then we provide these students with some information about studying strategies (how to study effectively)...Also, we do some activities that can increase student motivation. (E2)

Overall, the data suggested that schools had different types of school goals, including formal and informal. How these goals operated in schools is a question. I found that principals set formal goals that emphasized the importance of instructional quality, yet they were not able to develop operational goals to take steps to improve instruction. This limited principals' involvement in instructional improvement, because how the principal would work on classroom instruction was not clarified through operational goals.

The second type of goal, which is informal and involves helping students get a better high school education, is a strong motivation for teachers to focus on achievement problems. This led to some level of communication among teachers beyond grade level and subject matter committee meetings. However, the discourse among teachers regarding student test results did not exceed the barrier of judging students rather than working on their own teaching. Principals at this point had a very limited involvement in the processes. The belief that teachers were expert constrained principals' willingness to facilitate teachers' discussion on how to improve student learning and to help teachers focus on improving their teaching, rather than just judging students and their families.

Instructional problems. According to the quantitative data analyses presented in the previous chapter, both principals' self-reports and teachers' assessment of their principal indicated that school leaders were engaged in solving the problems of teachers at the classroom level with relatively higher frequency than they were involved in activities associated with direct

supervision of instruction. To further that knowledge through my interviews, I asked participants questions about the type of problems that they discuss with their principals:

So, if I am talking with my principals, that is probably because of a discipline issue or it could be an issue about official work that I have to deal with or like if I need some materials for my classroom, I would go and talk to my principal...If I feel like I have an issue about my instructional techniques, I would not go to my principal. That does not make sense. I am a math teacher and his major is classroom teacher. (F5)

-Sometimes it happens... That is right... Sometimes you think you need to ask something about what you teach that day. Or you recognize a student having learning difficulties... I talk these issues with my colleagues...But I do not talk to the principal. I think my friends go to principals for such issues neither.

-Why do you think they do not talk?

-Well, you can talk but you would not get the type of support you wanted because the principal is not expert in your field...(A2)

Teachers indicated that most of the classroom level problems that they directed to the principal were related to either a discipline issue or the need for instructional materials. When they had an issue regarding instructional strategies or techniques, they chose to talk with a colleague who had the same area of expertise as themselves. Therefore, it was less likely that teachers and principals got engaged in the type of conversation that intended to improve teaching in the classroom.

The way classroom problems were understood by teachers and principals in both public and private schools were similar: that is, their understanding of classroom problems was associated with discipline issues or lack of materials. None of the participants referred to any

problem that was related to instructional practices or techniques. The difference between public and private schools was in the frequency of principals' involvement in discipline issues. Public school principals stated that they were regularly asked by teachers to engage with and resolve issues of students' misbehaviors. Private school principals indicated that they did not receive many complaints from teachers, and that their involvement in classroom discipline was rare since most issues were minor and teachers managed to resolve them without requiring additional assistance.

Supervision of instruction. According to my interviews, principals in public schools (with a few exceptions) tried to observe all teachers once a year. In private schools, however, this responsibility was given to the heads of teacher committees for each subject matter; that is, while private school principals did not observe or give feedback to teachers at all, public school principals were directly engaged in classroom observations.

Principals in public schools had a list of benchmarks to check during their observations. The list can be categorized into several groups, including readiness of the physical environment, effective use of instructional materials, time management, communication skills, giving and checking homework, effective lesson plans and effective use of teaching techniques. Teachers were not informed concerning what principals look for during classroom observation. The processes of observation were supposed to involve several steps, including letting the teacher know about the time that the observation would take place, observing the instruction, and giving feedback to teachers regarding the strengths and weaknesses of their instruction.

Although classroom observations were mandated so that principals and teachers could work on instructional improvement, my interviews suggested that observations were done in a

very mechanical way that missed the most important point—to help teachers identify their strengths and weaknesses. Two teachers said,

I am a math teacher and therefore teaching math. But my principal is a former elementary teacher. Yes, he comes and observes my classroom every year but then after the class, he thanks me and goes. That's it. I do not expect him to give me feedback. I do not even think he knows what I teach and whether the way I teach is right or not right. (K3)

She did not come to my classroom this year but yes, she came last year. She sat on a seat in the back and took notes for a while. Then after the class, she said she enjoyed my lesson but I should have done better job organizing the board. This was only thing that she told me...(M3)

Principals made similar comments:

Well, I am not an English teacher and I do not have any knowledge of English either. But I have to observe teaching because I am the principal in this school...I look at the lesson plan, I look at the classroom materials like how they are used and also I look at how the teacher interacts with students and things like these...(K1)

According to the female principal working in a public school, observations had value but could not predict the quality of teaching or the teacher. She asserted that there should be other sources of information for uncovering problems of instruction. For example, she considered students' feedback on teachers, since students had the most exposure to teachers and hence a good sense of whether a teacher was effective. This allowed her to incorporate the voice of students in her effort to diagnose and resolve issues associated with teaching in the school.

The way that supervision, including classroom observations and feedback, was conducted in private schools was not the same as in public schools, according to teachers and principals

alike. In private schools, principals were less involved in the process of teacher observation and feedback. Instead, they delegated this responsibility to teacher leaders within each specific subject area. Members or heads of subject matter committees visited classrooms, observed teaching and feedback, determined the type of professional development teachers needed, and offered necessary assistance. Thus, in private schools principals were not held as directly accountable for investigating and addressing issues related to teaching and learning. The reason given for this system was that principals lacked the necessary knowledge to comprehend teaching a specific subject matter. One principal in a private school stated:

I sometimes visit classroom but this should not be considered as academic involvement. Then, what happens is that we ask the head teacher of subject matter committee to observe teaching. Indeed he/she is the expert. These friends (head teacher of subject matter committee) enter classrooms and they have some standards: as you know, before starting the lesson teachers should first prepare students. Whether it is through a tale or anything else, they need to make children ready for the lesson and increase their motivation... For instance, how the teacher is using the board. His voice is also important, so how the teacher is using his voice... How is the teaching? Does the teacher clearly express what he/she wants to say? (D1)

These comments from public and private school participants suggested low expectations for principals' capacity to help teachers improve teaching. The leading reason, as expressed by teachers and principals, was principals' limited content knowledge of subject matter taught by specialized teachers. If this was the case, it might follow that teachers were eager to collaborate with each other to improve their instructional skills. However, responses from teachers indicated that teacher collaboration was limited to informal conversations with colleagues during breaks:

We usually discuss issues about instruction and specific students with each other during breaks at the teachers' room. That is very common. But I do not know anyone (teacher) who observe other teachers to learn from them. To me it is a good idea but unfortunately does not happen too often. Perhaps, if a novice teacher asks an experienced teacher to go and observe, that is possible and it happened in the past...

-Why do you think it does not happen?

-Well, everybody is expert in their field (laughing!). They do not feel the need. And to be honest, I am not different. (K5)

These statements suggest that limited collaboration could not be explained solely through principals' lack of content knowledge. There was also evidence for the existence of strong teacher privacy and therefore lack of internal accountability. There were a few exceptions, however. Two teachers who were close friends for a long time mentioned that they sometimes observed and learned from each other, despite the fact that they taught different subjects:

I have a friend here (in the school), he is a math teacher. We have been close friends for many years. It is very common between me and him to enter each other's classroom to learn something from each other...Last time when I was in his class again, an inspector from the Ministry came to observe classroom. When he saw me, he was very confused. Then, he asked me who I was. I said I am the social studies teacher in the school but sometimes I and my friend observe each other and try to see if we can learn from each other. The inspector was very pleased, he congratulated me and my friend, and he said he would tell that story to the Ministry and teachers in other schools. (A3)

The analyses of the interview data on if and how principals enacted instructional leadership activities—such as setting goals for schools, solving instructional problems, and

supervising teachers—suggested that activities enacted by principals did not touch the fundamental purposes of instructional leadership: to improve the quality of teaching and learning. During interviews, I probed to understand the reasons behind the limited focus on instructional improvement. Some of the responses from teachers and principals provided an understanding of the factors limiting principals' focus on teaching.

First, teaching was understood in terms of delivering content knowledge to students. As a consequence, most teachers and principals in public schools indicated that principals did not possess the relevant knowledge and expertise to help them improve their instructional skills. This belief seemed sufficient for teachers to argue that observations conducted by principals, for instance, were a waste of time. Principals also acknowledged the subject expertise of teachers and stressed that they paid more attention to lesson plans and teachers' skills in classroom management when observing. The general belief was that teachers would be more satisfied with instructional supervision carried out by members of subject matter committee, just as it was done in private schools.

Second, a number of teachers in public schools expressed that classroom observations were meaningless because there was no tangible outcome; that is, their principals did not provide feedback on their instructional practices. Although the purpose of observation stated in the Ministry documents is to help teachers diagnose their weaknesses and improve them, principals did not really do so. Teachers saw classroom observation as part of an inspection, instead of a means to help teachers enhance their skills in teaching.

