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The Impact of School Tasks on the Leadership Self-Efficacy of Principals and Assistant Principals

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THE IMPACT OF SCHOOL TASKS ON THE LEADERSHIP SELF-EFFICACY OF PRINCIPALS

AND ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS

by

TORRI JACKSON

(Under the Direction of Juliann McBrayer)

ABSTRACT

State and federal accountability standards for student achievement and school improvement have

increased the focus on school leadership, specifically the leadership of school principals and assistant

principals. The pressure to lead schools effectively while fulfilling instructional leadership and school

management tasks could impact school administrators' perceptions of their leadership capabilities. The

purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study was to identify the relationship between the

instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators and their leadership

self-efficacy across multiple demographics. Survey data were collected from 73 school administrators,

which quantified the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals based upon the

completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and their use of time

completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The major findings of the study

indicated a positive, linear relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership

tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. There was no statistically significant

difference between leadership self-efficacy for instructional leadership tasks and school management

tasks based upon the role of the school administrator. There was no statistically significant difference

between the use of time on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon the

role of the school administrator. The outcomes of this study provide insight into the types of tasks that

impact the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals and could drive the professional

learning content of school administrators and the delegation of their tasks. Future research on the

leadership self-efficacy of school administrators could involve larger demographic subgroups and extend

the study to include additional demographic factors impacting the work of principals and assistant principals.

INDEX WORDS: Educational leadership self-efficacy, Instructional leadership tasks, School management tasks, Principals, Assistant principals

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by

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DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

I am eternally grateful to God and to my loving family for their support throughout the years of working to reach this goal. I dedicate this work to my own personal hero and husband, Reginald, whom I love dearly for being my number one supporter and best friend and for being the epitome of an enduring love when I was traveling, studying and writing my way to accomplishing this goal; to my son and daughter for being the perfect duo of patience and understanding as I sacrificed time and energy to make them proud; to my father for modeling the way to work (his presence, teachings, and love surround me daily as I await the chance to see him again) and my mother for instilling in me the reason why we work with her consistent prayers and unconditional love; to my only sister, LaTonya, for sacrificing so selflessly to care for my family as I pursued my dreams; and to my cousin, D'Netra, who walked with me on this journey and never ceased to remind me that I could successfully complete this work. All the good in me and about me I owe to all of you.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The current emphasis on school performance based upon state evaluations such as Georgia's College and Career Readiness Performance Index (CCRPI) has drawn the attention of local school district officials to analyze the individual improvement of schools to a greater degree. The enhanced review of CCRPI performance indicators such as schools' achievement scores, attendance rates, and climate ratings has led school administrators to internalize schools' progression and reflect upon the impact of their leadership (Georgia Department of Education, 2019). School administrators, both principals and assistant principals, take full responsibility and drive the school improvement initiative when schools do not meet state performance standards for student achievement. To achieve overall school success, there needs to be a continued focus on balancing the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators in the best possible manner that works for the current situation (McBrayer et al., 2018).

Instructional leadership tasks are those comprised of responsibilities associated with supervising teaching and learning in a school setting. These tasks include, but are not limited to, evaluating teachers, planning professional development for staff, analyzing school data, conducting classroom walkthroughs, conferencing with teachers, observing learning, and examining other tasks assigned to support instructional programs (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010; Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). Spillane and Hunt (2010) defined school management tasks as "the work necessary to maintain organizational stability, including tasks such as planning, gathering and dispersing information, budgeting, hiring, scheduling, and maintaining the building" (p. 295). The mounting pressure to lead schools to perform on higher levels while effectively completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks has the potential to directly impact the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators, which may indirectly impact student achievement in their schools (McBrayer et al., 2018; Morgan, 2018).

A study on school administrators' accountability showed that school stakeholders believe that school administrators are accountable to district administrators, faculty, staff, parents, students, and other

community stakeholders for school performance and must articulate results and implications as needed and requested (Argon, 2015). To be responsible for school performance and to discuss it with fidelity among school stakeholders, school administrators are expected to be proficient instructional leaders. However, finding a balance between undertaking instructional leadership and school management tasks is often a challenge for school administrators (Boies & Fiset, 2019; Huang et al., 2020; McBrayer et al., 2018). When Muse and Abrams (2011) studied elementary school administrators, they found that the majority of them spent most of their time as school managers dealing with building issues instead of focusing on the instructional leadership tasks of observing classrooms and conferencing with teachers. While school management tasks are vital to the efficiency of school business, the fulfillment of these tasks is not the focus when school administrators are charged with speaking to the academic achievement of schools. There is a cause for concern for the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators who lack confidence in their abilities to effectively complete either type of leadership task, instructional leadership or school management. Thus, to determine the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on school administrators' leadership self-efficacy, the perspectives of school principals and assistant principals from all demographics needs to be studied.

Background

To begin the examination into the leadership self-efficacy of school principals and assistant principals with respect to their instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, this section begins with an analysis of studies on school administrators and their use of time followed by a description of the pressures related to school accountability. The instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school principals and assistant principals are compared and contrasted with a focus on administrators' current preferences. Conflicts between what principals and assistant principals desire to do versus what the administrators have time to do will also be outlined with a discussion on how leadership self-efficacy is defined for school administrators. This section also includes a brief description of a theoretical framework based on a four-frame model of organization theory and relates this model to

school administrators' quest for a balance between their instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Bolman & Gallos, 2011). The assistant principal's role is described, lastly, as a complementary position on the school administrative team and as a future lead school administrator preparing for the role of the school principal.

Educational Leadership Self-Efficacy

Leadership self-efficacy is defined as a leader's perception of their ability to lead, and it has influence on the actions and behaviors exhibited within a leadership role (McCullers & Bozeman, 2010; Morgan, 2018; Petridou et al., 2014). A recent study conducted by McBrayer et al. (2018) detailed the relationship between leadership self-efficacy and school administrators' time spent completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. In turn, principals and assistant principals in a small district in southeast Georgia were found to have a higher leadership self-efficacy when more time was spent completing instructional leadership tasks than when more time was spent completing school management tasks. The research on school administrators' leadership self-efficacy relative to the time spent completing instructional leadership and school management tasks has indicated that school administrators feel more confident in their ability to lead the teaching and learning in schools while managing the school building (McBrayer et al., 2018). In a study of the perceptions of school administrators' roles, the assistant principals spent the least amount of time on instructional leadership tasks and displayed lower leadership self-efficacy in the area of instructional leadership (Morgan, 2018). In Kelleher's (2016) analysis of Bandura's self-efficacy theory and school administrator roles and tasks, the researcher suggested "the shifting paradigms and the choppy political waters that accompany major school reforms can decrease principals' beliefs in their ability to fulfill their supervisory obligations and be instructional leaders" (p. 73). To fully maximize the leadership capabilities of school administrators who simultaneously tend to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, more attention must be given to the impact of the role requirements on school administrators' leadership self-efficacy.

Leadership Time Spent on Instructional Tasks Versus School Management Tasks

Researchers have studied both principals and assistant principals and analyzed their use of time and specific tasks (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 2017; Sebastian et al., 2018). Research has also been conducted on the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators (Airola et al., 2014; Bauer & Silveer, 2018; Fisher, 2014; McCollum et al., 2006; McCullers & Bozeman, 2010; Morgan, 2018; Petridou et al., 2014; Postma & Babo, 2019). However, research on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals across all grade levels and from diverse school districts is limited. Of the studies completed within this area, most researchers studied either elementary or high school leaders from rural school districts without much attention to middle school leaders or those from urban or suburban districts (McCullers & Bozeman, 2010; Muse & Abrams, 2011; Parson et al., 2016).

School administrators, both principals and assistant principals, have previously been characterized as school managers who were tasked with maintaining an efficient school environment with a minor focus on instructional leadership tasks. The onus was on teachers to provide oversight for the school's teaching and learning practices while school principals and assistant principals controlled school operations (Shaked, 2018). The current role of principals and assistant principals has evolved to that of primary leaders of both instruction and school management. Due to the emphasis on school performance based upon students' achievement scores and other indicators of success, school administrators are charged with effectively using their instructional leadership skills while completing school management tasks efficiently. The "role augmentation" of the principalship has strained the leadership self-efficacy of school leaders (Airola et al., 2014, p. 754). School administrators are being evaluated on the performance of schools based upon state and national standards and on their abilities to maintain the order of their schools. McCullers and Bozeman (2010) discovered a direct impact on school administrators' leadership self-efficacy when attempting to lead schools to meet accountability standards. For the benefit of students, more attention to school administrators' leadership self-efficacy in the midst of balancing instructional leadership and school management tasks is needed.

The Accountability of School Leaders

State school officials are increasingly holding school districts more accountable for the performance of each school within the system. Accountability has been defined as a "tool that ensures organizational managers have appropriate conduct in line with the law and its regulations during the administration of organizational goals" (Argon, 2015, p. 926). Public school accountability standards are mostly based on students' performance on state assessments as well as the school's climate, and school leaders are held accountable for their ability to enhance student achievement and school improvement while managing schools (Huang et al., 2020; Morgan, 2018; Vooren, 2018). Because school administrators are responsible for the successes and failures of their schools, they are seen as the sole leaders who are capable of addressing all stakeholders concerning individual school performance. This accountability focus frames how decisions are made and how the tasks of school administrators are prioritized (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2020; Shaked, 2018). The increased emphasis on accountability standards demanded school administrators make improvements in the area of instructional leadership while simultaneously conducting school management tasks efficiently (Huang et al., 2020; Muse & Abrams, 2011). Therefore, the current accountability paradigm shift requires school administrators to show mastery of both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

School Administrators as Instructional Leaders

The need to meet or exceed state performance standards has empowered district administrators to focus their attention on the instructional leadership of school administrators (Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). There has been an increasing amount of attention to school administrators' instructional leadership and the effects on school improvement (Ezzani, 2020; Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). In a study of school administrators' instructional leadership practices in Florida, McCullers and Bozeman (2010) found school administrators noted their instructional leadership practices strongly affected student achievement in their schools. Additional research has shown that school administrators have a strong desire to lead teaching and learning within their schools (Grissom et al., 2015; Muse & Abrams, 2011; Petrides et al., 2014;

Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). In a study of principals' definition of the instructional leadership role, Vogel (2018) found principals desired to supervise instruction and coach teachers as part of their instructional leadership. At the conclusion of their study on elementary school administrators, Muse and Abrams (2011) found school administrators agreed they must spend more time on instructional leadership tasks with practices such as data disaggregation, classroom observations, and planning professional development which move schools toward effective teaching and maximized learning opportunities.

Researchers discovered that school administrators have strong intentions to perform the duties necessary to be exemplary instructional leaders; however, they are faced with three challenges to overcome on the path to leading the teaching and learning processes in their schools that included "expertise to lead learning, time to lead, and the normative environment of the principalship" (Hallinger & Murphy, 2012, p. 8). The depth of leadership content knowledge, the amount of time allotted to complete tasks, and the daily unexpected tasks of administrators are all factors that can impede school administrators' abilities to be effective instructional leaders (Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Shaked, 2018). With respect to the proper attention to school management tasks, school administrators still value their time as instructional leaders more (Vooren, 2018). Spending time fulfilling tasks associated with enhancing teaching and learning is a daily challenge for principals and assistant principals (Grissom et al., 2015). "Management is poignant, but being a leader in improving teaching and learning situations is more salient" (Ediger, 2014, p. 265). To be classified as an effective principal or assistant principal, leaders desire to be seen as strong instructional leaders while simultaneously fulfilling school management responsibilities.

School Administrators as School Managers

Leading researchers Spillane and Hunt (2010) defined school management tasks as the work to ensure effective organization of vital school processes such as building maintenance and operation, discipline, and human resource management. Their research involved the study of school administrators' daily tasks to verify or nullify the common perception of school administrators' work in educational leadership literature. Spillane and Hunt (2010) found that approximately half of the school administrators

participating in the study spent close to 70% of their time performing school management tasks such as dealing with student discipline, planning budgets and schedules, and managing school staff and building maintenance. A vital part of maintaining the expected functionality of the school is to ensure the completion of school management tasks. In a study of principals' use of time and the impact on student achievement, researchers found principals spent more time on the management and monitoring of the school than any other task and treated these school management tasks as high priorities (Huang et al., 2020). The McBrayer et al. (2018) research conducted with school administrators concerning their use of time determined that 44% of the school administrators spent half of their time completing school management tasks. Of the various school management tasks completed most frequently, the school administrators reported that they conducted conferences with parents and students concerning issues related to discipline and school attendance (McBrayer et al., 2018).

A study of management tasks in the business world and those of school administrators expressed some similarities between the two (Onorato, 2013). The management practices and expectations of business executives and those of school administrators were similar. However, the focus on local and state accountability standards and the influence of school stakeholders were the main factors that caused differences in the leadership capabilities and leadership styles of the school administrators and business executives in the study. This study provided no evidence to discount the value of the management tasks of school administrators. To sustain daily school operations and directly influence overall school achievement, principals and assistant principals need to successfully complete their school management tasks. Effective school administrators work to achieve a systemic balance between instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for the success of their schools (Boies & Fiset, 2019).