Theme 4: A Lack of Coherence among Activities Associated with Principals' Instructional Leadership

Another theme that emerged was a lack of coherence among the instructional leadership activities enacted by principals working in public schools. This partly explains the previous

theme—a type of instructional leadership that did not focus exclusively on instructional improvement.

Data showed that principals had some involvement in developing goals, creating a safe school environment, informing teachers about possible opportunities for professional growth, and observing teaching. However, most of these practices were independent of each other in the sense that they did not inform one another. For instance, public school principals lead strategic planning committees to specify the goals to be accomplished within a period of four years, but the committees were not seen as very important or valued:

Normally, in order to establish school goals we are supposed to gather together to discuss what we have, what we do not have, what our problems are, what needs to be improved and so on. But, to be honest with you, it never happens this way... A lot of people consider goal setting process as a mandate by the Ministry. So it is a kind of burden for principals. So usually what happens is that the responsibility (of determining or writing school goals) is given to one teacher or assistant principal. This person usually takes a look at what other schools wrote and then he/she writes a list of school goals. (K2)

This suggests that the process of goal setting was weakly aligned with identified instructional needs and/or student achievement problems. Principals observed instruction and provided opportunities for students to take several exams, but they did not appear to take into account data from these processes when determining goals.

A similar pattern emerged in conversations about professional development:

Professional development activities are basically seminars and they are very boring except one that was given by Marmara University. I really enjoyed that one because it was about what I needed. Other than that, I do not remember... Most of them are theory

based, they are not practical. They do not give me the practical knowledge I need. For instance, I would like them to show me how a good teacher teaches a class. (M2)

This is a very good school and that is why I am here for so many years. Our principal is very helpful to us. He lets us know about all type of professional learning opportunities such as seminars. Sometimes, if there are a lot of teachers who want to participate in the same seminar, he would hold the seminars here in the school or he would hold an online seminar for us to make the participation easier. But the seminar is not determined based on what we want. It is like here is a seminar, join if you think it is beneficial to you. You can decide whether you want or not. I mean it is not mandatory. (E3)

Seminars are the same for all teachers with different years of experience. Also, in the last 10 years the content is again the same. I think this is not an appropriate way to provide seminars. As a teacher with 20 years of experience, seminars are becoming so boring. They should provide different seminars for different teachers because not all teachers have the same experience or needs. (M5)

Most teachers expressed concern that the professional development activities they engaged in so far did not possess the potential to provide them with the knowledge and skills that are relevant to what they need. The problem again is related to the way instructional leadership is performed. Principals enter classrooms and observe teaching, yet they do not, and perhaps cannot use the data they collected to make decisions regarding professional development opportunities for teachers. This reduces the potential to diagnose instructional problems, develop a strategic plan, and replace ineffective instructional techniques with effective ones.

The lack of coherence did not appear to be as major problem in private schools. As indicated earlier, most instructional leadership responsibilities, including observing teaching,

giving feedback to teachers, and providing them with professional development, were carried out by subject matter committees. Just as teachers in public schools, private school teachers indicated that they were more comfortable to work with teachers who share the same area of expertise than working with the principal. Members of subject matter committees worked together with a head teacher to identify common instructional problems of teachers and student achievement problems, by using data that come from classroom observations and student trial tests. Additionally, professional development was more decentralized in private schools with the content and type of determined by the head teacher of the committees, who seemed to draw more on data collected from students and teachers. Each committee organized professional development aligned to the needs perceived by teachers' constituting the committee. In this way, instructional leadership activities in private schools were more coherent and more relevant to teachers, compared to those in public schools.

CHAPTER 7: INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Over the last decade, international comparisons of student exam outcomes have influenced expectations of effectiveness in education. The performance of Turkish students in these exams has caused considerable criticism of the quality of Turkish education and school systems. In response to poor performances, the Turkish Ministry of Education introduced numerous reform packages, including a curriculum emphasizing project-based and student-oriented instruction, and technology in classrooms,

These reforms are substantial, but lack explicit attention to the quality of teaching. Reform literature underscores the idea that the teacher is the most important school-related factor influencing student learning outcomes (Ingersoll, 2001; Rockoff, 2004). It is hardly possible to create effective schools without high quality teaching that addresses the academic needs of students, particularly those with low socio-economic status (Aaronson et al., 2007; Elmore, 2004).

The literature also emphasizes that developing high quality teaching is not a straightforward task, but can be gained through continuous reflection and work on classroom teaching (Elmore, 2004). Principals play a critical role in this. Effective school studies indicate that schools should have principals who work closely with teachers with the purpose of improving classroom instruction (Brievé, 1972; Duke & Stiggins, 1985). Acknowledging the importance of principals taking responsibility for increasing the quality of teaching, the Turkish Ministry of Education has now stated that school principals should become instructional leaders, and mandated them to enter classrooms, observe teaching, and provide feedback to teachers. However, little was known about how Turkish principals were responding to these new demands.

In this study, my purpose was to provide a comprehensive understanding of middle school principals' instructional leadership behaviors and actions by investigating the extent to which principals are engaged in instructional leadership activities, which factors explain the variation in their engagement in instructional leadership, how they understand and enact instructional leadership tasks, and what challenges surface as they take the instructional leadership role. I used the explanatory approach of mixed method research to accomplish my purpose. Specifically, I started with a quantitative data analysis, drawing on TALIS teacher and principal survey data. Then I used the findings from the quantitative analysis to determine the sample and research focus for the qualitative part.

Quantitative Results

The first cycle of this research started with the analysis of TALIS data, where I examined the extent of instructional leadership practiced by principals. The results indicated that principals engaged in the management of instruction, such as discussing classroom problems and solving them, as well as paying attention to student misbehavior more frequently than any other behaviors. Principals observed instruction and provided feedback to teachers with the least frequency. The results were similar across principal and teacher reports: both indicated that principals are involved in the supervision of teaching with less frequency than they are in discussing and solving teachers' classroom problems and paying attention to student misbehaviors. This finding is consistent with prior studies finding that Turkish principals were less likely to engage in activities aimed at the direct improvement of teaching. (Aksoy & Isik, 2008; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013)

Principals on average had more positive perceptions of their instructional leadership in comparison to teacher's views of them. This finding is consistent with prior Turkish studies

(Gumuseli, 1996) and others. Finding similar results, Hallinger (2013) stressed that teachers' perceptions provide more valid and reliable information concerning the extent of principals' participation in instructional leadership processes.

In the second part of the quantitative chapter, I looked for factors that might explain variations in principals' instructional leadership. I found that principals in private schools had significantly higher means in instructional leadership items than principals in public schools and explored this further in the qualitative study of middle school principals and teachers. I provide further reflection on them in the following section.

Female principals had significantly higher means than male principals. Other scholars have found a positive relationship between instructional leadership and female principals (Hallinger et al., 1996; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The current research failed to provide a extensive explanation for this result. Leithwood, Bergley and Cousins explained this through the differences in the socialization experience of men and women. This difference influences their career aspirations and perception of school leadership. Since male principals start their administrative careers early because they have a desire to take managerial positions (superintendency), they consequently are inclined to managerial issues. However, female principals start their administrative careers later and consider themselves to be involved more in activities related to curriculum and instruction (as cited in Hallinger et al., 1996).

The quantitative survey analysis found no significant relationship between principals' educational level and teachers' and principals' perceived instructional leadership. One possible explanation might be the quality and content of graduate programs. Ada and Gumus (2012) found that most universities in Turkey did not have courses in their educational administration

master's programs that equip learners with theoretical and practical knowledge for instructional leadership. It is not possible to expect principals to practice what they have no knowledge of.

Principals' experience levels had no significant relationship to principals' and teachers' perceived instructional leadership. This finding is also consistent with what Hallinger et al. (1996) found. This data here may reflect the state of expectations from the Ministry, which has not pressed principals to develop skills in this area. For instance, principals are expected to observe each teacher once a year. Principals have not shown much independent willingness to observe teaching more as they gain experience, and teachers are not enthusiastic about principals' presence in their classrooms.

Some literature has found that the overall the socio-economic status (SES) of a community is a significant predictor of instructional leadership (Hallinger et al., 1996). However, I did not find any significant relationship between SES and instructional leadership in the principal or teacher data, after using public vs. private school status as a proxy for SES. A related context variable—location, whether a school is located in an urban or rural area—was also not found to be significant. This may also reflect the centralized structure of education in Turkey, where school operations are dictated by the Ministry. Parents do not possess much authority for how their children's (public) school operates. Although it is true that parental involvement is higher in schools located in affluent environments, strict centralization may limit parents' impact on the administration of the school.

In the TALIS data, school size was not found to be significantly related to the extent of instructional leadership reported by principals. This finding is contradicted by prior studies showing a negative and significant relationship between school size and leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). It was further contradicted by the teacher data set, where the frequency of

principal involvement in instructional leadership decreased as the number of students enrolled increased (this was the only item in which responses between principals and teachers varied significantly). School size and high enrollments were also perceived as a major constraint by the interviewed middle school principals. In large, crowded schools it may not be possible for principals to allocate much time to teaching and learning, where larger numbers of teachers imply more supervision and observation demands (Lambert, 1998) and more managerial issues, including discipline and budget. The difference makes sense if the same amount of time must be allocated across a larger number of people and issues. Conversely, in less crowded schools, teachers may feel more interaction with their principal and vice versa even though principals may spend the same amount of time, overall, on instructional leadership activities.

Synthesis of Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The second cycle of this research involved studies of principal and teacher perceptions in a sample of schools. I inquired into how principals' instructional leadership was understood and enacted and what issues might explain the way that they selected and enacted instructional leadership behaviors.

The quantitative data analysis indicated that principals did relatively better in the management of school goals. However, the qualitative analysis indicated that the way participants perceived goals was not consistent with what goals mean in instructional leadership theories. I found that the idea of setting and communicating school goals was understood by participants from a broader perspective. Goal setting referred to broad school goals that were set once every four years. Therefore, the goals were too broad and not vibrant; that is, they were not operational goals that addressed or adapted to short-term instructional and student learning problems. The second problem about goal setting was that there was a very limited focus on

improving teaching. The most important goal that came out of documents and the interviews was increasing student achievement. The principals, however, failed to link student achievement to the quality of classroom instruction by setting clear goals and expectations concerning teacher improvement.

In the quantitative phase of my study, I found that principals were mostly involved in activities discussing and solving teachers' classroom problems. The qualitative field study, however, revealed that most of the classroom related problems that teachers took to their principals were about student discipline issues. Teachers preferred not to talk to their principals regarding their instructional issues; rather, they talked to a colleague whose expertise in the same subject matter was acknowledged. It can therefore be concluded that teachers and principals got involved in a type of discourse to address classroom problems, yet these problems were not directly related to the improvement of instruction.

In the quantitative data, I found that supervision of instruction was done by principals with the least frequency. When the issue was further investigated through the qualitative field study, I ended up with the understanding that observations were done in a way that did not contribute to teacher learning based on perceptions. There was a sense among participants that observations were done in order to fulfill the basic requirements mandated by the Ministry. A substantial number of teachers either got little or no feedback regarding their teaching after observations.

The qualitative and quantitative data contradicted concerning the degree to which private and public school principals differed in their engagement in instructional leadership behaviors. In opposition to the quantitative results, which showed higher involvement by private school principals, perception based qualitative data revealed evidence that public school principals were

involved in many behaviors, whereas private school principals delegated these instructional leadership tasks to subject matter committees. One possible explanation why the survey might favor private school principals might be that private school teachers were pleased with having a principal who provided them with substantial discretion to work with and influence each other. Similarly, being supervised by a principal with no discretion shared with teachers might bring about dissatisfaction with the practices of principals among public school teachers.

Besides the differences between public and private schools, the analysis of quantitative data showed gender as a significant factor that determined the extent of principals' involvement in instructional leadership activities. This is consistent with what Gokyer (2010) found while investigating the relationship of several factors to the instructional leadership of primary school principals. The qualitative data supported this result. Several pieces of evidence surfaced from the analysis of interview data, including the fact that female principals in this study tended to emphasize giving feedback to teachers. Unlike male teachers, they worked closely with students, parents and teachers to improve their students' academic experiences, to identify academic problems of students, and to investigate ways for resolving these issues. Their descriptions of relationships transcended the traditional top-down relations between the leaders and subordinates embedded in the theory of instructional leadership. This supports Leithwood's explanation that differences between men and women in instructional leadership might be due to differences in their socialization experiences (as cited in Hallinger et al., 1996).

The expectations, beliefs and assumptions of teachers and principals seemed to play a critical role in shaping the current state of principals' instructional leadership. Although scholars associated effective schools with the principals who assumed multifaceted roles for promoting effective teaching, the image of an ideal principal in the eye of teachers was not the one who is

involved in instructional matters. When teachers described effective principals, they focused largely on the knowledge of theory and practice in the field of leadership, as well as social capital including trust, respect, communication and collaboration. This definition concurred with the literature, in which it was overwhelmingly supported that social capital, and leadership skills and knowledge are prerequisites for leaders to engage in effective leadership practices (Glickman et al., 2001). Desire to have such principals, however, did not mean that those principals should be associated with instructional matters. Teachers did not seem to be willing to have a principal in the school who is engaged in teaching. Some issues emerged as significant barriers to the idea of linking principals with teaching and learning.

Challenges to Instructional Leadership

Gumuseli (1996) identified a wide range of issues that could possibly make it difficult for principals to assume instructional leadership roles. The list included bureaucratic barriers, inadequate time and education, lack of a strong vision, and deficiency in the sense of courage and resolution. According to the qualitative data in my study, the most pressing constraints were more about principals' limited leadership content knowledge, teachers' sense of privacy, poor internal accountability and lack of coherence among instructional leadership activities. These factors were substantial in shaping principals' and teachers' perception of what a principal should look like and do.

School personnel, including teachers, principals, and counselors, had a strong belief in teachers' expertise, and they therefore would avoid intervening in their classrooms. Consistently, the sense of teachers being experts in their field created an environment where classrooms were considered the private domain of teachers (Marshall, 2004). The idea of teaching being a private issue of teachers was justified and sustained by principals through the prevailing assumption that

all teachers in their school were effective. Teachers seemed to have similar assumptions and tended not to intervene in other teachers' private entities—their classrooms.

Given these conditions, schools failed to create an internal accountability mechanism that helped the personnel feel responsible for the instructional improvement of each other, and for student achievement. Teachers were largely isolated from one another, except for a few examples of pairs of teachers who were very close friends for many years. Principals also failed to create opportunities and conditions for teachers through which they benefit from each other's expertise.

Teachers' and principals' understanding of instructional leadership was mostly influenced and shaped by principals' direct involvement in the classroom, such as observing teaching and giving feedback to teachers. According to teachers, such involvement requires an extensive knowledge of the content and pedagogy of a given subject matter. Possessing a similar perception, principals who acknowledged the limited content knowledge they had in specific subject matters were not willing to create tension with teachers by intervening in classrooms. Although they visited classrooms since observations were mandatory, they avoided the type of discourse that showed teachers how to improve.

What participants in the study predominantly stressed about leadership knowledge of subject matter actually reflects the ideas of the preexisting literature that indicate that expecting secondary school principals to work directly on the improvement in teachers' instructional capacity is not practically possible, given their limited expertise in specific subject matters and their numerous managerial responsibilities due to larger student populations (Lambert, 1998; Leithwood, 1994). These scholars therefore provide a different definition of instructional leadership that focuses on improvement in the organizational aspects of the school. It has been indicated that leaders should recruit effective teachers and improve their capacity by creating

environments in which teachers acquire the support they need, instead of directly getting engaged in classroom instruction (Hornig & Loeb, 2010).

However, several problems may arise if such ideas are to be applied to the Turkish school context. First of all, principals' autonomy is so limited in this particular context that such a type of leadership is constrained. For instance, principals do not have sufficient discretion to determine the teachers with whom they want to work, nor to decide the type of professional development to be provided to teachers. Therefore, it may not be practically possible to limit principals' autonomy and to expect them to improve teaching and learning. Second, there is already some level of isolation between principals and classrooms. Such arguments might even deepen the current level of isolation.

A more practical and sound way of dealing with issue is to convince principals and teachers that not all aspects of instruction are related to the content of the subject matter. Rather, many subject matters share similar characteristics of what is considered to be effective instruction (Morzano, 2007). For instance, using effective incentives and sanctions to motivate students, checking for student learning through regular assessments, linking current materials with the previous ones, and helping students transfer classroom learning into real life experiences are some common components of good teaching. Effective teachers are apt at putting these strategies into practice as they teach. A principal, presumably as an effective former teacher who possesses comprehensive knowledge of one subject matter, can further that expertise to observe teaching and determine the needs of teachers and students (Stein & Neilson, 2003).

Learning various subjects has substantial implications for principals, but it may not be sufficient for them to become better instructional leaders. Principals seemed to lack not only knowledge but also professional experience to work with teachers on instructional improvement.

They did not have any experience of working with an effective instructional leader. In this context, I indicated that graduate programs at the universities in Turkey do not include sufficient number of courses that teach principals how to become effective instructional leaders. Even if principals acquire some knowledge of instructional leadership by taking courses at universities, these courses do not offer and hence would not be able to provide the practical skills that principals need. Principals need to have models or mentors at the school to teach and demonstrate to them how to act in ways that make teaching better satisfy students' academic needs.