School Administrators' Use of Time

Hallinger and Murphy (2012) expressed how school administrators desire to have more time for their instructional leadership role, but they often fail to spend an appropriate amount of time in this role due to management tasks. A study on principal time use found principals spent more time on school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks by focusing mostly on maintaining order (Huang et

al., 2020). The principals in the study found it "challenging" to prioritize their instructional leadership tasks when the need to fulfill school management tasks was greater (Huang et al., 2020, p. 317). The McBrayer et al. (2018) study of principals and assistant principals in a rural southeast Georgia school district determined that the majority of the school administrators' time was spent on school management tasks. Of the 27 principals and assistant principals who participated in the study, only 7% were able to complete instructional leadership tasks more than half of their time at work (McBrayer et al., 2018). The principals who participated in the study spent most of their time fulfilling the school management tasks of paperwork completion and stakeholder phone calls while the assistant principals spent most of their time on student discipline (McBrayer et al., 2018). While both types of school administrators reported more time spent completing school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks, more research is needed to determine specific use-of-time differences for school principals and assistant principals.

Spillane and Hunt (2010) showed how the five elementary school administrators studied spent 32.5% of their time facilitating unexpected conferences and completing paperwork and only 2.5% of their time observing teaching. However, there was no research specifically on middle school administrators' use of time. Most of the studies on secondary school administrators included principals and assistant principals of schools containing grades six through 12. Therefore, without comparative data for all grade levels, it cannot be determined if school administrators' use of time differs from one level (elementary, middle, high) to the next. Perhaps a time audit of principals and assistant principals on each level would provide the necessary data to compare and contrast the use of time of school administrators completing both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

School Administrators' Leadership Self-Efficacy

Goolamally and Ahmad (2014) defined self-efficacy as the "self-assessment of one's ability to organize and carry out the work or actions required in order to achieve a performance target" (p. 126). The goal of their study was to pinpoint the characteristics of school administrators necessary to maintain strong school leadership and positively impact student achievement. The study determined that the five leadership characteristics that excellent school administrators must possess are "integrity, forward

looking, inspirational, competency, and self-efficacy" (p. 130). Leadership self-efficacy is defined as "a leader's estimate of his or her ability to fulfill the leadership role" (Murphy & Johnson, 2016, p. 74). A study on the job satisfaction and leadership self-efficacy of principals found leadership self-efficacy increased as principals met the expectations of their role (Potsma & Babo, 2019). To meet the expectations of the role of a school administrator, strong leadership self-efficacy needs to be present.

The increasing amount of tasks, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, likely impact the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals throughout their tenure in school leadership. A study of school administrators' perceptions of their roles found assistant principals reported the least amount of self-efficacy on instructional leadership tasks and spent the least amount of time on instructional leadership tasks (Morgan, 2018). To probe further into the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals, research studies have been conducted to find instruments that adequately measure the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators. An analysis of the School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES) used to measure the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators found the SAES to be limited because of a "narrow focus on selected tasks or dimensions of the school leaders' role" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 243). As Bandura (2012) proposed, "…strength of self-efficacy is measured across a wide range of performances within an activity domain, not just performance on a specific item" (p. 17). To properly study the effects of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on school administrators' self-efficacy, a valid and reliable instrument inclusive of the current tasks of school administrators needs to be utilized.

This study will be conducted using the School Leaders' Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al., (2014) which measures eight factors affecting school leaders' self-efficacy including "creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, self-evaluation for school improvement, developing a positive climate and managing conflicts, evaluating classroom practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continuing professional development" (p. 237). Within each factor are instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks specific to the roles of principals and assistant principals. The SLSES was found to

adequately measure the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Additional use of time items from a previous study pertaining to the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators will also be included in this study's survey instrument (McBrayer et al., 2018).

The Role of Assistant Principals

It is unlikely that principals can fulfill all school tasks alone and be a proficient school leader (McBrayer et al., 2018). To complement the increased volume of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, principals need the assistance of other school administrators, such as assistant principals, to effectively complete all tasks (Houchens et al., 2018; Oleszewski et al., 2012; Petrides et al., 2014). A study by researchers Hilliard and Newsome (2013) detailed ideal ways to cultivate the instructional leadership and school management skills of assistant principals to assist the principal and to grow assistant principals into principals of the future. Hilliard and Newsome (2013) learned that using principals as mentors to the assistant principals ensured that assistant principals efficiently completed both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and grew as school administrators. The participants in this study accomplished their goals by providing content-specific professional learning opportunities, implementing distributed leadership practices, and facilitating professional learning communities just for assistant principals (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013).

The literature review of Oleszewski et al. (2012) further solidified the role of the assistant principal as the "subordinate of the principal" and in need of reconfiguration for the betterment of the school principal, school improvement, and the assistant principal's future role as principal (p. 273). While proper management of non-instructional tasks such as discipline and building security are vital to the success of schools, research showed that twenty-first century assistant principals aspired to gain experience completing instructional leadership tasks for ongoing student achievement and school improvement (Morgan, 2018; Oleszewski et al., 2012). After researching assistant principal preparation, professional development opportunities, assistant principal socialization and specific job tasks, assistant principals saw themselves as mostly unqualified and unprepared to be a school principal because of

disparities within experiences completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks as an assistant principal (Morgan, 2018; Oleszewski et al., 2012). Additional research into the impact of factors such as lack of instructional leadership experience and lack of preparation for the principalship on the leadership self-efficacy of assistant principals and their desire to become future school principals is necessary.

Theoretical Framework

To frame the study of the impact of school tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators, it was appropriate to consider the perspective of organization theory experts and theorists who focused on both the ability to fulfill role responsibilities within organizations and the confidence levels involved in completing tasks. Beginning in 1991, Lee Bolman worked to address common leadership challenges for managers and leaders found within organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2013). While working with Terrence Deal, the two theorists found that the leaders within organizations could overcome leadership and production challenges by choosing the proper perspective for the current situation (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Additionally, their work encouraged the use of a four-frame model of organization theory to assist leaders and stakeholders with understanding their perspective on organizations and the management of organizations. Within the four-frame model of organization theory, organizations were viewed through one of four frames, the structural, human resource, political, or symbolic frames to determine how to lead them to success.

The structural frame characterized an organization as a factory or a machine with a strong emphasis on "organizational architecture, including planning, goals, structure, technology, specialized roles, coordination, formal relationships, and metrics" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 15). Within this frame special attention was given to how organizations distributed tasks and created hierarchies, policies, and procedures. Confusion and disorder ensued when the structure was not in alignment with the current set of roles and tasks, and productivity declined (Bolman & Deal, 2013). The human resource frame characterized an organization as an "extended family" comprised of members with specific "needs, feelings, prejudices, skills, and limitations" (p. 16). When viewing organizations through this human

resource lens, leaders are challenged with effectively delegating tasks based upon skillset while ensuring a positive work environment for the members of the organization. Furthermore, the political frame characterized organizations as jungles where competition among members was the motivating factor. Through this lens leaders saw how members constantly competed for power and resources. The symbolic frame characterized organizations as temples or carnivals where the main focus was on rituals, stories, and ceremonies instead of authoritative leadership. Leader issues ensued within this frame when members could not utilize their creativity to move the organization forward.

In 2010, Bolman answered the call to relate the four-frame model of organization theory to the field of education and worked with his partner in education for over thirty-three years, Joan Gallos, to assist educational leaders with reframing their view of the school and its leadership roles to positively impact student achievement (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Within the field of educational leadership, the structural view still characterized the organization or school as a factory with various processes and procedures in place to achieve a specific output. However, the educational leader was seen as an "architect, analyst, or systems designer" whose focus was on delegating, managing, and seeking clarity on roles, policies, and procedures (p. 50). The human resource frame still characterized the organization or school as a family; however, the educational leader was seen as a caring servant who focused on "attending to people" while facilitating "the alignment between individual and organizational needs" with an emphasis on satisfaction with job performance (p. 93). The political frame still characterized the organization or school as a jungle; however, the educational leader was described as a political advisor or consultant with a focus on advocacy, bargaining, and managing conflict. Within the educational realm of reframing organizations, the symbolic view of leadership still characterized organizations and schools as temples; however, the leader was seen as an artist whose main goal was to ensure that members used creativity and passion to reach common goals.

The four-frame model of organization theory developed over the years by Bolman, Deal, and Gallos served to influence leaders' desire to overcome leadership challenges and lead effective organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Bolman & Gallos, 2011). This current study's focus is on the

impact of school administrators' tasks on their leadership self-efficacy, and the outcome of the study could assist principals and assistant principals with effectively dividing and completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure student achievement. The structural frame described by Bolman focused on organizational roles and management based upon standard operating procedures, and it can be considered an ideal frame through which to view the school administrators' attempts to balance instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Within the structural view, the basic challenge was to effectively delegate instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure proficiency as school administrators and high confidence in leadership abilities. Central to the structural view of organization was the comparison of organizations to manufacturing businesses or factories who focus on the input and output processes to ensure success. School administrators who utilize the structural view of school leadership can approach their school tasks with a similar perspective. The balanced completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (input) could lead to successful schools (output) and high leadership self-efficacy of school administrators (output).

The challenge for school administrators is how to effectively fulfill their roles as principals and assistant principals by completing both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks within the allotted time period, a school year. Bolman and Gallos (2011) surmised that leaders play the role of analysts and architects who constantly study the processes of an organization to determine how to redesign the organization and implement procedures that ensure the organizations meet their goals. School administrators are obligated to study ways to complete instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks with fidelity and determine the procedures and roles that require revisions for the goals to come to fruition. The tenets of the structural view of leadership are vital to the success of principals and assistant principals as they fulfill the tasks required of their roles. "When the structure is wrong, even bright and talented people find it hard to be productive" (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 51). This insight implies that there could be a relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the successful completion of job tasks of principals and assistant principals.

In summary, studying the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on school leaders' self-efficacy involves considering certain aspects of the roles of principals and assistant principals. Authentic role definitions for principals and assistant principals related to the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks need to be clearly defined conducive to sufficient time to complete the necessary tasks. It appears that the instructional leadership and school management task fulfillment desires of school administrators have an impact on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals. To ensure that principals receive assistance with instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, assistant principals are needed and expected to be knowledgeable in their current role and the future role of principal of their own school. To acquire a deeper understanding of the need for a balance between the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for principals and assistant principals, a leadership theory involving viewing school administrators' responsibilities through a structured frame as compared to manufacturers could be beneficial. All aspects of the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals researched for this study drive further study into the impact this work has on school administrators' leadership self-efficacy.

Statement of the Problem

As school administrators are held accountable for student achievement in schools, effective instructional leaders need to spend more time on instructional tasks associated with teaching and learning such as supervision, modeling, observation, feedback, and professional development while simultaneously managing the school and its daily processes. To be an exemplary school administrator, principals and assistant principals must show proficiency in maintaining strong oversight of the teaching and learning practices in terms of instructional leadership tasks while meeting the demands of school management tasks.

With the increased focus on school administrators' ability to master both sets of job obligations comes a concern about the effect on their perception of their leadership capabilities. There appear to be disparities between the types of tasks that build the confidence of school administrators and the types of

tasks that school administrators have time to complete. There also appear to be disparities between the types of tasks that school administrators are assigned to complete and have time to complete in rural, suburban, and urban schools on the elementary, middle, and high school levels. There is a concern that school administrators, principals and assistant principals, may not be able to lead effectively if they are not confident in their ability to lead the fulfillment of both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

This study was intended to determine the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals to drive change in the distribution of school administrators' tasks and influence the leadership professional development opportunities for school principals and assistant principals of multiple demographics.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to identify the relationship between the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators and their leadership self-efficacy across multiple demographics. Two types of school administrators, principals and assistant principals, in rural, suburban, and urban schools of all levels (elementary, middle, high) seek to complete instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks effectively with full confidence in their leadership capabilities. This study focuses on the impact of both principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy to inform the delegation of tasks for school administrators and the inclusion of job-applicable content for district leadership preparation programs and other professional learning opportunities for school administrators from multiple demographic areas.

Research Questions

The shift in the focus to fulfill both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks effectively in order to be a confident school administrator led to the following equally weighted research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators?

2. What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks?

3. What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location?

4. What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals?

Significance of the Study

This study is intended to examine the role of the school administrator in multiple capacities, specifically, to inform the balanced delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to principals and assistant principals. More research is needed to support proposals for additional administrators or instructional support staff (e.g., assistant principals, academic coaches, behavior modification specialists) to assist with the load of school tasks so school administrators can find a balance for the completion of each type of leadership task. This study is also intended to focus on the tasks and needs of principals and assistant principals to support the development and facilitation of district administrator preparation programs with content conducive to the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of both types of school administrators. This study is necessary to determine if a relationship exists between principals' and assistant principals' tasks and their leadership self-efficacy to support effective ways to balance the required instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks while promoting overall school achievement.