My study also suggested that there was an issue of lack of coherence among essential components of instructional leadership. The quantitative research showed that principals were involved in instructional leadership activities more than "quite often" (a score of three on a four-points scale); however, the qualitative field research indicated that the way these activities were understood and carried out by principals did not touch the basic purpose of instructional leadership—improving instruction and enhancing student learning. In fact, there was either little or no connection among activities constituting instructional leadership. These practices seemed to be independent of one another and lacked a focus on improvement of teaching and learning. For instance, principals observed teaching, analyzed student achievement data, and set goals, but none of these activities were aligned with one another in a way that addressed the learning needs of students or teachers. Hence, it is possible to conclude that the presence of a range of instructional leadership practices by school principals in Turkey is evident, but the quality of these activities—the extent to which they promoted teacher improvement—seems to be a serious problem.

Implications for Policy, Practice and Research

Instructional leadership has received significant attention by the Ministry in Turkey, which has required principals to work on improving classroom instruction. In this study, I found that principals were mostly engaged in a limited set of instructional leadership tasks that lacked an intentional focus on improving teaching. The main issues that influenced the current state of principals' instructional leadership were limited leadership content knowledge, a strong sense of privacy among teachers, lack of internal accountability and lack of coherence among components of instructional leadership.

Taking into account the findings in this study, there are implications for policymakers at the Ministry level, for practice of both principals and teachers, and for future research.

Implications for Policymakers

One of the most substantial steps that can be taken by the Ministry is to make sure that principals are equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to work with teachers on their professional development and instructional improvement. Many principals in this study were former elementary teachers who did not possess deep knowledge within any particular subject matter. The research, however, asserted that school leaders should have extensive knowledge of teaching in a particular subject matter and how that subject matter is taught by teachers and learned by students. School leaders can then use that knowledge to further their understanding of other subject matters by learning how they are taught and learned. This was presented as an essential feature that an effective instructional leader should possess (Stein & Nelson, 2003). It is therefore important for Turkish principals at the secondary level to develop leadership content knowledge. This might be possible in several ways. First, I recommend that the Ministry recruits secondary school principals among effective teachers at the secondary school level. These

principals would have more of the skills and knowledge in teaching one particular subject matter, and they could further work to increase their understanding of the practice of fellow teachers in their own areas. Although this may still not make the principal equal to the teacher in a particular subject matter, the principals will have adequate confidence to engage in a meaningful conversation concerning the instructional performance of the teacher.

Second, I recommend that the Ministry provides secondary level school principals with in-service training that helps them increase their knowledge regarding the content and pedagogy of various subject matters. There are examples that support this idea. For instance, a number of secondary school principals in Michigan (USA) were provided with algebra-intensive courses by the university staff in order to develop principals' leadership content knowledge in algebra. The purpose was to help principals gain the necessary knowledge to help them feel confident in working with algebra teachers toward improving their practice of teaching (Carver, 2010). Since the Ministry in Turkey has already had in-service training opportunities available to principals, it would be relatively easy to incorporate teaching leadership content knowledge in their trainings.

The third way to develop leadership content knowledge and to help principals at the secondary level enhance their understanding of how to improve teaching is to establish graduate programs at universities that incorporate both theory and practice regarding the teaching of various important subject matters, including math, science, and social studies. A large number of educational administration departments in Turkish universities are research and theory-focused, and therefore they lack programs that provide principals with practice-based knowledge regarding how to improve instruction (Ada & Gumus, 2012). I recommend that prospective practice-oriented graduate programs offer courses that intend to improve the leadership content

knowledge of principals working in secondary schools, including some knowledge about the subject, as well as how teachers teach and students learn that subject.

Offering teachers professional development opportunities is an important component of instructional leadership. Yet the fact that professional development is determined and provided by a centralized mechanism contradicts the basic tenets of instructional leadership. The Ministry requires principals to observe teaching and provide teachers with necessary feedback to address issues. However, due to the hierarchical structure of the system, principals lack the power to determine the type of professional development to be offered to teachers based on the issues that they encounter during classroom visits. Consequently, it was seen in this study that professional development activities provided by the Ministry are not based on teachers' classroom practices, and therefore they do not satisfy the needs of teachers. In response to this problem, I recommend that the Ministry decentralizes the organization and delivery of professional development by giving more discretion to principals and teachers so that they can determine the content and type of professional development necessary in their classrooms and schools. This would give teachers and principals the opportunity to determine professional development based on what they actually need.

The purpose of the Ministry is to improve the quality of teaching by extending the presence of principals in the classrooms. According to both sets of data in this research, principals are involved in a range of instructional leadership activities, yet the influence on instruction is not perceived by teachers and principals to be significant. This suggests that when it is mandated, principals might engage in some activities associated with instructional leadership. However, this does not guarantee that these activities or practices will contribute to instructional change toward improvement. It is indicated that external accountability does not

bring out desired outcomes unless it is also supported by internal accountability (Elmore & Fuhrman, 2001). The principals should believe in the value of what they do as instructional leaders, and show desire and have a sense of efficacy in improving teaching and learning. Teachers should believe the power of working with the principal and other teachers and be willing to open their doors. The Ministry might not have much influence to create internal accountability in schools, but it can work on the reduction of school size to diminish isolation between the principal and teachers, as well as among teachers within the same school. This would also increase practices of instructional leadership, since school size has been found to be significantly related to leadership behaviors.

Implications for Practice

My research also has implications for practitioners, including teachers and principals. In this study, I found that principals and teachers were skeptical about the usefulness of classroom observation done by principals and its influence on teaching. This perception was influenced and shaped by teachers' understanding of knowledge in subject matters. They believed that principals cannot conduct meaningful and valuable observations in a class that requires in-depth knowledge of that subject. In practice, such assumptions and beliefs may not be accurate. Teaching takes place through the interaction of three entities: the teacher, students, and materials. The definition of effective teaching involves productive relations among these three entities. Understanding of these relations does not always require a comprehensive knowledge of the subject matter. Effective interactions of these entities often represent common characteristics of effective teaching in all subject matters (Danielson, 2007). Principals can be important sources in helping teachers to address issues associated with these interactions.

Given the common perception among practitioners in Turkey, principals having leadership content knowledge in various subject matters can convince teachers that they are capable of engaging in a type of conversation that can contribute to classroom teaching. Therefore, I recommend that principals work to learn various subject matters by developing an understanding of what is it like to teach those subject matters, how students learn them, and best instructional strategies for teaching them. They can then use that knowledge to lead teachers (Stein & Neilson, 2003).

This research indicates that principals were engaged in various instructional leadership activities, yet there was a lack of coherence among those activities. An effectively implemented data-driven decision-making strategy can be an important means to solve this problem. I recommend principals actively become involved in the analysis of data derived from the observation of instruction and student test results, in order to determine student and teacher needs. This would help them determine focused instructional goals and make meaningful decisions that address issues regarding teaching and learning (Marsh, Pane, & Hamilton, 2006).

Finally, it is important for teachers and principals to know that principals' influence on instruction does not only take place through their direct involvement in classroom, such as classroom observations. Many practices that require indirect involvement have significant potential to make a difference in the improvement of teaching and learning. For example, principals can create conditions and structures for teachers to interact with each other. Creating a community in which teachers learn from one another, for instance, is a substantial way through which principals can indirectly contribute to classroom instruction (Printy, 2008). Therefore, I recommend that principals not only depend on actions that require direct involvement in the classroom, but also use indirect means, such as creating communities for learning, using data,

developing structures for communities to collaborate and linking teachers to outside learning opportunities.

Implications for Future Research

The ultimate purpose of instructional leadership is to involve principals in the process of improving teaching and teacher quality as a means to enhance student learning. In order for instructional leadership practices to achieve this purpose, they should change the way that teachers teach. In my research, many teachers did not perceive instructional leadership performed by the principal as a means to influence their teaching. To address this, there needs to be further research investigating which practices of principals are more or less likely to stimulate change in the instructional strategies of teachers.

The qualitative data suggest some level of leadership distribution among the school community, including the principal, assistant principals, and teachers. For instance, the school principal is the formal leader who deals with most of the community outreach activities, such as collaborating with municipalities and private tutoring institutions to get resources that the school needs. Assistant principals, who are second to principals in the formal hierarchy, deal with most of the classroom and some of the school discipline issues, as well as lead teacher committee meetings. Although these activities are not directly related to teaching and learning, it might be helpful to remove some of the workload that principals spend time on.

I also recognize that teachers meet with each other for several times and discuss curriculum, exams, and struggling students. I did not extensively inquire into the extent and nature of such distribution, since my purpose was to investigate the practices of principals relevant to instructional leadership. Further research might concern itself with what the

distribution of instructional leadership looks like and what specific instructional leadership practices are distributed in Turkish school contexts.

CLOSING SUMMARY

The research stresses the substantial influence of the teacher on student learning, and it recommends that schools and national education systems should focus on building teachers' capacity toward effective instructional techniques that possess high potential to address each student's needs. But it is not the teacher alone who makes a difference. School improvement research over the last three decades has elaborated the importance of formal leaders, and it has found that they are second to teachers in contributing to enhancing student learning.

Through a substantial amount of research, we know that formal leaders do not directly influence student learning; rather, they can improve student achievement by taking a significant role to create an environment in which principals and teachers work together to help teachers acquire the knowledge and skills that are necessary for instructional change. Principals' instructional leadership practices are keystone to teachers' instructional improvement. Based on the instructional leadership perspective, effective school leaders are those who are involved in activities such as setting goals and expectations, working on instructional improvement by observing teaching and giving feedback to teachers, and creating school environments where teachers can learn from each other, monitor student achievement progress, and use data to make curricular and instructional decisions.

These skills are important for principals who want to improve teaching and learning in their schools. The Turkish Ministry of Education has also mandated some of these behaviors. In this research, I found that teachers and principals did not agree on the frequency of principals' involvement in instructional leadership, but they seemed to concur on what principals carry out, more or less. More importantly, the field study showed that the principals carried out certain tasks associated with instructional leadership, including setting goals, observing instruction and

dealing with classroom problems. However, the most fundamental purpose of instructional leadership was missing—to improve teaching. Instructional leadership activities of principals were not coherent, and therefore they lacked the potential to bring about and influence change in teachers' instructional practices.

There is a list that involves various reasons why the instructional leadership of formal leaders in Turkey does not carry out its purpose. The list includes limited resources, large school size, teacher privacy, limited internal accountability, and centralized control of teachers' professional development. However, the most substantial one, as stressed by teachers and principals alike, is that principals lack the necessary content knowledge that would enable them to provide teachers with assistance to determine instructional needs and corresponding actions for addressing these needs.

If the Turkish Ministry of Education is to catch up with top nations in international exams, there is a substantial need for them to fill schools with principals who possess knowledge and skills to help teachers and students to improve. This calls for a change in the Ministry's strategy for the selection and education of school principals. Future principals should be selected from those who are familiar with best practices, and current principals should be educated to get the type of expertise needed to help teachers improve their classroom practices for better student outcomes.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1:

TALIS Principal and Teacher Survey Instructional Leadership Items

TALIS Principal Survey Instructional Leadership Items

Indices	Items
Management-School Goals	1. I make sure that the professional development activities of teachers are in accordance with the teaching goals of the school. 2. I ensure that teachers work according to the school's educational goals. 3. I use student performance results to develop the school's educational goals. 4. I take exam results into account in decisions regarding curriculum development. 5. I ensure that there is clarity concerning the responsibility for coordinating the curriculum. 6. In this school, we work on goals and/or a school development plan.
Instructional Management	1. When a teacher has problems in his/her classroom, I take the initiative to discuss matters. 2. I inform teachers about possibilities for updating their knowledge and skills. 3. When a teacher brings up a classroom problem, we solve the problem together. 4. I pay attention to disruptive behavior in classrooms.
Direct Supervision of Instruction	1. I observe instruction in classrooms. 2. I give teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching. 3. I monitor students' work. 4. I check to see whether classroom activities are in keeping with our educational goals.

Instructional Leadership Items in the TALIS Teacher Survey

1. In meetings, the principal discusses educational goals with teachers.
 2. The principal ensures that teachers work according to the school's educational goals.
 3. The principal or someone else in the management team observes teaching in classes.
 4. The principal gives teachers suggestions as to how they can improve their teaching.
 5. When a teacher has problems in his/her classroom, the principal takes the initiative to discuss the matter.
 6. The principal ensures that teachers are informed about possibilities for updating their knowledge and skills.
 7. The principal compliments teachers for special effort or accomplishments.
 8. In this school, the principal and teachers work on a school development plan.
 9. The principal defines goals to be accomplished by the staff of this school
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APPENDIX 2:

Principal and Teacher Interview Protocols

Principal Interview Protocol

1. When you think of a principal in Turkey, who do you think they are and what they do in school?
2. As a principal, how would you define the effective school? What characteristics do you think a good school involves? What would be your contribution as a principal to the effective school that you define?
3. What do you think about instructional leadership? Does it have any value in improving school and supporting student learning in Turkish schools? How?
4. How do you think of yourself as an instructional leader? What strategies do you use to support teachers and instructional improvement? What strategies do you think you might be neglecting because of the nature of your job?
5. Do you feel any pressure or support from teachers or parents to become an instructional leader? (If yes, what type of pressure? Who? And How?) (if no, why do you think they do not? Is it about school culture, traditions, values, expectations or relationships?)
6. What changed in your understanding and practice of leadership after the 2010 regulation that mandates classroom observations and feedback to teachers? How do you feel about your new role? What challenges has it brought about? What strategies have you used to deal with challenges?
7. How did it affect your relationship with teachers? How do you think teachers might feel about your role? Have they talked you about it or have you encountered any type of resistance from teachers? How do you deal with problems related to relationships particularly with teachers?
8. What kind of academic goals do you have? How do you determine these goals? How do you use these goals? Do you feel need for becoming a better instructional leader due to the nature of school goals?
9. Do teachers get involved in the process of improving teaching and learning activities? How do you work together? What are challenges of working with teachers? Does working collaboratively with teachers change your perception of yourself as a leader? How do you feel?
10. Do you have teacher committees in your school who work on improving teaching and learning? What do they do? To what extent are you connected to them? How do you contribute to their work?
11. Have you ever felt that you do not have sufficient knowledge or experience to help teachers become better instructors? What did you do in that case? (External resources or help)
12. To what extent do you discuss instructional problems with teachers? What type of classroom problems do they bring the most (instructional, behavioral or resource problems)? What strategies do you use to help them (observing classrooms, mentoring, educational conversations, guiding inquiry, setting direction, offering advice, modelling, focusing teacher talk on student learning, and giving feedback)?
13. What do you think the concept of student achievement involves? To what extent it is important for you? Do you use them for decision making purposes? How? Is there any mechanism in the school or education system that encourages you to spend effort for increasing student achievement? How?

14. Do you have discipline and safety problems in your schools? Do you think this affect teaching and learning activities in classroom? How do you deal with those problems?
15. What sort of environment do you think would (or does) support you in bringing the educational aspects of leadership to the forefront of your work in the school?

Teacher Interview Protocol

1. When you think of a principal in Turkey, who do you think they are and what they do in school?
2. As a teacher, how would you define the effective school? What characteristics do you think a good school involves? What would be your contribution as a teacher to the effective school that you define?
3. What do you think about instructional leadership? Does it have any value in improving school and supporting student learning in Turkish schools? How?
4. How do you think of yourself as an instructional leader? Have you ever been engaged in activities to support teachers and instruction?
5. How do you think your principal as an instructional leader? Do you think he/she can help you to become a better teacher? How does he/she help you to improve your teaching and learning?
6. Do you feel any pressure or support from the principal, other teachers or parents to work collaboratively on student learning and teacher improvement? (If yes, what type of pressure? Who? And How?) (if no, why do you think they do not? Is it about school culture, traditions, values, expectations or relationships?)
7. You probably have information regarding the 2010 regulation that mandates principals to observe classroom and give feedback to teachers? Does this regulation change anything in the school? How do you feel about principals' new role?
8. How did the 2010 regulation affect you as a teacher and your relationship with the principal and other teachers? Do you have a different perception of principalship now?
9. How do you feel when a principal come to your classroom to observe your instruction?
10. What kind of academic goals do you have? How do you determine these goals? How do you use these goals? Do you feel need for becoming a better instructor/teacher due to the nature of school goals?
11. When you have an instructional problem, who would be the person that you ask help from? Why? How about your principal? Why?
12. Do teachers get involved in the process of improving teaching and learning activities in the school? How do you work together? What is your role? What are challenges of working with other teachers? Does working collaboratively with teachers change your perception of yourself as a teacher? How do you feel?
13. Do you have teacher committees in your school who work on improving teaching and learning? What do they do? To what extent are you connected to them? How do you contribute to their work as a teacher?
14. To what extent do you discuss instructional problems with the principal or other teachers? What type of classroom problems do teachers bring the most (instructional, behavioral or resource problems)? What strategies do you use to help them (observing classrooms, mentoring, educational conversations, guiding inquiry, setting direction, offering advice, modelling, focusing teacher talk on student learning, and giving feedback)?
15. Do you participate in any activities outside the school that help you improve your teaching? Which? How are you informed about these opportunities?

16. What do you think the concept of student achievement involves? To what extent it is important for you? Do you discuss student achievement with principals and teachers? How? Do you use them for decision making purposes (e.g. changing instructional strategy)? How?
17. Do you have discipline and safety problems in your schools? Do you think this affect teaching and learning activities in classroom? How do you deal with those problems?
18. As a teacher, what sort of environment do you think would (or does) support you in bringing the educational aspects to the forefront of your work in the school?

APPENDIX 3:

Consent Forms for Teachers and Principals

Consent Form for Teachers

08/20/2013

TEACHER CONSENT FORM TO PARTICIPATE IN INTERVIEWS AND AUDIO-TAPING

Dear Teacher,

The interview questions I am asking you to answer are part of my doctoral dissertation which aims to better understand the concept and practices of instructional leadership in Turkey. Audio-recording will help us to focus more on the essence of questions rather than note-taking. In a broad definition instructional leadership is a term used for principals who gives priority to academic aspect of the school such as school goals, instructional quality, teacher improvement, and student achievement. If you have time, I would be interested in any comments you may have about your thoughts, experience with and feelings with regard to instructional leadership practices of your principals.