Procedures

Research Design

The study of the impact of school tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals will be conducted using a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. A quantitative research design is appropriate for this study because the variables of instructional leadership tasks, school management tasks, and leadership self-efficacy will be measured using a survey whose results will answer the study's research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Because the participants will not be

given a specific treatment throughout this study, this research study is not characterized as experimental. The research questions posed for this study are to determine if the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators have a positive or negative relationship with leadership self-efficacy. However, the outcomes of this study will not to be used to predict the leadership self-efficacy ratings of future school administrators. The longitudinal survey design involves data collection of trends within the same sample of participants over time, and this particular study involves collecting data from the sample during only one cycle of the school year (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Therefore, the study of leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators will be conducted using the cross-sectional survey design as opposed to the longitudinal survey design.

Population

The participants for this study will be the approximately 400 school principals and assistant principals of the 17 school districts within Georgia's First District Regional Educational Service Agency (RESA), a state educational agency which provides professional development opportunities and support for school districts' educators using site-specific data and a variety of resources (First District RESA, 2019). The districts currently served by First District RESA include Appling County, Bryan County, Bulloch County, Camden County, Candler County, Effingham County, Evans County, Glynn County, Jeff Davis County, Liberty County, Long County, McIntosh County, Screven County, Tattnall County, Toombs County, Vidalia City, and Wayne County (First District RESA, 2019). School administrators from elementary, middle, and high schools will be represented within the study to compare the influence of leadership self-efficacy on principals and assistant principals across all grade levels. There are no restrictions on the school administrators' tenure for this study; however, all participants must be currently practicing as a principal or assistant principal. This requirement will ensure the collection of data conducive to analyzing the tasks and leadership self-efficacy of both types of school administrators.

Instrumentation

Study participants will complete an instrument containing the School Leaders' Self-Efficacy

Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al. (2014) which measures eight factors affecting school administrators' self-efficacy including "creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, self-evaluation for school improvement, developing a positive climate and managing conflicts, evaluating classroom practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continuing professional development" (p. 237). Within each factor of the SLSES are the various instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks often completed by principals and assistant principals, and leadership self-efficacy will be analyzed based upon the reported completion of these tasks.

Instructional leadership tasks are those associated with overseeing the teaching and learning processes within schools (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010). They include, but are not limited to, data analysis, student and classroom observations, teacher conferences, and professional development planning for faculty and staff (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010). School management tasks are those associated with overseeing the daily operations of the school building to include overall building processes, planning, and scheduling (Spillane & Hunt, 2010). This also includes tasks involving discipline and attendance processes and all other non-instructional leadership obligations required to run school buildings efficiently such as human resources and office administration management (Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Lunenburg, 2010). Leadership self-efficacy is a leader's judgment of their leadership capability based upon criteria associated with the role (Murphy & Johnson, 2016).

The full instrument to be administered contains 65 items with seven multiple choice items for the collection of demographic information (school location, school type, school CCRPI score, and years of experience), one multiple choice item that asks participants to state whether they consider themselves to be an instructional leader or school manager, and three open-ended items asking participants to state their rationale for the chosen role of instructional leader or school manager and list the top three instructional leadership tasks and the top three school management tasks fulfilled. The instrument also includes 23

items for the collection of use of time data and 31 items from the SLSES. Of the 31 items from the

SLSES, 14 items are considered to be instructional leadership tasks. Seventeen of the items are related to

school management tasks. The 14 instructional leadership tasks include the SLSES factors of creating an

appropriate structure (one item), leading and managing the learning organization (two items), school self-

evaluation for school improvement (three items), evaluating classroom practices (three items), monitoring

learning (three items), and leadership of continuing professional development (two items). The 17 school

management tasks include the SLSES factors of creating an appropriate structure (six items), leading and

managing the learning organization (five items), developing a positive climate-managing conflicts (three

items), and adhering to community and policy demands (three items). For this study's administration of

the SLSES, the participants will rate their leadership self-efficacy on each item using the following five-

point Likert scale: "1 = not at all confident, 2 = not confident, 3 = somewhat confident, 4 = confident, and

5 = very confident" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 253). The 23 items designed to collect use of time data are

comprised of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks often completed by principals

and assistant principals (McBrayer et al., 2018). Two are multiple choice items for participants to choose

the percentage of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Nine of the

items are school management tasks, and 12 of the items are instructional leadership tasks. For this portion

of the survey, the participants will rate their frequency of instructional leadership and school management

task completion using the following four-point Likert scale: 1 = Less than 10%, 2 = Between 10 - 30%, 3

= Between 30 – 50%, and 4 = More than 50%. See Appendix A.

Data Collection

Per de Vaus (2014), administering a survey via the Internet yields an adequate amount of

responses expeditiously. Therefore, the survey will be administered via e-mail using *Qualtrics*™ survey

software, and the survey will be anonymous. Only data from practicing principals and assistant principals

who are currently completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks will be

collected for this study. The risks involved with completing the survey are no greater than basic daily

risks in life. If any risks occur, participants will be referred to the counseling center of the research

institution. Participants will be sent an e-mail invitation to complete the survey, and the invitation will include the purpose of the study, the need for each participant's responses, and a request for informed consent to participate. See Appendix B. The participants will be requested to complete the survey within a four-week period. After a period of two weeks, the participants will be contacted again to request completion of the survey. Per Qualtrics XM (2019), the appropriate sample size from a population of approximately 400 school administrators is 196 participants to achieve a 5% margin of error and a 95% confidence level.

Data Analysis

Once the data collection process is completed, the results from the *Qualtrics*™ survey software will be downloaded into an Excel file to be transferred to statistical software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), to assist with data analysis (Statistics Solutions, 2019). The data will be analyzed to determine current trends in leadership self-efficacy and instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for the principal and assistant principal participants. The design for this study is descriptive, and the approach does not require controlling variables for internal and external validity (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators are the variables to be measured for this research study. The instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks are the independent variables while the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals will serve as the dependent variable.

The first question in the study stated: What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators? To answer the first question in the study, a correlation will be conducted with the two independent variables, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and the dependent variable, leadership self-efficacy. This test is appropriate for this question because the independent variables are from two distinct groups, and this test can help determine the differences in the relationships between the leadership self-efficacy of the participants fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and between the leadership self-efficacy of the participants fulfilling school management tasks (Moore et al., 2012).

The second question stated: What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks? To answer the second question in the study, two independent samples t-tests will be performed on the responses of the principals and the assistant principals separately to provide a comparison of the two groups' leadership self-efficacies based upon the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The independent variables are the instructional leadership tasks and the school management tasks, and the dependent variable is the leadership self-efficacy of the school leaders. These tests are appropriate for this question because the independent variables are from two distinct groups for both the principals and the assistant principals, and these tests can help determine the differences in the relationships between the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and between the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals fulfilling school management tasks (Moore et al., 2012).

The third question stated: What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location? To answer the third question in the study, descriptive statistics (mean median, and mode) of the leadership self-efficacy scores of the participating principals and assistant principals were calculated using SPSS. The data were analyzed in the context of school level (elementary, middle, or high), years of experience of principals (0 – 3 years, 4 – 20 years, or 20 plus years), years of experience of assistant principals (0 – 3 years, 4 – 20 years, or 20 plus years), CCRPI scores (A, B, C, D, or F), and school location (rural, suburban, or urban). This is appropriate for this question because multiple groups are being analyzed to determine the differences in the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators based upon a variety of demographic factors (Moore et al., 2012).

The fourth question stated: What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals? To answer the fourth question in the study, two independent samples t-tests were performed on the responses of the principals and assistant principals separately to provide a comparison of the two groups' use of time based

upon their fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The independent variables were the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and the amount of time spent on school management tasks. The dependent variables were the roles of principal and assistant principal. These tests are appropriate for this question because the independent variables are from two distinct groups, and these tests can help determine the differences in the time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals (Moore et al., 2012).

The findings of the study will be presented using figures, tables and charts as appropriate. The final number of participants, their role (principal, assistant principal), their demographic location (rural, suburban, urban), and their school type (elementary, middle, high) will be presented to discuss the similarities and differences of leadership self-efficacy relative to school tasks. The means of the responses to the survey items will be displayed, and the data will be reported by research question for clarity.

Definition of Key Terms

Accountability – Accountability is an obligation acquired by organizational leaders to ensure that operations are performed legally and ethically as all members work to achieve the organization's goals (Argon, 2015). For the purpose of this study, accountability for schools' successes and failures is a responsibility of school administrators and is measured using Georgia's College and Career Readiness Performance Index (Georgia Department of Education, 2019).

Instructional Leadership Tasks – Instructional leadership tasks are those associated with overseeing the teaching and learning processes within schools. They include data analysis, student and classroom observations, teacher conferences, professional development planning for faculty and staff, and examining other tasks assigned to support instructional programs (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010; Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). For the purpose of this study, instructional leadership tasks involve any performance that directly or indirectly impacts students' learning and the delivery of curriculum in schools. School administrators will rate their leadership self-efficacy

based upon their experiences conducting instructional leadership tasks on the School Leaders'

Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al. (2014).

Leadership Self-Efficacy – Leadership self-efficacy is a leader's judgment of their leadership

capability based upon criteria associated with the role (Murphy & Johnson, 2016). Fisher (2013)

stated that it is a "task-specific evaluation" of abilities within the leadership

realm (p. 59). For the purpose of this study, leadership self-efficacy will be rated using

the School Leaders' Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al., (2014).

School Management Tasks **–** School management tasks are those associated with overseeing the

daily operations of the school building to include overall building processes, planning,

and scheduling (Spillane & Hunt, 2010). This also includes tasks involving discipline

and attendance processes and all other non-instructional leadership obligations required to run

school buildings efficiently such as human resources and office administration management

(Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Huang, 2020; Lunenburg,

2010). For the purpose of this study, school administrators rated their leadership self-efficacy

based upon their experiences conducting school management tasks on the School Leaders' Self-

Efficacy Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al., (2014).

Chapter Summary

The increased focus on school leaders' accountability based upon school performance

could directly impact the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators, both principals and assistant

principals. To improve student achievement and overall school performance, school administrators work

to find a balance between completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks in order

to be effective school leaders. School administrators' time spent on daily operations associated with

instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks has the potential to influence their leadership

self-efficacy, thus, indirectly impacting student achievement in their schools. If this impact is negative,

school administrators must further address the use of time related to instructional leadership tasks and

school management tasks and the delegation of tasks to principals and assistant principals. If this impact

is positive, it is incumbent upon school administrators to maintain and improve upon their efforts to balance instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for the sake of strong student achievement.

The leadership self-efficacy of mostly elementary and high school administrators has been analyzed without much focus on middle school administrators. This descriptive study seeks to determine if instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks impact school administrators' self-efficacy at all grade levels based upon instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The results of this study could influence the assignment of instructional leadership and school management tasks and impact future professional development opportunities for school administrators.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The current political climate of school accountability that primarily shapes the work of school administrators cultivates continuous self-reflection of leadership skills. Whether school administrators feel capable or incapable of leading their schools to success could directly and indirectly impact the student achievement process within the school environment. A leader's belief in their abilities and resourcefulness to provide effective leadership is called leadership self-efficacy (Nguyen, 2016). The distribution of leadership tasks among school administrators is instrumental to the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators, and these tasks will need to be examined to determine if there is a relationship between the task distribution and school administrators' leadership self-efficacy.

Most of the tasks assigned to school administrators, such as school principals and assistant principals, can be divided into two distinct categories, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Instructional leadership tasks are those associated with supervising the teaching and learning within a school setting. These tasks include, but are not limited to, evaluating teachers, planning professional development for staff, analyzing school data, conducting classroom walkthroughs, conferencing with teachers, and observing learning (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010; Vogel, 2018). School management tasks are those associated with maintaining the daily order of school processes. These tasks include, but are not limited to, attending to school discipline, attendance, building and facilities, human resources, scheduling, and office administration management (Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Huang, 2020; Lunenburg, 2010). The responsibility to complete all of the aforementioned instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks are the responsibility of a school site's administrative team comprised of a principal and, in most cases, at least one assistant principal.

The ability to effectively complete the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks required for a school to function properly is often determined by the school administrators' level of fulfillment of both types of tasks. Some school administrators are capable of spending more time on

instructional leadership tasks than school management tasks. Other school administrators find themselves spending more time completing school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks. There are also some school administrators who find a unique balance between completing both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure the overall success of the school. It is the highly coveted balance of school administrators' tasks that could possibly shape their view of their leadership capabilities. School administrators' determination of the effectiveness of their ability to lead and the quality of their leadership often influences their leadership self-efficacy (McBrayer et al., 2018). If school administrators aspire to fulfill more instructional leadership tasks or school management tasks than they currently are able to complete, their leadership self-efficacy could be impacted (Houchens et al, 2018; Morgan, 2018; Postma & Babo, 2019). Determining the types of tasks that impact school administrators' leadership self-efficacy could lead to an enhanced focus on the distributed leadership of a school and future professional development content for school administrators on the path to school improvement (Bauer & Silver, 2018; Ezzani, 2020). Further study into the direct and indirect impact of specific instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators is vital to the field of educational leadership.

School administrators are accountable for the overall success of their schools, and the tasks associated with their roles must be fulfilled to effectively run their schools on a daily basis (Morgan, 2018; Postma & Babo, 2019). The pressures of accountability along with the self-reflection surrounding their leadership capabilities have the potential to affect the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators. The review of the literature pertaining to the types of tasks school administrators complete is vital to further study of the actual tasks completed and the types of tasks school administrators aspire to fulfill more within their roles. Also, essential to a study of leadership self-efficacy are the differences in demographic makeup of the impacted schools as well as the differences in the roles of principals and assistant principals. To effectively bring attention to this component of educational leadership and drive future study and professional development for school administrators, the work of prominent educational researchers will be analyzed and reported.

Thus, the literature review of this study will seek to report current research into relevant topics associated with school administrators' completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and leadership self-efficacy. The review begins with a concentration on the tasks of school administrators and their use of time. Recent literature on principals and assistant principals and their respective roles and responsibilities will be reported. Research studies that sought to compare the work of school administrators by their demographic composition will be discussed in detail. Lastly, the literature on leadership self-efficacy and how it is measured will be reported and analyzed for this study's use.

School Administrators' Tasks and Time Management

The responsibilities of school administrators involve required tasks within two categories of school operational services, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. School management is defined as "overseeing the functioning of the school" (Grissom & Loeb, 2011, p. 1101); therefore, principals and assistant principals conducting school management tasks are doing what is necessary to ensure the school building runs efficiently. School management tasks include working with school schedules, student discipline, staff issues, facility usage, budget and resources, and student attendance (Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Huang et al., 2020). The responsibilities characterized as school management tasks are comprised of an exhaustive list that contains any task of school administrators that does not involve the coordination of school curriculum and the facilitating of instruction.

In their study of over 300 principals, assistant principals, teachers, and parents within Miami-Dade County Public Schools, Grissom and Loeb (2011) researched principals' effectiveness on specific role responsibilities and the effects on school improvement. Principals were administered a survey on their effectiveness across five dimensions of role responsibilities: "instruction management, internal relations, organization management, administration, and external relations" (Grissom & Loeb, 2011, p.1099). Assistant principals were administered the same survey to rate their principals while teachers were administered a school satisfaction survey. Parents were administered a school climate survey to rate school performance. This study's findings revealed principals' overall satisfaction with their work with

creating strong relations with students, parent communication, supervising school activities, overseeing school safety, managing school staff issues, planning school schedules, and analyzing data to drive instruction (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). The principals rated themselves as most effective on more items categorized as school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks. These outcomes could be because of use of time and/or volume of tasks.

In a study of the tasks of school administrators, school management tasks were divided into two distinct dimensions, organization management and administration (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). The researchers defined organization management as "overseeing the functioning of the school" (p. 1101). Organization management tasks included supervising school campus facilities, managing budgets and resources, and school safety (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Under the construct of organization management, principals rated themselves as most effective at creating a safe environment, handling staff issues, and overseeing the school budget and less effective at collaborating and consulting with principal colleagues (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Within this study, the researchers chose to analyze the outcomes of both the organization management construct and the administration construct to determine if principals' effectiveness on school management tasks were associated with school performance.

The administration dimension, as defined by Grissom and Loeb (2011), involved the "more routine administrative duties and tasks executed to comply with state or federal regulations" (p. 1102). This dimension included school management tasks such as facilitating the administering and reporting of standardized tests, completing paperwork, handling student discipline, managing student attendance, and supervising students (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). The outcomes from this portion of the study showed that principals felt most effective at facilitating school scheduling and handling student discipline and least effective at meeting the administrative requirements of special education (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Combined with the results of the principal survey dimension of organization management, the researchers showed the effectiveness of principals on school management tasks. However, their findings provided no evidence of a difference in principals' ratings of effectiveness of tasks across school levels. The

researchers found that principals rated their task effectiveness similarly in elementary, middle, and high school settings (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

When principals were rated by assistant principals for Grissom and Loeb's (2011) study, tasks under the organization management and administrative dimensions were positively associated with school performance. This outcome was also evident when teachers rated their satisfaction with principals and parents assessed school climate related to principals' effectiveness. The apparent relationship between the school management tasks of principals and school performance led the researchers to redefine the instructional leadership of school principals. Grissom and Loeb (2011) now defined effective instructional leadership as "combining an understanding of the instructional needs of the school with an ability to target resources where they are needed, hire the best available teachers, and keep the school running smoothly" (p. 1119). This study provided support for the expansion of the school administrator's role from a narrow set of instruction-focused tasks to a combined school management and instructional leadership role.

To fulfill instructional leadership tasks, school administrators generally have completed "leadership functions that support teaching and learning" (Grissom et al., 2013, p. 433). These tasks involved observing classroom instruction, evaluating teachers, planning the school's curriculum, collecting and analyzing school data, planning professional development, providing instructional feedback and coaching to teachers, protecting instructional time, supporting teacher collaboration, and conferencing with students and parents on academic achievement (Grissom et al., 2013; Gurley et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010; Shaked, 2018; Vogel, 2018). The transformation of school administrators from mostly school management agents to authorities supervising curriculum and instruction occurred due to the increasing attention from local, state, and federal policy makers to school improvement processes and student achievement. Previous accountability policies like the Bush administration's *No Child Left Behind*, the Obama administration's *Race to the Top*, and the current federal education policy, the *Every Student Succeeds Act*, influenced increased expectations and accountability standards for student achievement for school administrators (Gurley et al., 2015; Williams

& Welsh, 2017). More and more school stakeholders, from parents to community leaders, are focusing on the instructional leadership at school sites for direction to ensure the academic success of students. While school administrators, such as principals and assistant principals, are not classroom teachers and do not directly impact student achievement, their fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks has an indirect effect on school performance (Gurley et al., 2015).

In a study conducted on school administrators' effective instructional time use, Grissom et al. (2013) found several key instructional leadership tasks that principals in Miami-Dade County Public Schools performed almost daily over a three-year span of time. The most common instructional leadership task was the classroom walkthrough where principals and assistant principals conducted impromptu, informal classroom visits to observe teaching practices and learning for a few minutes (Grissom et al., 2013). This instructional leadership task provided an opportunity for school administrators to not only observe the teaching and learning but to also help instill a more positive instructional culture and showcase the importance of classroom instruction (Grissom et al., 2013). When asked which instructional leadership tasks provided the most information about the classroom teaching practices of their teachers, 62% of the principals surveyed agreed that classroom walkthroughs proved to be their most effective means of gathering this information (Grissom et al., 2013). Conducting formal teacher evaluations and coaching teachers were also rated as common instructional leadership tasks conducted by school leaders in Grissom et al.'s longitudinal study of principals' instructional time use. State and federal mandates have enhanced teacher evaluation systems to the point that school administrators, principals and assistant principals, must now spend even more time conducting informal and formal evaluations on a consistent, documented basis. Studies also showed that seeing the building leader as an instructional coach enhanced teacher efficacy, thus, improving teaching and learning (Grissom et al., 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010).

A recent study warned against determining effective leadership based upon one or two specific components of instructional leadership (Horng & Loeb, 2010). Some experts within the field of educational leadership have equated instructional leadership with school administrators' observations of

teaching and "direct teaching of students and teachers and thus, the definition of a strong instructional leader implied that it can only be an educational leader with exemplary teaching skills and a vast knowledge of curriculum (Horng & Loeb, 2010, p. 66). A new perspective of instructional leadership proposed by Horng and Loeb (2010) marries the task of organizational management with instructional leadership tasks to effectively lead a school's teaching and learning. One particular organizational management responsibility, personnel management, was a task originally associated only with school management. Personnel management involved the hiring, proper scheduling, supporting and retaining of strong teachers, and encompassing the development and removal of ineffective teachers as needed for the success of the school (Horng & Loeb, 2010). However, as school administrators became increasingly accountable for academic achievement via instructional leadership, personnel management was categorized more as an instructional leadership task. Some researchers have suggested that "managing personnel should be a component of instructional leadership functions, where principals develop people or redesign the organization" (Pollock et al., 2015, p. 540). This one common responsibility of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks provided additional support to another argument that school management is vital to the effectiveness of instructional leadership (Lemoine et al., 2014).

Recent education reform has encouraged a paradigm shift for the daily tasks of school administrators. This is different than the historical view of principals who were viewed as both instructional leaders and school managers with more emphasis on and respect for the school management side of the role (Lemoine et al., 2014; Potsma & Babo, 2019). More and more, the expectation of school administrators was to be more of an instructional leader than a school manager due to increased accountability based upon student achievement and school improvement. While most principals would prefer to conduct more instructional leadership tasks than school management tasks, most cite their use of time on the aforementioned tasks as the main reason influencing how the different duties are fulfilled (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010).

In a study of principal time use within an urban school district, observers recorded the use of time of 65 Miami-Dade County Public Schools' principals in five-minute intervals during one school day (Horng et al., 2010). The findings of this study showed that principals spent the majority of their day completing school management tasks labeled as administrative duties, such as handling student discipline and attendance issues and ensuring the fulfillment of compliance requirements, and organization management duties, such as managing staff and supervising personnel (Horng et al. (2010). The school management tasks accounted for over 51% of the school day, and instructional leadership tasks such as "day-to-day instruction tasks" and "more general instructional program responsibilities", accounted for 6% and 7% of the school day, respectively (Horng et al., 2010, p. 502). In a later study of 127 lead principals in the Miami-Dade County School System, the findings based upon daily observations showed that the principals spent 12.7% of their time on instruction-related activities (Grissom et al., 2013). In a study of 73 North Dakota principals and their time use, the principals reported that 70% of their work day was spent on school management tasks (Parson et al., 2016). When 27 school administrators from a rural southeast Georgia school district participated in a study on leadership self-efficacy and the balance of instructional and managerial tasks, the researchers found that the majority of the school administrators spent most of their time on school management tasks (McBrayer et al., 2018).

The imbalance of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks was attributed to the highly flexible nature of the role of school administrators. Researchers proposed that school administrators intended to complete more instructional tasks daily; however, they were often interrupted by school management tasks such as discipline and parent conferences, which were often classified as urgent (Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Huang et al., 2020; Shaked, 2018). Because effective school management was primarily evaluated by school administrators' ability to efficiently and proficiently run the school without drawing attention to organizational processes and school climate, principals' and assistant principals' rescheduling of instructional duties (e.g., classroom observations, teacher evaluation conferences, data collection and analysis) to tend to school management tasks was generally accepted. However, a recent study of principals failed to support the notion that principals'

inability to complete or balance their tasks was due to shortness of time and constant interruptions (Sebastian et al., 2018). The principals who participated in this study reported uninterrupted attention to instructional leadership tasks up to 40 minutes per task (Sebastian et al., 2018). These findings could mean that principals' and school principals' use of time varies dependent upon contextual factors such as delegation of tasks, protection of time by office staff, and time management.

The Role of the Principal and Assistant Principal

The principal is seen as the school official solely responsible for the operations, instructional and managerial, of the school (Huang et al., 2020; Lunenburg, 2010; Potsma & Babo, 2019). Because they are viewed as the head custodian of students' educational care and the work of the staff, principals are held accountable for all of the school administrative duties and responsibilities. If afforded the opportunity to have an assistant principal, the principal was also perceived as responsible for supervising the assistant principal and often assigned their administrative duties to them (Lochmiller & Karnopp, 2016; Morgan, 2018). Another study found that principals completed most of the instructional leadership tasks of the administrative team, and assistant principals fulfilled most of the school management tasks (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017). The principals participating in this study disclosed that they needed an "operations manager of the school" in order for the principals to be effective as instructional leaders and for the school to run properly (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017, p. 39). While the principal was the head leader of the school and was responsible for both the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of the administrative team, questions still remained about the actual role of the assistant principal and their administrative relationship with the principal.