- ❖ You will be asked to answer our questions during the interview time yet you will be able to see questions in advance. The interview will last about 30-50 minutes.
- ❖ I want to clearly state that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can refuse to answer any question as well as stop participating in the study at any time. If at any point during the study you wish to discontinue, the information collected will not be used in the analysis and results of this project.
- ❖ To ensure confidentiality, your name will not be collected and any identifying information about you will not be exposed in any way. Data will only be reported in the aggregate so no individual information will be singled out. Every effort will also be made to protect the confidentiality of the information provided. All materials will be kept in a secure and locked location. In case individual data is needed pseudonyms will be used to disguise personal identifiers in any written reports, publications, and presentations.
- ❖ You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by participating in the interviews and audio-taping of the interviews.

If you have questions about your participation in this research project, you may contact me through (bellibas@msu.edu), Phone Turkey: (x) or US (x) or my advisor Prof. BetsAnn Smith at Michigan State University (x). If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact - anonymously, if you wish, the Michigan State University's Human Research Protection Program (HRPP) at: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 207 Olds Hall, MSU, East Lansing, MI 48824.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in the research.

Sincerely,

Mehmet Sukru Bellibas
Doctoral Student at Michigan State University

Consent Form for Principals

08/20/2013

TEACHER CONSENT FORM TO PARTICIPATE IN INTERVIEWS AND AUDIO-TAPING

Dear Principal,

The interview questions I am asking you to answer are part of my doctoral dissertation which aims to better understand the concept and practices of instructional leadership in Turkey. Audio-recording will help us to focus more on the essence of questions rather than note-taking. In a broad definition instructional leadership is a term used for principals who gives priority to the academic aspect of the school such as school goals, instructional quality, teacher improvement, and student achievement. If you have time, I would be interested in any comments you may have about your thoughts, experience with and feelings with regard to your instructional leadership practices.

- ❖ You will be asked to answer our questions during the interview time yet you will be able to see questions in advance. The interview will last about 30-50 minutes.
- ❖ I want to clearly state that your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You can refuse to answer any question as well as stop participating in the study at any time. If at any point during the study you wish to discontinue, the information collected will not be used in the analysis and results of this project.
- ❖ To ensure confidentiality, your name will not be collected and any identifying information about you will not be exposed in any way. Data will only be reported in the aggregate so no individual information will be singled out. Every effort will also be made to protect the confidentiality of the information provided. All materials will be kept in a secure and locked location. In case individual data is needed pseudonyms will be used to disguise personal identifiers in any written reports, publications, and presentations.
- ❖ You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by participating in the interviews and audio-taping of the interviews.

If you have questions about your participation in this research project, you may contact me through (bellibas@msu.edu), Phone Turkey: (x) or US:(x) or my advisor Prof. BetsAnn Smith at Michigan State University (x). If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a study participant, or are dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of this study, you may contact - anonymously, if you wish, the Michigan State University's Human Research Protection Program (HRPP) at: (517) 355-2180, fax: (517) 432-4503, email: irb@msu.edu, or regular mail: 207 Olds Hall, MSU, East Lansing, MI 48824.

Thank you for taking the time to participate in the research.

Sincerely,

Mehmet Sukru Bellibas
Doctoral Student at Michigan State University

APPENDIX 4:

ANOVA Tables for Principal Survey Analyses: School Factors

Table 26

One Way ANOVA Table for the Mean Difference among Categories of School Location (City, Town and Village)

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Management Of School Goals	Village	7	-0.499	1.161	2	2.032	.092
	Town	66	-0.445	.812	182		
	City	112	-0.400	.941			
	Total	185	-0.420	.901	184		
Instructional Management	Village	7	0.542	.956	2	.290	.884
	Town	66	0.354	.929	180		
	City	110	0.476	.912			
	Total	183	0.434	.917	182		
Supervision of Instruction	Village	7	0.394	.926	2	1.407	.233
	Town	66	0.260	.631	180		
	City	110	0.449	.760			
	Total	183	0.378	.724	182		
Instructional Leadership	Village	7	0.196	1.227	2	.794	.530
	Town	66	0.076	.846	180		
	City	110	0.231	.985			
	Total	183	0.174	.945	182		

APPENDIX 5:

ANOVA Tables for Principal Survey Analyses: Principals' Characteristics

Table 27

One Way ANOVA Table for the Mean Difference between principals with bachelor and Masters' Degree

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Management of Goals	Bachelor	177	-0.435	.900	1	.671	.414
	Masters	7	-0.151	.878	182		
	Total	184	-0.424	.898	183		
Instructional Management	Bachelor	176	0.442	.930	1	.131	.718
	Masters	7	0.314	.526	181		
	Total	183	0.438	.917	182		
Supervision of Instruction	Bachelor	176	0.369	.729	1	.337	.562
	Masters	7	0.531	.615	181		
	Total	183	0.375	.724	182		
Instructional Leadership	Bachelor	176	0.169	.952	1	.151	.698
	Masters	7	0.311	.822	181		
	Total	183	0.175	.945	182		

Table 28

One Way ANOVA Table for the Mean Difference among Principals according to Principals' Total Year of Experience

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Management of Goals	0-2 Years	20	-0.484	.831	2	.253	.777
	3-15 Years	111	-0.383	.946	182		
	16 And More	54	-0.478	.836			
	Total	185	-0.422	.900	184		
Instructional Management	0-2 Years	20	0.411	.946	2	.065	.937
	3-15 Years	111	0.448	.891	180		
	16 And More	52	0.394	.958			
	Total	183	0.429	.912	182		
Supervision of Instruction	0-2 Years	20	0.496	.744	2	.407	.666
	3-15 Years	111	0.345	.702	180		
	16 And More	52	0.401	.773			
	Total	183	0.377	.725	182		
Instructional Leadership	0-2 Years	20	0.190	.925	2	.057	.945
	3-15 Years	111	0.184	.922	180		
	16 And More	52	0.133	1.011			
	Total	183	0.170	.943	182		

Table 29

One Way ANOVA Table for the Mean Difference among Principals according to the Year of Experience in the Current School

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Management of Goals	0-2 Years	56	-0.457	.840	2	1.888	.154
	3-15 Years	120	-0.416	.911	180		
	16 And More	7	0.226	.739			
	Total	183	-0.404	.889	184		
Instructional Management	0-2 Years	55	0.396	.905	2	.100	.905
	3-15 Years	119	0.447	.921	178		
	16 And More	7	0.535	1.011			
	Total	181	0.435	.915	180		
Supervision of Instruction	0-2 Years	55	0.314	.665	2	1.340	.264
	3-15 Years	119	0.403	.726	178		
	16 And More	7	0.775	.929			
	Total	181	0.390	.717	180		
Instructional Leadership	0-2 Years	55	0.116	.895	2	1.169	.313
	3-15 Years	119	0.190	.950	178		
	16 And More	7	0.688	.950			
	Total	181	0.187	.935	180		

APPENDIX 6:

ANOVA Tables for Teacher Survey Analyses: Factors Related To Teachers' Characteristics

Table 30

One Way ANOVA Table for Mean Difference between Female and Male Teachers' Understanding of Principals Instructional Leadership

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Female	1705	2.91	.714	1	19.885	.000
	Male	1356	2.79	.759	3059		
	Total	3061	2.86	.736	3060		
Defines Staff Goals	Female	1690	2.76	.756	1	17.077	.000
	Male	1349	2.65	.781	3037		
	Total	3039	2.71	.769	3038		
Works on Development Plan	Female	1698	2.67	.790	1	9.186	.002
	Male	1353	2.58	.801	3049		
	Total	3051	2.63	.796	3050		
Works According Goals	Female	1703	2.97	.704	1	18.793	.000
	Male	1354	2.86	.727	3055		
	Total	3057	2.92	.716	3056		
Takes Initiative to Problems	Female	1693	2.48	.836	1	.068	.794
	Male	1351	2.47	.803	3042		
	Total	3044	2.47	.821	3043		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	Female	1694	2.38	.861	1	2.535	.111
	Male	1347	2.33	.859	3039		
	Total	3041	2.35	.860	3040		
Compliments Special Efforts	Female	1699	2.47	.844	1	11.231	.001
	Male	1349	2.58	.851	3046		
	Total	3048	2.52	.848	3047		
Observes Classrooms	Female	1694	2.08	.760	1	5.805	.016
	Male	1349	2.15	.722	3041		
	Total	3043	2.11	.744	3042		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	Female	1698	2.27	.801	1	.006	.940
	Male	1350	2.27	.807	3046		
	Total	3048	2.27	.804	3047		