The assistant principal, also called vice principal or deputy principal, was seen as the second-in-command in schools, and they were perceived as responsible for leading the school alongside the principal and in the absence of the principal. Some researchers viewed assistant principals as a resource and vital support for principals as they assisted them with fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Morgan, 2018; Petrides et al., 2014). The assistant principal role encompasses "any combination of managerial, leadership, supervisory, and/or school-wide operational duties"

(Mitchell et al., 2017, p. 3). Because of the leadership experiences gained from the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, assistant principals appeared to be mentored and groomed by principals for future higher-level leadership roles while being fairly supervised and supported within their role. However, some assistant principals did not report supportive reciprocity in relation to their work with principals and did not believe they were being supervised fairly and prepared for the future role of principal (Mitchell et al., 2017).

When the job description of assistant principals was based upon the principal's autonomy to assign tasks, assistant principals reported that they were delegated mostly mundane school management tasks while principals fulfilled instructional leadership tasks (Mitchell et al., 2017). Findings from a study of 25 assistant principals in Ontario, Canada showed that participants struggled in the role due to lack of a clear role definition, insufficient preparation for the role, and poor mentorship and support (Mitchell et al., 2017). Because they were often unclear about their daily responsibilities, assistant principals were often subject to the desires of the principal when fulfilling tasks. Lack of experience with administrative tasks such as instructional leadership tasks led assistant principals to feel that they were inept in this area and unable to provide meaningful support to staff and students (Mitchell et al., 2017). Due to the assignment of mostly school management tasks, other educators perceived the assistant principal role as one lacking instructional leadership (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017). When assistant principals were traditionally given almost all of the school management tasks of the administrative team, the school community, staff, students, and parents, expected them to only fulfill those responsibilities in their role (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017). Some participants in the study of school administrators in Canada disclosed in interviews how their decisions made while completing their assigned tasks were often "overridden by the principal", lessening their authority and negatively impacting their leadership self-efficacy (Mitchell et al., 2017, p. 10). Other assistant principals participating in the study felt they had no influence over and often were not included in school decisions (Mitchell et al., 2017). Without proper guidance and mentorship, assistant principals were ill-prepared to fulfill their current role and future role of principal. The implications of the study with assistant principals in Ontario, Canada did not suggest a standardized

job description for assistant principals be created; however, they proposed a role definition including something more than just the general "duties as assigned by the principal" clause on most assistant principal contracts and within some assistant principal job descriptions (Mitchell et al., 2017, p. 15).

Defining the assistant principal role solely based on school management tasks such as handling discipline, monitoring students during lunch and at arrival and dismissal, and resolving student and staff conflicts has been seen as outdated (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013; Morgan, 2018). To affect change and lead school improvement initiatives, it was important for the school staff to see the assistant principal as an instructional leader alongside the principal (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017). Principals were implored to provide opportunities for assistant principals to be instructional leaders as well as effective school managers. Three ways for principals to enhance the role of the assistant principal have been proposed in a recent study: cultivate the strengths and talents of the assistant principal, utilize distributed leadership, and provide vital professional development opportunities (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013). The researchers advised that it was more productive for principals to learn the current skillset and ambitions of assistant principals prior to assigning tasks (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013). Assistant principals often reported to the role with strong technological, instructional leadership, or interpersonal skills that could be utilized in a variety of capacities within the operation of the school. To further collaborate with and supervise assistant principals effectively, Hilliard and Newsome (2013) stated that "principals should position themselves as being comfortable as transformational and distributive leaders by sharing instructional leadership, supervision and management leadership opportunities with assistant principals" (p. 154). The researchers surmised that effective principals made a commitment to teach assistant principals by affording them opportunities to lead within various instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks while providing them the proper support. When assistant principals' deficiencies are exposed or a desire to gain more knowledge in an area of inexperience is requested, it was incumbent upon principals to ensure that the adequate experiences or professional learning opportunities were provided for assistant principals. Exercises such as attending district meetings, attending local, state, and national educational leadership conferences, and participating in planning sessions with other administrators were seen as opportunities to

enhance the professional development of assistant principals and prepare them for a future as a school principal (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013).

Research showed that most assistant principals desired more professional learning opportunities relevant to their role and the future role of the principal; however, there were not many content-specific course offerings available (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017; Morgan, 2018). To adequately prepare assistant principals for future principalships, strong mentorship and on-the-job training were supports seen as vital to the process. Professional development content for assistant principals should have promoted leadership skill development and provided the instructional and managerial leadership toolkit necessary for the principalship (Oleszewski et al., 2012). Studies have shown that assistant principals are requesting more professional learning on instructional leadership, budgeting and finance, and administrator interview processes (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2017; Oleszewski et al., 2012). To ensure that assistant principals gained the proper knowledge to be effective in their current role while preparing for a future higher-level role, professional learning could come from various sources such as graduate school programs, administrator mentoring programs, and administrator peer groups. However, some school districts utilized principal preparatory programs and administrator coaches for current assistant principals to provide beneficial, content-specific professional learning to ensure they are sufficiently prepared to become principals (Oleszewski et al., 2012).

When studying school districts' principal preparatory programs, a research team determined that the content of the school districts' internal grow-your-own programs was specific to the districts' administrator roles and requirements (Oleszewski et al., 2012). The school districts' goal was to prepare assistant principals for administrator roles within their own districts, and both the districts and the assistant principals would gain from the work completed in the program (Oleszewski et al., 2012). Sometimes the school districts partnered with neighboring colleges and universities to provide content specific to the instructional and school management needs of assistant principals. Some benefits of these programs included professional development plans with attainable goals, personalized learning, and job

shadowing and mentorship opportunities within a wide range of educational leadership roles such as principals, district administrators, and superintendents (Oleszewski et al., 2012).

A study of principals who had previously attended an Assistant Principals' Academy (APA) determined that providing professional learning specifically on instructional leadership impacted the fulfillment of the participants' instructional leadership tasks upon appointment to the principalship (Gurley et al., 2015). Nine assistant principals were afforded an opportunity to attend the APA to prepare them for the role of principal and to enhance their instructional leadership skills. They completed modules on defining and sharing a school's mission and vision, managing the instructional program, and developing the school learning climate. Upon completion of the program and at least one year of work as a principal, the participants and teachers at their respective schools rated their instructional leadership skills using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Gurley et al., 2015). The researchers found that the majority of the principals and teachers rated the principals' instructional leadership skills highly, especially in the areas of managing the instructional program and developing the school learning climate (Gurley et al., 2015). The findings also showed how principals who completed the APA performed moderate to high levels of instructional leadership tasks during their daily duties. This research supported the need for principal preparation programs and the benefits of content based on instructional leadership (Gurley et al., 2015).

In a study of a Montana school district's grow-your-own principal preparatory program, Versland (2013) found that the principals in the study were selected for the program after being appointed to the role of principal and lacked many foundational skills vital to a role in administration. This particular preparatory program contained content knowledge specific to the role of the principal; however, it was not offered to the participants while in their previous roles of teacher leaders and assistant principals. Therefore, this program resulted in a loss of leadership self-efficacy as the participants learned that they lacked the skills and leadership experience vital to the current role. The implications of this study promoted enhanced selection processes for school districts' grow-your-own principal preparation

programs to include teacher leaders and assistant principals possessing the talent and skillset needed to segue into the role of the principal (Oleszewski et al., 2012; Versland, 2013).

Self-Efficacy and School Leadership

The self-efficacy component of Bandura's (2012) social cognitive theory focused on the effects of self-efficacy and how to enhance the beliefs in one's capabilities to impact social change. Bandura (2012) stated that "people's beliefs in their capabilities vary across activity domains and situational conditions rather than manifest uniformly across tasks and contexts in the likeness of a general trait" (p. 13). Within the realm of school leadership, principals and assistant principals perceived their leadership self-efficacy based upon their specific roles and responsibilities relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Leadership self-efficacy within the tenets of social cognitive theory can be developed in four ways: "through opportunities for success at completing tasks (mastery experiences), witnessing the successes of administrator peers and supervisors (social modeling), community encouragement and support (social persuasion), and appropriate decisions and plans for current and future roles (choice processes)" (Bandura, 2012, p. 13). To determine and measure leadership self-efficacy based upon their leadership role, principals and assistant principals could use reflections based upon experiences and instruments designed specifically for school administrators.

It has been noted that principals' leadership self-efficacy was determined by their beliefs in their abilities to lead schools to meet desired goals (Kelleher, 2016; Morgan, 2018). Because principals' beliefs drove their actions and significantly impacted school culture, "principals must have a strong sense of self-efficacy" (Kelleher, 2016, p. 70). During a study of the Arkansas Leadership Academy for principals, researchers found that increased complexity of the role of the principal has challenged the leadership self-efficacy of principals; thus, indirectly impacting school performance (Airola et al., 2014). In this study, school success was determined by students' performance on state-mandated standardized tests; therefore, the instructional leadership capabilities of principals were constantly being formally and informally evaluated by local and state officials. The participants in this study participated in a principal preparatory program, the Arkansas Leadership Academy, to experience personalized learning in the administrative

content area of choice. The researchers found that principals who completed two or more years of the program reported higher levels of leadership self-efficacy in the area of instructional leadership than principals who completed one year or less of the program (Airola et al., 2014). The findings in this study supported the notion that "professional development, reflection, and self-knowledge have been shown to improve self-efficacy" (Kelleher, 2016, p. 72).

In the age of accountability based upon school performance, it seemed that the leadership self-efficacy of principals was tied more to the instructional leadership aspect of the role than the school management function of the role. In a study of the leadership self-efficacy and the balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, researchers found that the more time spent on instructional leadership tasks resulted in a higher leadership self-efficacy for principals and assistant principals (McBrayer et al., 2018). Other researchers warned that any decreases in the leadership self-efficacy of principals could cause a decline in job performance, thus, negatively impacting schools (Bauer & Silver, 2018; McCullers & Bozeman, 2010; Postma & Babo, 2019). In their study of the leadership self-efficacy of Florida principals working to meet the state's accountability standards, the researchers found that 86.5% of the principals believed their leadership was a major factor in driving their schools toward meeting the state's school performance requirements (McCullers & Bozeman, 2010, p. 66). When principals believed that the state or federal standards for school performance were attainable, their leadership self-efficacy was higher than the leadership self-efficacy of principals who did not believe the standards were attainable for their schools (McCullers & Bozeman, 2010).

One study of school administrators in Canada showed assistant principals were given mostly school management tasks to complete as part of the administrative team in schools (Mitchell et al., 2017). Most assistant principals have indicated desires to obtain more knowledge and acquire more experience within the instructional leadership aspect of their administrative role. In the study of assistant principals in Canada where they were given mostly school management tasks instead of desired instructional leadership tasks, their leadership self-efficacy declined (Mitchell et al., 2017). The assistant principals were seen as fulfilling a non-instructional leadership role and were not respected as the second-in-

command; therefore, their leadership self-efficacy was negatively impacted. While there is not much current literature on the leadership self-efficacy of assistant principals, their leadership self-efficacy can be formed and enhanced based upon the tenets of Bandura's (2012) social cognitive theory much like principals. With opportunities to be a successful contributor to the school and administrative team, witness the successes of the school and the principal, receive support from the school and community, and prepare for the future role of the principal, the leadership self-efficacy of assistant principals could be significantly impacted.

Leadership self-efficacy scales for school administrators have focused on a variety of factors to adequately measure the construct of self-efficacy. The Principal's Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES) was based on attribution theory instead of Bandura's social cognitive theory and situations relevant only to principals while providing no evidence of validity (Petridou et al., 2014). The School Administrator Efficacy Scale (SAES) was an instrument designed to measure leadership self-efficacy based upon the national standards of the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (McCollum et al., 2006). The SAES was administered to 559 school principals in the Houston, Texas area to determine construct validity of the instrument based upon eight dimensions of school administrator self-efficacy: "instructional leadership and staff development, school climate development, community collaboration, data-based decision making aligned with legal and ethical principles, resource and facility management, use of community resources, communication in a diverse environment, and development of school vision" (McCollum et al., 2006, p. 110). The researchers found substantial evidence of construct validity and surmised that future researchers could feel confident in the validity and reliability of the SAES when using it for their studies (McCollum et al., 2006). However, a research team determined that the SAES was limited due to only including items based upon national standards that not all administrators utilized in their daily work and due to the lack of subsequent studies aimed at verifying the factor structure of the instrument (Petridou et al., 2014).

The School Leaders' Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) was designed to measure the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals based upon eight dimensions of their work in schools:

"creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, school self-evaluation for school improvement, developing a positive climate-managing conflicts, evaluating classroom practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continual professional development" (Petridou et al., 2014, pp. 236-237). This scale contained items related to specific instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks that principals and assistant principals fulfilled throughout their work. Items under three of the eight factors, creating an appropriate organizational structure, developing a positive climate and managing conflicts, and adhering to community and policy demands, related to school management tasks. The remaining factors, leading and managing the learning organization, school self-evaluation for school improvement, monitoring and evaluation classroom practices, monitoring learning, and leadership of continual professional development, all contained items related to instructional leadership tasks.

The SLSES was administered to 233 school administrators, principals and assistant principals, in the Republic of Cyprus, and it was also sent to experts in the field of educational leadership (Petridou et al., 2014). The results were used to conduct an exploratory factor analysis, and essential changes were made prior to the completion of a second study to further validate the instrument. Participants in the second study were 289 school administrators in Cyprus, and the revised SLSES was administered by a mail survey. The results were used to further validate the instrument, and the researchers determined the SLSES was valid and reliable and implored future researchers to continuing using the instrument to measure the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators. It was suggested the administration of the SLSES for the selection process for prospective educational leadership candidates, for the development of a professional learning plan for current school administrators, and for the development of mentorship or other professional development programs for school administrators (Petridou et al., 2014).

School Administrators and the Impact of School Level

Each grade level within the field of educational leadership poses its own unique challenges as school administrators strive to positively impact student achievement and school performance in their daily work. Differences in the use of time for principals and assistant principals working in the

elementary, middle, and high school sectors could occur and possibly impact leadership self-efficacy. Researchers investigated the tasks of elementary principals in Virginia and found that most of them described their role as being both an "instructional leader and a school manager, as well as being a child-centered leader" (Muse & Abrams, 2011, p. 53). This role definition was attributed to the fact that most of the 25 principals studied operated schools with minimal office staff and administrative assistants, and they were often the only administrator on the staff (Muse & Abrams, 2011). The findings also showed that 48% of the elementary school principals aspired to perform more instructional leadership tasks; however, 60% of them disclosed their concerns with having to spend more time on school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks (Muse & Abram, 2011). When the researchers inquired about steps that could be taken to improve their use of time, 60% of the principals responded that using distributed leadership would assist them with their duties. The study revealed that 20% noted the help of an assistant principal would benefit them in juggling the responsibilities of being instructional leaders and school managers of their elementary schools (Muse & Abrams, 2011).

In a study of Miami-Dade County principals, researchers found that elementary school principals tended to spend more time on instructional leadership tasks than high school principals did (Grissom et al., 2013). The instructional leadership task that high school administrators fulfilled the most was the classroom walkthrough. However, within this study the classroom walkthroughs conducted in high schools were associated with negative school performance. The researchers attributed these results to various content areas within high school courses and "the resulting lack of alignment between principals' areas of instructional expertise and instructional practices in the classrooms they observe" (Grissom et al., 2013, p. 437). In a study of the types of tasks principals complete, findings showed that elementary school principals worked approximately 51 hours per week while high school principals worked approximately 53 hours per week with 42 of those hours completed during the school day and 11 of the hours completed during afterschool activities (Lunenburg, 2010). In a study of 65 Miami-Dade County school principals, researchers found no differences in the amount of time principals spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by grade level (Horng et al., 2010). There was limited substantial research

on the use of time of principals in the middle school setting and the use of time of assistant principals by grade level setting.

School Administrators and the Impact of School Location and Tenure

The tasks of principals and assistant principals and the amount of time spent on tasks could vary dependent upon the size of the school relative to the community surrounding the school. When studying principals in rural communities of North Dakota, researchers found that principals often fulfilled multiple roles due to a lack of additional administrative support (Parson et al., 2016). They were often both a principal and a teacher or a principal and the superintendent of schools. Because they did not have the assistance of other administrators or instructional specialists, rural school principals were expected to have an extensive knowledge of all that encompassed instructional leadership and coaching as well as school management tasks that included administrative and office duties. Of the 81 rural principals participating in the study, 72% reported spending more time on student discipline and management while over 60% disclosed that the instructional leadership role was the most vital responsibility and the most effective role a principal has (Parson et al., 2016). They shared that their biggest issue was trying to manage multiple roles to run their schools without sufficient administrative support. Some reported that they did not have secretaries while some also acted as the athletic director and coach (Parson et al., 2016). School decisions, management and instructional, were often made alone without consultation opportunities; therefore, the rural principals desired personalized professional learning on applying instructional leadership to enhance their perception of their capabilities in this area and utilizing transformational leadership in rural schools (Parson et al., 2016).

Due to the magnitude of the school administrator role in rural settings, the school administrators must be "generalists" to be effective (Versland, 2013, p. 14). Because most rural school administrators did not have the school or district administrative support of larger school communities and districts, rural school principals were expected to have multiple skillsets and be able to fulfill multiple job tasks that did not fall under instructional leadership or site-based school management. The researcher further surmised that the volume of multi-faceted tasks could possibly have an impact on the leadership self-efficacy of

school administrators (Versland, 2013). Of the 292 rural school principals responding to the leadership self-efficacy survey administered, only 22% rated their leadership self-efficacy high (Versland, 2013, p. 17). The remaining participants, who represented the majority, rated their leadership self-efficacy as mostly moderate or low to moderate.

A study on the use of time of urban school principals conducted by Sebastian et al. (2018) found that the principals spent just 23% of the school work day completing tasks on their own (p. 68). Because of the size of the school district, the principals had the support of multiple assistant principals and an abundance of district administrators specializing in various areas. They had the support to delegate both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and they were afforded opportunities to consult and collaborate with district officials. Their issues and professional learning needs were different from those of rural principals because they did not operate alone on a daily basis. Noticeably missing from current research on principals' use of time and leadership efficacy is specific data on suburban school districts.

The tenure of principals could also impact the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and leadership self-efficacy. In a study of the use of time of Miami-Dade County principals, researchers found that new principals spent approximately 34% of their time on school management tasks while principals who had four or more years of experience spent about 22% of their time on school management tasks (Horng et al., 2010, p. 505). This difference could come from the novice principal's eagerness to complete as many tasks as possible during the initial years as a school administrator and the autonomy and experience to delegate additional tasks to other staff during the latter years. In a study of time management skills of approximately 300 Miami-Dade County principals, researchers found that principals who led the same school for multiple years showed higher levels of delegation of tasks than principals who led multiple schools for short periods of time (Grissom et al., 2015).

When the Principal's Self-Efficacy Scale (PSES) was administered to 123 principals in Israel, the researcher found relationships between tenure and leadership self-efficacy (Fisher, 2014). Novice

principals in this study reported higher leadership self-efficacy levels than principals with two to six years of experience leading schools (Fisher, 2014, p. 76). This is in contrast to Bandura's (2012) description of self-efficacy within social cognitive theory. The development of self-efficacy usually included positive growth and enhancement based upon the acquiring of work experience and additional skills; however, this was not the case with the principals in the Fisher (2014) study. There was no increase of leadership self-efficacy based upon the administration of the PSES after the freshman year as a principal. These results indicated a relationship between work experience and leadership self-efficacy.

Reframing School Leadership Tasks

The theoretical framework for this study on the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and balance of tasks is based upon organization theory with a specific focus on both the ability to complete job tasks and the confidence levels involved in completing job tasks. Starting in the early 1990s, research was done to study the common leadership challenges of organization managers and leaders (Bolman & Deal, 2013). The research team of Bolman and Deal found that leaders within organizations could overcome leadership and production challenges by choosing the proper perspective, or frame, for the current situation (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Additionally, the researchers promoted the use of a four-frame model of organization theory to assist leaders and stakeholders with understanding their perspective on organizations and the management of organizations. Within the four-frame model of organization theory, organizations were characterized by one of four frames, the structural, human resource, political, or symbolic frames for leaders and managers to determine how to lead them effectively.

The structural frame described organizations as machines or factories with a strong emphasis on "organizational architecture, including planning, goals, structure, technology, specialized roles, coordination, formal relationships, and metrics" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 15). The structural frame emphasized how organizations distributed tasks and created and implemented protocol, policies, and procedures while the leaders of the organization sought "rational analysis and clarity" (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 50). Confusion and disorder ensued when the structure was not in alignment with the current set of roles and tasks, and productivity within the organization halted or declined (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

The human resource frame characterized an organization as a type of family comprised of members with specific talents, gifts, emotions, biases, and limitations (Bolman & Deal, 2013). When viewing organizations through this human resource lens, leaders were challenged with effectively delegating tasks and distributing leadership based upon skillset while ensuring a positive work environment for the members of the organization. This frame encouraged leaders to get to know subordinate team members and other colleagues to determine their gifts and talents so tasks could be delegated based upon best fit. The political frame characterized organizations as jungles where competition among members was the motivating factor. Through this lens leaders saw how members constantly competed for power and resources. The symbolic frame characterized organizations as temples or carnivals where the main focus was on rituals, stories, and ceremonies instead of authoritative leadership. Leader issues ensued within this frame when members could not utilize their creativity to move the organization forward.

Almost 20 years after the development of the four-frame model of organization theory for businesses, Bolman teamed with another researcher to study the model's use within the educational realm to assist educational leaders with reframing their perspectives of school leadership to positively impact student achievement (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Within the field of educational leadership, the structural view still characterized the organization or school as a factory with various processes and procedures in place to achieve a specific output. However, the educational leader was seen as an "architect, analyst, or systems designer" whose focus was on delegating, managing, and seeking clarity on roles, policies, and procedures (Bolman & Gallos, 2011, p. 50). The human resource frame still characterized the organization or school as a family; however, the educational leader was seen as a caring servant leader who focused on the people, or subordinates, while facilitating the fair juxtaposition of individual needs and organization needs with an emphasis on satisfaction with job performance (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). The political frame still characterized the organization or school as a jungle; however, the educational leader was described as a political advisor who consults and collaborates with team members with a focus on advocacy, bargaining, and managing conflict. Within the educational realm of reframing organizations, the symbolic view of leadership still characterized organizations and schools as temples or theaters;

however, the leader was seen as an artist whose main goal was to ensure that members used creativity and passion to reach common goals.

The four-frame model of organization theory developed over the years by Bolman, Deal, and Gallos served to influence leaders' desire to overcome leadership challenges and lead effective organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Bolman & Gallos, 2011). This study's focus is on the impact of school administrators' tasks on their leadership self-efficacy, and the outcome of the study could assist principals and assistant principals with effectively dividing and completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure student achievement. This model of organization theory focuses on organizational roles and management based upon standard operating procedures, and it can be considered an appropriate frame through which to view the school administrators' attempts to balance instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Bolman & Deal, 2013; Bolman & Gallos, 2011). Within the structural view, the basic challenge was to effectively delegate instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure proficiency as school administrators and high confidence in leadership abilities through the lens of self-efficacy. Central to the structural view of organization was the comparison of organizations to manufacturing businesses or factories who focus on the input and output processes to ensure success. School administrators who utilize the structural view of school leadership can approach their tasks with a similar perspective. The balanced completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (input) could lead to successful schools (output) and high leadership self-efficacy of school administrators (output).

The challenge for school administrators is how to effectively fulfill their roles as principals and assistant principals by completing both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks within the allotted time period, a school year. Bolman and Gallos (2011) surmised that leaders play the role of analysts and architects who constantly study the processes of an organization to determine how to redesign the organization and implement procedures that ensure the organizations meet their goals. School administrators are obligated to study ways to balance instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks with fidelity and determine the procedures and roles that require revisions for the goals

to come to fruition. The tenets of the structural view of leadership are vital to the success of principals and assistant principals as they fulfill the tasks required of their roles. Within the four-frame model of organization theory , productivity could be impacted when the structure of the organization is impaired (Bolman & Gallos, 2011). This framework implies that there could be a relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the successful completion of job tasks of principals and assistant principals.

Chapter Summary

Reviewing the research on the tasks and leadership self-efficacy of school administrators highlighted many vital concepts relevant to further studies of these topics. Most of the researchers studying principals indicated that the administrators were completing more school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks in their daily work. The principals also shared that they desired to complete more instructional leadership tasks and balance the fulfillment of both types of tasks to meet their goals. The most common obstacle to finding the balance was time. Assistant principals shared some of the same goals as principals concerning desires to balance instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks; however, their unclear role definition and assignment of tasks proved to be obstacles for them.

Research showed that assistant principals lacked a clear definition for their role and were often characterized by the school management tasks mostly assigned to them. Studies disclosed the vulnerabilities of assistant principals as they sought to gain experiences within instructional leadership while being expected to complete only school management tasks. Research also showed the need for assistant principals in schools so that distributed leadership could be used by principals to ensure that school improvement requirements were met. Rural and elementary school principals in recent studies expressed a need for the support of assistant principals as they often were the lone administrator in their schools and had to fulfill multiple roles both related to and unrelated to school administration. Research outcomes on studies of urban school principals disclosed their desire to complete more instructional leadership tasks; however, they had more opportunities to obtain a balance with instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks due to the ability to utilize distributed leadership because of additional staff present.

Research on the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and the instruments used to measure self-efficacy provided rich information for future studies of this construct. Rural principals who performed multiple roles in their schools and districts showed low leadership self-efficacy. New principals reported high leadership self-efficacy while experienced principals reported low to moderate leadership self-efficacy. Attainable goals also led to increased leadership self-efficacy for principals. The SAES was administered to school administrators to measure leadership self-efficacy, and it was tested for validity and reliability. However, the SAES was based on national standards that not all administrators were evaluated on, and there was no follow-up study conducted on the SAES to further support its validity. The SLSES was developed and tested as a more current and reliable instrument to use to study the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators.