Table 31

One Way ANOVA Table for Mean Difference between Bachelor and Graduate Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	College	2838	2.85	.731	1	.289	.591
	Graduate	213	2.88	.813	3049		
	Total	3051	2.86	.737	3050		
Defines Staff Goals	College	2815	2.71	.764	1	.420	.517
	Graduate	214	2.74	.830	3027		
	Total	3029	2.71	.769	3028		
Works on Development Plan	College	2828	2.63	.791	1	.001	.981
	Graduate	213	2.63	.857	3039		
	Total	3041	2.63	.796	3040		
Works According Goals	College	2836	2.92	.710	1	.820	.365
	Graduate	212	2.96	.802	3046		
	Total	3048	2.92	.716	3047		
Takes Initiative to Problems	College	2825	2.48	.819	1	.566	.452
	Graduate	210	2.43	.852	3033		
	Total	3035	2.47	.821	3034		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	College	2818	2.35	.855	1	1.275	.259
	Graduate	213	2.42	.921	3029		
	Total	3031	2.35	.860	3030		
Compliments Special Efforts	College	2824	2.52	.845	1	.001	.973
	Graduate	214	2.52	.881	3036		
	Total	3038	2.52	.848	3037		
Observes Classrooms	College	2819	2.11	.739	1	2.614	.106
	Graduate	214	2.19	.791	3031		
	Total	3033	2.11	.743	3032		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	College	2825	2.26	.795	1	1.409	.235
	Graduate	213	2.33	.903	3036		
	Total	3038	2.27	.803	3037		

APPENDIX 7:

ANOVA Tables for Teacher Survey Analyses: School Factors

Table 32

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to School Type (Public and Private)

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Public	2321	2.78	.725	1	118.63	.000
	Private	708	3.11	.707	3027		
	Total	3029	2.86	.735	3028		
Defines Staff Goals	Public	2308	2.61	.761	1	196.23	.000
	Private	700	3.06	.686	3006		
	Total	3008	2.71	.768	3007		
Works on Development Plan	Public	2313	2.50	.769	1	272.78	.000
	Private	706	3.05	.735	3017		
	Total	3019	2.63	.794	3018		
Works According Goals	Public	2319	2.82	.713	1	190.30	.000
	Private	706	3.24	.627	3023		
	Total	3025	2.92	.715	3024		
Takes Initiative to Problems	Public	2309	2.42	.818	1	41.91	.000
	Private	703	2.65	.799	3010		
	Total	3012	2.48	.819	3011		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	Public	2305	2.24	.837	1	185.21	.000
	Private	704	2.73	.822	3007		
	Total	3009	2.35	.858	3008		
Compliments Special Efforts	Public	2309	2.44	.836	1	76.05	.000
	Private	708	2.76	.841	3015		
	Total	3017	2.52	.848	3016		
Observes Classrooms	Public	2306	2.00	.690	1	226.63	.000
	Private	705	2.47	.799	3009		
	Total	3011	2.11	.744	3010		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	Public	2310	2.15	.772	1	210.83	.000
	Private	706	2.64	.786	3014		
	Total	3016	2.27	.802	3015		

Table 33

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to School Location

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Village	74	2.93	.709	2	.433	.649
	Town	979	2.86	.742	2988		
	City	1938	2.85	.733			
	Total	2991	2.86	.735	2990		
Defines Staff Goals	Village	74	2.84	.777	2	2.678	.069
	Town	966	2.67	.768	2969		
	City	1932	2.73	.768			
	Total	2972	2.71	.768	2971		
Works Development Plan	Village	74	2.91	.814	2	6.200	.002
	Town	977	2.59	.782	2978		
	City	1930	2.65	.796			
	Total	2981	2.63	.793	2980		
Work According To Goals	Village	74	3.05	.660	2	2.464	.085
	Town	977	2.89	.711	2984		
	City	1936	2.93	.721			
	Total	2987	2.92	.717	2986		
Take Initiative To Discuss Problems	Village	74	2.51	.745	2	.072	.931
	Town	973	2.48	.799	2971		
	City	1927	2.48	.830			
	Total	2974	2.48	.818	2973		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	Village	73	2.62	.860	2	7.087	.001
	Town	972	2.29	.846	2968		
	City	1926	2.38	.859			
	Total	2971	2.36	.856	2970		
Compliments Special Effort	Village	73	2.79	.833	2	4.372	.013
	Town	976	2.49	.853	2975		
	City	1929	2.53	.840			
	Total	2978	2.52	.845	2977		

Table 33 (cont'd)

Observes Classrooms	Village	74	2.22	.727	2 3.079	.046
	Town	972	2.07	.721	2971	
	City	1928	2.13	.754		
	Total	2974	2.12	.743	2973	
Gives Suggestions to Improve	Village	74	2.39	.825	2 2.277	.103
	Town	973	2.23	.789	2975	
	City	1931	2.28	.805		
	Total	2978	2.27	.801	2977	

Table 34

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to Percentile of Parents with a High School Diploma

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Less Than 10%	436	2.85	.728	4	5.651	.000
	10% - 20%	573	2.77	.737	2981		
	20% - 40%	702	2.95	.730			
	40% - 60%	748	2.81	.730			
	60% Or More	527	2.86	.755			
	Total	2986	2.85	.738	2985		
Defines Staff Goals	Less Than 10%	433	2.66	.815	4	10.261	.000
	10% - 20%	569	2.55	.783	2962		
	20% - 40%	698	2.80	.751			
	40% - 60%	743	2.71	.767			
	60% Or More	524	2.79	.722			
	Total	2967	2.71	.771	2966		
Works On Development Plan	Less Than 10%	433	2.54	.846	4	16.414	.000
	10% - 20%	570	2.46	.779	2971		
	20% - 40%	701	2.70	.767			
	40% - 60%	745	2.61	.793			
	60% Or More	527	2.80	.774			
	Total	2976	2.63	.797	2975		
Takes Initiative To Discuss Problems	Less Than 10%	434	2.52	.902	4	2.006	.091
	10% - 20%	569	2.43	.836	2964		
	20% - 40%	698	2.52	.771			
	40% - 60%	743	2.46	.826			
	60% Or More	525	2.42	.793			
	Total	2969	2.47	.822	2968		

Table 34 (cont'd)

Informs About Opportunities To Update Knowledge	Less Than 10%	433	2.24	.874	4	9.149	.000
	10% - 20%	569	2.23	.870	2961		
	20% - 40%	695	2.45	.842			
	40% - 60%	745	2.34	.863			
	60% Or More	524	2.46	.830			
	Total	2966	2.35	.860	2965		
Compliments Special Efforts	Less Than 10%	436	2.50	.854	4	4.945	.001
	10% - 20%	571	2.39	.864	2969		
	20% - 40%	697	2.54	.833			
	40% - 60%	745	2.53	.836			
	60% Or More	525	2.61	.855			
	Total	2974	2.51	.849	2973		
Observes Classrooms	Less Than 10%	436	2.10	.752	4	3.458	.008
	Less Than 10%	570	2.06	.707	2964		
	10% - 20%	698	2.12	.765			
	20% - 40%	740	2.08	.739			
	40% - 60%	525	2.22	.765			
	60% Or More	2969	2.11	.747	2968		
Gives Suggestions To Improve	Less Than 10%	436	2.23	.805	4	6.157	.000
	10% - 20%	568	2.18	.764	2969		
	20% - 40%	699	2.32	.828			
	40% - 60%	745	2.21	.795			
	60% Or More	526	2.38	.804			
	Total	2974	2.26	.803	2973		

Table 35

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to Percentile of Parents with Bachelor Degree

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Less Than 10%	1164	2.78	.717	4	14.977	.000
	10% - 20%	575	2.82	.753	2986		
	20% - 40%	552	2.83	.725			
	40% - 60%	366	2.91	.789			
	60% Or More	334	3.12	.687			
	Total	2991	2.85	.738	2990		
Defines Staff Goals	Less Than 10%	1158	2.57	.772	4	30.717	.000
	10% - 20%	569	2.67	.759	2967		
	20% - 40%	551	2.71	.729			
	40% - 60%	363	2.88	.758			
	60% Or More	331	3.05	.723			
	Total	2972	2.71	.769	2971		
Works On Development Plan	Less Than 10%	1154	2.46	.775	4	40.874	.000
	10% - 20%	576	2.59	.773	2976		
	20% - 40%	553	2.65	.761			
	40% - 60%	366	2.85	.812			
	60% Or More	332	3.00	.762			
	Total	2981	2.63	.796	2980		
Works According Goals	Less Than 10%	1160	2.79	.724	4	32.191	.000
	10% - 20%	574	2.88	.704	2982		
	20% - 40%	553	2.92	.700			
	40% - 60%	366	3.07	.691			
	60% Or More	334	3.24	.656			
	Total	2987	2.92	.719	2986		
Take Initiative To Discuss Problems	Less Than 10%	1157	2.46	.827	4	6.274	.000
	10% - 20%	570	2.45	.792	2969		
	20% - 40%	553	2.37	.813			
	40% - 60%	362	2.48	.846			
	60% Or More	332	2.65	.795			
	Total	2974	2.47	.819	2973		

Table 35 (cont'd)

Informs About Opportunities To Update Knowledge	Less Than 10%	1153	2.23	.834	4	24.944	.000
	10% - 20%	572	2.30	.865	2967		
	20% - 40%	551	2.33	.834			
	40% - 60%	365	2.55	.868			
	60% Or More	331	2.69	.847			
	Total	2972	2.35	.859	2971		
Compliments Special Efforts	Less Than 10%	1156	2.42	.826	4	10.659	.000
	10% - 20%	572	2.55	.832	2974		
	20% - 40%	552	2.47	.856			
	40% - 60%	365	2.60	.841			
	60% Or More	334	2.73	.896			
	Total	2979	2.51	.848	2978		
Observes Classrooms	Less Than 10%	1154	2.04	.714	4	28.425	.000
	10% - 20%	573	2.03	.709	2969		
	20% - 40%	549	2.03	.723			
	40% - 60%	363	2.34	.799			
	60% Or More	335	2.41	.771			
	Total	2974	2.11	.745	2973		
Gives Suggestions To Improve	Less Than 10%	1156	2.17	.768	4	23.383	.000
	10% - 20%	571	2.21	.815	2973		
	20% - 40%	553	2.20	.776			
	40% - 60%	365	2.45	.816			
	60% Or More	333	2.57	.824			
	Total	2978	2.26	.803	2977		

APPENDIX 8:

ANOVA Tables for Teacher Survey Analyses: Factors Related to Principals' Characteristics

Table 36

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to Principals' Gender

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Female	275	3.16	.691	1	54.007	.000
	Male	2718	2.82	.735	2991		
	Total	2993	2.85	.737	2992		
Defines Staff Goals	Female	273	3.07	.730	1	66.995	.000
	Male	2698	2.67	.765	2969		
	Total	2971	2.71	.770	2970		
Works on Development Plan	Female	275	2.99	.824	1	63.439	.000
	Male	2709	2.59	.784	2982		
	Total	2984	2.63	.796	2983		
Works According Goals	Female	275	3.24	.709	1	61.413	.000
	Male	2714	2.88	.710	2987		
	Total	2989	2.92	.717	2988		
Takes Initiative to Problems	Female	272	2.75	.804	1	34.608	.000
	Male	2704	2.44	.819	2974		
	Total	2976	2.47	.822	2975		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	Female	274	2.68	.868	1	44.794	.000
	Male	2700	2.32	.851	2972		
	Total	2974	2.35	.859	2973		
Compliments Special Efforts	Female	275	2.80	.900	1	34.515	.000
	Male	2705	2.49	.840	2978		
	Total	2980	2.51	.851	2979		
Observes Classrooms	Female	275	2.58	.804	1	125.922	.000
	Male	2699	2.06	.721	2972		
	Total	2974	2.11	.744	2973		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	Female	273	2.62	.859	1	60.396	.000
	Male	2706	2.22	.786	2977		
	Total	2979	2.26	.801	2978		

Table 37

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to Principals' Educational Level

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	Bachelor	2853	2.85	.737	1	.244	.622
	Masters	137	2.88	.728	2988		
	Total	2990	2.85	.737	2989		
Defines Staff Goals	Bachelor	2832	2.71	.770	1	.014	.905
	Masters	137	2.72	.766	2967		
	Total	2969	2.71	.770	2968		
Works on Development Plan	Bachelor	2844	2.63	.792	1	.304	.582
	Masters	137	2.66	.868	2979		
	Total	2981	2.63	.796	2980		
Works According Goals	Bachelor	2849	2.92	.717	1	.063	.802
	Masters	137	2.93	.699	2984		
	Total	2986	2.92	.716	2985		
Takes Initiative to Problems	Bachelor	2836	2.48	.822	1	12.107	.001
	Masters	137	2.23	.750	2971		
	Total	2973	2.47	.820	2972		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	Bachelor	2835	2.35	.858	1	2.397	.122
	Masters	136	2.46	.834	2969		
	Total	2971	2.35	.857	2970		
Compliments Special Efforts	Bachelor	2841	2.51	.849	1	.451	.502
	Masters	137	2.56	.865	2976		
	Total	2978	2.51	.850	2977		
Observes Classrooms	Bachelor	2835	2.10	.747	1	9.315	.002
	Masters	137	2.30	.646	2970		
	Total	2972	2.11	.744	2971		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	Bachelor	2840	2.25	.802	1	2.165	.141
	Masters	137	2.36	.774	2975		
	Total	2977	2.26	.801	2976		

Table 38

*One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership.
Difference according to Principals' Total Experience*

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	0-2 Years	275	3.03	.722	2	11.206	.000
	3-15 Years	1780	2.86	.728	3009		
	16 And More	957	2.79	.754			
	Total	3012	2.85	.738	3011		
Defines Staff Goals	0-2 Years	274	2.82	.723	2	5.917	.003
	3-15 Years	1768	2.72	.769	2988		
	16 And More	949	2.65	.787			
	Total	2991	2.71	.772	2990		
Works Development Plan	0-2 Years	276	2.76	.759	2	4.781	.008
	3-15 Years	1771	2.62	.806	2999		
	16 And More	955	2.59	.787			
	Total	3002	2.63	.796	3001		
Works According To Goals	0-2 Years	274	3.04	.683	2	5.779	.003
	3-15 Years	1777	2.92	.716	3005		
	16 And More	957	2.88	.733			
	Total	3008	2.92	.720	3007		
Takes Initiative To Discuss Problems	0-2 Years	274	2.68	.764	2	11.167	.000
	3-15 Years	1770	2.47	.819	2992		
	16 And More	951	2.42	.834			
	Total	2995	2.47	.822	2994		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	0-2 Years	272	2.50	.828	2	7.510	.001
	3-15 Years	1768	2.37	.858	2990		
	16 And More	953	2.28	.870			
	Total	2993	2.35	.861	2992		
Compliments Special Effort	0-2 Years	273	2.64	.843	2	6.307	.002
	3-15 Years	1774	2.53	.848	2997		
	16 And More	953	2.45	.852			
	Total	3000	2.52	.850	2999		

Table 38 (cont'd)

Observes Classrooms	0-2 Years	274	2.14	.731	2	1.271	.281
	3-15 Years	1768	2.13	.762	2991		
	16 And More	952	2.08	.716			
	Total	2994	2.11	.745	2993		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	0-2 Years	272	2.42	.824	2	6.379	.002
	3-15 Years	1775	2.26	.799	2996		
	16 And More	952	2.22	.800			
	Total	2999	2.26	.803	2998		

Table 39

One Way ANOVA Table for Teachers' Understanding of Principal's Instructional Leadership, Difference according to Principals' Experience in the Current School

		N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	Sig.
Discusses Educational Goals	0-2 Years	878	2.85	.723	2	4.911	.007
	3-15 Years	1965	2.84	.744	2965		
	16 And More	125	3.06	.755			
	Total	2968	2.85	.739	2967		
Defines Staff Goals	0-2 Years	869	2.68	.755	2	3.257	.039
	3-15 Years	1955	2.71	.779	2944		
	16 And More	123	2.86	.793			
	Total	2947	2.71	.773	2946		
Works Development Plan	0-2 Years	875	2.63	.775	2	9.141	.000
	3-15 Years	1959	2.60	.804	2955		
	16 And More	124	2.92	.802			
	Total	2958	2.63	.798	2957		
Works According To Goals	0-2 Years	874	2.89	.707	2	8.685	.000
	3-15 Years	1965	2.91	.724	2961		
	16 And More	125	3.18	.741			
	Total	2964	2.92	.721	2963		
Takes Initiative To Discuss Problems	0-2 Years	876	2.46	.795	2	3.833	.022
	3-15 Years	1951	2.46	.833	2948		
	16 And More	124	2.67	.824			
	Total	2951	2.47	.823	2950		
Informs about opportunities to Update Knowledge	0-2 Years	872	2.35	.849	2	3.660	.026
	3-15 Years	1955	2.34	.867	2946		
	16 And More	122	2.56	.853			
	Total	2949	2.35	.862	2948		
Compliments Special Effort	0-2 Years	874	2.51	.822	2	3.558	.029
	3-15 Years	1958	2.51	.858	2953		
	16 And More	124	2.72	.942			
	Total	2956	2.52	.852	2955		

Table 39 (cont'd)

Observes Classrooms	0-2 Years	870	2.05	.736	2	12.299	.000
	3-15 Years	1957	2.13	.742	2947		
	16 And More	123	2.40	.827			
	Total	2950	2.12	.747	2949		
Gives Suggestions to Improve	0-2 Years	872	2.24	.804	2	10.555	.000
	3-15 Years	1961	2.26	.800	2952		
	16 And More	122	2.59	.831			
	Total	2955	2.26	.805	2954		

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