Most studies lacked data collection from assistant principals so that perspectives of assistant principals could be considered and analyzed with the data collected from principals. While research existed on the professional development of assistant principals, there was not much research on assistant principals' use of time and leadership self-efficacy. Some of the studies focused on the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of elementary and high school principals without much attention to the tasks of middle school administrators. There was ample research on rural school principals and their tasks and leadership self-efficacy; however, there was only a little research on urban school administrators and no research conducted specifically on suburban school administrators.

Because on the lack of clarity for the role of the assistant principal and the apparent imbalance of the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks given to them, further study is necessary in this area to provide definition to the role of the assistant principal and determine their exact daily use of time. The accountability for the improvement and success of schools is a responsibility of the administrative team, and studies have shown that leadership self-efficacy of principals can impact school outcomes. Therefore, further study into the leadership self-efficacy of assistant principals is vital to show their impact on student achievement in their current role and to highlight any concerns that should be addressed prior to them assuming higher-level roles in school administration. To fill the gaps in

educational literature and substantiate the roles of school administrators, this research study will analyze

the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of both principals and assistant principals

and determine if the leadership self-efficacy of both is impacted by their specific tasks.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

To be successful school administrators and positively impact the achievement of schools, principals and assistant principals seek to balance both their instructional leadership tasks and their school management tasks daily. The tasks associated with supervising the teaching and learning in a school setting, such as evaluating teachers, analyzing school data, and planning professional learning for the staff, are instructional leadership tasks (Grissom et al., 2013; Grissom et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng et al., 2010; Vogel, 2018). School management tasks are the tasks associated with maintaining the daily order of the school, such as attending to the building and facilities, office management, discipline, and attendance (Grissom & Loeb, 2011; Grissom et al., 2015; Horng et al., 2010; Huang, 2020; Lunenburg, 2010). The leadership self-efficacy of school leaders, the perception of their leadership effectiveness, could be impacted by the fulfillment or non-fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Murphy & Johnson, 2016). Leadership self-efficacy is defined as "the belief that one has the capabilities and resources to perform a specific task – leadership" (Nguyen, 2016, p. 831). This study aims to explore the demands of the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals and the impact of these tasks on their leadership self-efficacy.

The research design utilized for this study will be discussed in detail within this chapter, and the specific population vital to the data collection and analysis will also be described with emphasis on the sample and sampling method used. The leadership self-efficacy and use of time instruments to be utilized for this study will be discussed within this chapter along with the anticipated response rates of participants. This portion will be followed by a discussion on how the data will be collected, analyzed, and reported for the purpose of answering research questions related to the effects of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals. A summary supporting all components of the study will conclude this chapter.

Research Questions

To conduct this study on the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy, the following equally weighted research questions will be used:

1. What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators?

2. What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks?

3. What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location?

4. What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals?

The first question aims to determine if leadership self-efficacy is impacted by the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. If there is some semblance of an impact based upon the results of the administered instrument, a discussion will follow of the outcomes related to a positive or negative relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the tasks of school administrators. While analyzing the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators, the second question aims to provide a comparison between the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of two types of school administrators, principals and assistant principals. While studying the leadership self-efficacy of both principals and assistant principals, the third question aims to compare and contrast the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and the effects of their school tasks based upon the type of school (elementary, middle, or high school), the experience of the school administrators, the current school CCRPI score, and the geographic location of the school (rural, suburban, or urban). While studying the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, the fourth question aims to determine the difference in the task completion rates of principals and assistant principals.

Research Design

The study of the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals as it relates to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks will be conducted using a quantitative research design. This is an ideal design for this study with the variables of instructional leadership tasks, school management tasks, and leadership self-efficacy being measured to answer the study's first three research questions. The variables of use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and the school administrative role will be measured to answer the last research question. Instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks are the independent variables. The dependent variable is the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals.

Based upon Creswell and Creswell's (2018) characterization of various types of researchers, the researcher for this study has a "transformative worldview" showcased by a focus on the effects of the imbalance of school leadership tasks (p. 9). With respect to the differences in the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals, this study is intended to determine if leadership self-efficacy is positively or negatively impacted and if leadership self-efficacy differs between principals and assistant principals. This research is designed to influence school administrator role definitions, the assignment of school tasks among principals and assistant principals, and school administrator training with results from participants actively working within the field of school administration. The motivation that fuels this type of research is the change that could possibly occur within the participants' schools, districts, and leadership programs as a result of the outcomes. Per Creswell and Creswell (2018), "transformative research provides a voice for these participants, raising their consciousness or advancing an agenda for change to improve their lives" (p. 9).

A cross-sectional survey design was used to conduct this study on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals related to school tasks. The intent was to collect data on the leadership self-efficacy and school tasks during a specific season of the school year; therefore, the cross-sectional survey design is most appropriate for this type of study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Because the participants were given a specific treatment throughout the study nor was there a need to control variables

for any reason, the research design was not conducted using experimental techniques. Based upon the work of Creswell and Creswell (2018), the nature of true experimental design involved the random placement of participants to different groups. This study sought to use numerical data from an instrument designed to analyze the leadership self-efficacy and use of time of school administrators and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. The participants in this study were administered a survey containing use of time items from the McBrayer et al. (2018) study and items from the School Leaders' Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) developed by Petridou et al. (2014). See Appendix A.

Population, Sample, and Sampling

The best population to use for this study on the impact of school leaders' instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy included elementary, middle and high school principals and assistant principals from rural, urban, and suburban school districts. Any state would have a large population of school administrators who are currently working as principals and assistant principals to participate in this type of study. To conduct this study within the same manner as the researchers who created the SLSES, a smaller sample size than an entire state of school administrators was needed. According to de Vaus (2014), one vital aspect of the study to consider when determining sample size is the intention to analyze the data collected from various subgroups. The subgroups analyzed in this study were principals and assistant principals from elementary, middle, and high schools within rural, suburban, and urban school districts. Thus, an appropriate sample was needed to ensure that each of the eight subgroups has an ample amount of participants. It was suggested that the smallest subgroup have from 50 to 100 participants to ensure that an adequate amount of participants from each subgroup are represented in the study (deVaus, 2014).

Prior to this study, the developers of the SLSES administered the instrument twice to sample sizes of 233 and 289 school leaders from all school settings while creating and validating the instrument (Petridou et al., 2014). A sample of a sizeable amount of participants who serve as principals and assistant principals in all grade levels in rural, suburban, and urban communities was found within the 17

school districts of Georgia's First District Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) area for this study. This agency provides professional learning and support for school district's teachers and leaders using school data and a variety of resources (First District RESA, 2016). First District RESA serves the school districts of Appling County, Bryan County, Bulloch County, Camden County, Candler County, Effingham County, Evans County, Glynn County, Jeff Davis County, Liberty County, Long County, McIntosh County, Screven County, Tattnall County, Toombs County, Vidalia City, and Wayne County. Of the 99 elementary, 39 middle, and 34 high schools in the counties of southeast Georgia in the First District, there are approximately 400 principals and assistant principals from which a sample size for this study will be compiled (First District RESA, 2016). After acquiring permission from the executive director of First District RESA to utilize a list of all principals and assistant principals to contact prospective participants for this study, a single-stage sampling method was used to directly administer the study's instrument online via an e-mail link. Single-stage sample procedures were most appropriate due to the potential access to and online availability of school administrators within the counties served by First District RESA (Creswell & Creswell, 2014).

Participants' interest in this study varied as the study involved aspects of school administration that all participants are familiar with because of the knowledge gained from educational leadership and other leader preparation programs. Because of the potential imbalance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks associated with services provided by school administrators, principals and assistant principals related to the actions presented in the survey items. This garnered increased interest in the study and its outcomes with hopes that the results could affect change in the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks in schools. Some participants may also realize that the outcomes of this study could enhance the effectiveness of educational leadership programs and district or site-based leadership programs that prepare future school administrators for the roles of principal and assistant principal.

To garner the best participation for this study, the instrument was delivered to participants in a way that grasped their attention and motivated the participants to complete the survey expeditiously. A

researcher in the field of surveys for social research stated, "We can anticipate that web-based surveys will yield good response rates when used in particular contexts" (deVaus, 2014, p. 126). The prospective participants in this study were practicing principals and assistant principals who were currently fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Researchers are advised to utilize e-mail to request participation for online surveys (de Vaus, 2014). This process involved sending an e-mail invitation that includes the purpose of the study and the need for the participant's assistance with the study. See Appendix B. It was important to inform each participant of how their e-mail address had been acquired, ensure their anonymity, and include a link directly to the survey for simple access (de Vaus, 2014). There were some advantages of using web-based surveys to complete studies such as the ability to acquire specialized samples and access to participants and the ability to prevent item non-response and control the order of questions (de Vaus, 2014).

The survey administered for this study intended to meet the criteria of effective web-based questionnaires using *Qualtrics*™ survey software. The instructions for completing the survey were simple and concise, and the survey's completion time was approximately 10 minutes with at most 65 items to consider for responses. Participants were asked to respond to the survey within four weeks. One week after sending the first e-mail request, a second e-mail request was sent to prospective participants to ensure a higher response rate. It was advised that ample time, between six to eight weeks, must be given for participants to receive and complete the survey and for the researcher to provide reminders to participants as needed (de Vaus, 2014). Therefore, after three weeks, the participants were contacted again to implore participants to complete the study's survey. The researcher sought a response rate of at least 150 out of the approximate 400 principals and assistant principals within the First District RESA service area for at least a 40% response rate. This amount of participants was identified to meet the advisement to researchers to have a minimum of 50 participants per subgroup with overlap among some of the subgroups, such as geographic location and school level (de Vaus, 2014).

Instrumentation

Prior to this study, the developers of the SLSES designed the instrument because of the narrow amount of research surrounding school administrators' tasks related to their leadership self-efficacy (Petridou et al., 2014). The researchers conducted two separate studies to complete the development and validation of the SLSES. Within the first study, items were constructed for the instrument based upon the research from global leadership entities respected in the fields of leadership behaviors, school leadership effectiveness, school leader evaluation standards and competencies, and educational leadership programs (Petridou et al., 2014). A pilot study was also conducted with eight participants from various educational leadership backgrounds. The results of the pilot study helped the developers improve upon the verbiage and structure of the instrument. To finalize the structure of the SLSES, the researchers then administered the instrument to 233 school administrators within elementary and secondary public schools in Cyprus (Petridou et al., 2014). The results of the factor analysis completed on the data from this administration yielded the final eight factors of the 31-item questionnaire that makes up the SLSES (Petridou et al., 2014). The developers determined that the eight factors that could be used in the SLSES to measure the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators relative to their school tasks are "creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, school self-evaluation for school improvement, developing a positive climate-managing conflicts, evaluating classroom practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continuing professional development" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 237).

The second phase of development for the SLSES completed its validation process. To complete the second study, the instrument was administered to elementary and secondary school administrators in Cyprus using convenience sampling with 289 different school administrators who had not participated in the first study (Petridou et al., 2014). The resulting correlations between the factors of the SLSES were all found to be statistically significant indicating that each factor measured the construct it was designed to measure. Cronbach's α with 95 percent confidence intervals ranged from 0.76 to 0.93, thus confirming the internal consistency of the SLSES (Petridou et al., 2014).

For this study on the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators related to their instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, the 31 items from the SLSES were administered to principals and assistant principals, and the principals and assistant principals rated their leadership self-efficacy on each item using the following five-point Likert scale: "1 = not at all confident, 2 = not confident, 3 = somewhat confident, 4 = confident, 5 = very confident" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 253). Of the 31 items from the SLSES, 14 items were considered to be instructional leadership tasks. Seventeen of the items were related to school management tasks. The 14 instructional leadership tasks included the SLSES factors of creating an appropriate structure (one item), leading and managing the learning organization (two items), school self-evaluation for school improvement (three items), evaluating classroom practices (three items), monitoring learning (three items), and leadership of continuing professional development (two items). The 17 school management tasks included the SLSES factors of creating an appropriate structure (six items), leading and managing the learning organization (five items), developing a positive climate-managing conflicts (three items), and adhering to community and policy demands (three items).

There were 23 items from the McBrayer et al. study (2018) designed to collect use of time data for instructional leadership and school management tasks often completed by principals and assistant principals. Two of the 23 items were multiple choice questions for participants to choose the percentage of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. For this portion of the survey's items, the participants rated their frequency of instructional leadership tasks and school management task completion using the following four-point Likert scale: 1 = Less than 10%, 2 = Between 10 – 30%, 3 = Between 30 – 50%, and 4 = More than 50%. Participants had the opportunity to state whether they considered themselves to be an instructional leader or school manager in the one item of the survey. This item was followed by an open-ended question providing participants an opportunity to state their rationale for characterizing their roles as instructional leader or school manager. The instrument also included two open-ended items for participants to list their top three instructional leadership tasks and top three school management tasks for their roles. The data collected from this portion of the survey could

inform the implications of this study and promote future study within this topic. Lastly, additional questions were included in the instrument to collect and analyze data related to the research questions. There were seven multiple choice items for the collection of demographic information (school location, school type, school CCRPI score, and years of experience) vital to answering research questions related to these subgroups. See Appendix A.

Data Collection

A researcher surmised that "an internet survey sent to lists of frequently checked email addresses can produce quick responses" (de Vaus, 2014, p. 129). Therefore, the instrument was sent to the school e-mail addresses of principals and assistant principals from a list of administrators from the 17 districts served by First District RESA. The e-mail invitation included an informed consent request with a link to the survey in *Qualtrics*™ survey software. There were no risks involved in the completion of the survey that would not occur otherwise in daily life. If any risks arise, participants were informed of use of the counseling center of the research institution, which was not required. The instrument contained 65 items with seven multiple choice items for the collection of demographic information, 31 items from the SLSES using a 5-point Likert scale, and 23 items for the collection of use of time data. Additionally, one item that asked participants to state whether they considered themselves to be an instructional leader or a school manager along with another item requesting the rationale for the selection, and two items that allow participants to list their instructional leadership and school management tasks were utilized. The data were collected over a four-week period and allowed ample time for participants to receive and complete the survey.

The data collection process involved practicing principals and assistant principals who utilized electronic devices and emails daily to fulfill the responsibilities of their roles. Therefore, the survey can be accessed with ease electronically and was completed within a timely manner for the least amount of interference with job tasks at their school site or at home. Upon completion of the survey, participants received words of appreciation for sacrificing the time to participate in the study. When the data collection process ended after a period of four weeks, the results from the *Qualtrics*™ survey software

were downloaded into an Excel file to be transferred to statistical software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), to assist with data analysis (Statistics Solutions, 2019).

Data Analysis

The survey instrument was administered to principals and assistant principals within 17 school districts served by First District RESA. The seven demographic questions required participants to select their role from the choices of principal or assistant principal, state the number of years of service as a principal or an assistant principal, indicate their previous teaching experience, select their school level from the choices of elementary, middle, or high school, select their geographic location from the choices of rural, suburban, or urban, and indicate their school's CCRPI score. Of the 31 items from the SLSES, 14 described instructional leadership tasks and 17 described school management tasks. Principals and assistant principals rated their leadership self-efficacy for each task using the following five-point Likert scale : "1 = not at all confident, 2 = not confident, 3 = somewhat confident, 4 = confident, 5 = very confident" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 253). Two of the multiple choice items required participants to choose the percentage of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. For the remaining items designed to collect use of time data, the participants rated their frequency of instructional leadership tasks and school management task completion using the following four-point Likert scale: 1 = Less than 10%, 2 = Between 10 – 30%, 3 = Between 30 – 50%, and 4 = More than 50%. The final questions required participants to state whether they perceived themselves to be an instructional leader or a school manager in their current role and provide their reasons for this classification. The survey ended with participants listing their most frequently fulfilled instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The data collected from this portion of the survey could inform the implications of this study and promote future study within this topic.

Upon receiving the data from the responses in *Qualtrics*™ survey software, the data were transferred to SPSS due to the researcher's familiarity with the statistical software and current availability. The reliability of the scores were checked using a calculation of Cronbach's α, a measure of internal consistency that is capable of determining if this study's survey measured leadership self-efficacy

and use of time as it is intended to do (Moore et al., 2012). The first question in the study stated: What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators? To answer the first question in the study, a correlation was conducted with the two independent variables, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and the dependent variable, leadership self-efficacy. This test was appropriate for this question because the independent variables are from two distinct groups, and this test can help determine the differences in the relationships between the leadership self-efficacy of the participants fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and between the leadership self-efficacy of the participants fulfilling school management tasks (Moore et al., 2012).

The second question stated: What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks? To answer the second question in the study, two independent samples *t*-tests were performed on the responses of principals and on the responses of the assistant principals separately to provide a comparison of the two groups' leadership self-efficacies based upon the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The independent variables were the instructional leadership tasks and the school management tasks, and the dependent variable was the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators. These tests were appropriate for this question because the independent variables were from two distinct groups for both the principals and the assistant principals, and these tests can help determine the differences in the relationships between the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals fulfilling instructional leadership tasks and between the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals fulfilling school management tasks (Moore et al., 2012).

The third question stated: What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location? To answer the third question in the study, descriptive statistics (mean median, and mode) of the leadership self-efficacy scores of the participating principals and assistant principals were calculated using SPSS. The data were analyzed in the context of school level (elementary, middle, or

high), years of experience of principals (0 – 3 years, 4 – 20 years, or 20 plus years), years of experience of assistant principals (0 – 3 years, 4 – 20 years, or 20 plus years), CCRPI scores (A, B, C, D, or F), and school location (rural, suburban, or urban). This methodology was appropriate for this question because multiple groups are being analyzed to determine the differences in the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators based upon a variety of demographic factors (Moore et al., 2012).

The fourth question stated: What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals? To answer the fourth question in the study, two independent samples t-tests were performed on the responses of the principals and assistant principals separately to provide a comparison of the two groups' use of time based upon their fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The independent variables were the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and the amount of time spent on school management tasks. The dependent variables was the roles of principal and assistant principal. These tests were appropriate for this question because the independent variables were from two distinct groups, and these tests can help determine the differences in the time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals (Moore et al., 2012).

Reporting the Findings

The results of the study were presented within the text and in charts and tables to accurately display the data analysis. The researcher discussed the final number of participants along with the number of principals and the number of assistant principals. The amount of participants currently working in elementary, middle, or high schools was shared along with the number of participants working in rural, suburban, or urban communities, the CCRPI data, and years of experience. Roberts (2010) advised the reporting of data by research question to ensure ease of understanding the results. To display the data utilized to answer research questions, tables with headings pertaining to each research question will be included within the next chapter.

Chapter Summary

Determining the impact of school administrators' instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy can be done using quantitative methods for this study via a cross-sectional survey design. Approximately 400 principals and assistant principals from school districts within a southeast Georgia region served by First District RESA were administered an instrument containing a leadership self-efficacy scale and use of time scale to answer the study's research questions. The survey was administered using an online link sent via e-mail, and the data were collected and analyzed using multiple statistical procedures. The purpose of the study was to bring attention to the need to balance the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals. The outcomes of this study sought to inform the development of leader preparation program and the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to principals and assistant principals.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter provides an overview of the problem and purpose of the research study followed by a listing of the research questions that drive the study. The research methodology utilized for the study will be described, and the results of the study will be presented by research question using tables, figures, and narratives. A portion of this chapter also contains a comparison of the study's results to previous studies. The chapter concludes with a summary of the results and the chapter's contents.

Current school accountability demands suggest that school administrators (principals and assistant principals) show proficiency in completing instructional leadership tasks while meeting the demands of school management task completion to attain student achievement and school improvement. With the enhanced focus on school administrators' abilities to fulfill instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks proficiently comes the concern about the impact on school administrators' perception of their leadership capabilities through the lens of self-efficacy. There appear to be disparities between the types of tasks, instructional leadership and school management, that enhance the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and the types of tasks school administrators have time to complete. This drives an overarching concern that school administrators may not be able to lead effectively if their leadership self-efficacy suffers based upon the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks versus school management tasks.

This study sought to identify the relationship between the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators and their leadership self-efficacy across multiple demographics. School administrators, principals and assistant principals, are recognized as working to complete instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks efficiently and effectively with full confidence in their leadership capabilities. This study focused on the impact of principals' and assistant principals' instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy. The study was intended to inform the delegation of tasks for school

administrators and the inclusion of job-applicable content for district leadership preparation programs and other professional learning opportunities for school administrators.

The focus on the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks in order to be a more efficacious school administrator led to the following equally weighted research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators?

2. What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks?

3. What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location?

4. What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals?

The study was conducted using a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. The survey utilized for this study addressed the research questions in four sections. The first section consisted of seven multiple choice items designed to collect demographic information including gender identity, type of school administrator, school location, school type, school College and Career Readiness Performance Index (CCRPI) score, years of experience, and previous teaching experience. The second section collected use of time data within 23 survey items. There were two multiple choice items for study participants to choose the percentage of time spent completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Twenty-one additional use of time items required study participants to rate their frequency of instructional leadership task completion (12 items) and school management task completion (nine items) using a four-point Likert scale: 1 = less than 10%, 2 = between 10 – 30%, 3 = between 30 – 50%, and 4 = more than 50% (McBrayer et al., 2018, p. 606).

The third section of the survey instrument was comprised of items from the School Leaders' Self-Efficacy Scale (SLSES) which measured eight factors affecting school administrators' self-efficacy:

"creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, self-evaluation for school improvement, developing a positive climate and managing conflicts, evaluating classroom practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continuing professional development" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 237). The factors included 31 items specifically related to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The participants rated their leadership self-efficacy on the SLSES items using a five-point Likert scale: 1 = not at all confident, 2 = not confident, 3 = somewhat confident, 4 = confident, 5 = very confident. The last section of the survey required participants to select whether they perceived themselves to be an instructional leader or a school manager and follow-up with a rationale for their selection. The survey ended with two open-ended items requiring participants to list the top three instructional leadership tasks and top three school management tasks completed within their current role. See Appendix A.

School Administrator Representation

Descriptive statistics of the sample were computed using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) software. Southeast Georgia school districts serviced by the First District Regional Educational Service Agency (RESA) were utilized as a sampling comprised of 302 public school administrators. Administrators in the sampling were emailed the survey instrument with 104 (34.4%) responding to the invitation to participate. A total of 73 school administrators from the school districts completed the survey for a completion response rate of 24.2%. Of the 73 participants, over half (68.5%) were assistant principals and 31.5% were principals. An almost equal amount of male and female school administrators (50.7% and 49.3%, respectively) participated in the study, most of the participants had core content teaching experience (86.3%) prior to becoming an administrator, and 13.7% of the participants had experience teaching elective content. The school administrator experience of the participants ranged from new administrators with zero to three years of experience (49.3%) to veteran administrators with four to 20 years of experience (45.2%) and over 20 years of experience (5.5%). For the sample of school administrators, the majority were elementary school administrators (52.1%) followed by middle school administrators (19.2%), and high school administrators (26%), and other school administrators from

alternative or K-12 settings (2.7%). Most of the school administrators (74%) were from rural school

districts in southeast Georgia while 8.2% were from urban schools and 17.8% were from suburban

schools. When classified by the school's CCRPI score and status, most of the participating school

administrators (47.2%) were from "B" schools while 27.8% were from "C" schools, 15.3% were from

"D" schools, and 9.7% were from "A" schools. None of the study's participants were from failing

schools. Table 1 displays the representation of the total sample of participants within each demographic.

Table 1

School Administrator Representation

Demographic	*n*	% of Total Sample
Role		
Principals	23	31.5%
Assistant Principals	50	68.5%
Gender		
Male	37	50.7%
Female	36	49.3%
Experience		
0 – 3 Years Experience	36	49.3%
4 – 20 Years Experience	33	45.2%
Over 20 Years Experience	4	5.5%
Area		
Core Content Teaching	63	86.3%
Elective Content Teaching	10	13.7%
Level		
Pre-K/Elementary School	38	52.1%
Middle School	14	19.2%
High School	19	26%
Other School	2	2.7%
Location		
Rural School	54	74.0%
Urban School	6	8.2%
Suburban School	13	17.8%
CCRPI Score		
"A" School	7	9.7%
"B" School	34	47.2%
"C" School	20	27.8%
"D" School	11	15.3%
"F" School		

Note. n = 73; Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.

Of the 23 principals who participated in the study, there were 13 males and 10 females. Most of

the principals (56.5%) had between zero and three years of experience as a principal while 39.1% had

between four and 20 years of experience and only one principal had over 20 years of experience. Almost

all of the principals (95.7%) previously taught core content prior to becoming an administrator, and only

one principal previously taught elective content. Most principals (52.2%) were elementary school

principals, and the other principals were at middle schools (26.1%) or high schools (21.7%). Most

principals were from rural schools (82.6%) while 17.4% were from suburban schools. The majority of the

principals represented (47.8%) came from "B" schools based upon CCRPI score. Other principals in the

study worked at "C" schools (26.1%), "D" schools (17.4%), and "A" schools (8.7%). No principals in the

study were from other school settings, urban schools, or failing schools. Table 2 displays the

representation of the school principal subgroup of the total sample of participants.

Table 2

Principal Representation

Demographic	*n*	% of Total Subgroup	% of Total Sample
Gender			
Male	13	56.5%	17.8%
Female	10	43.5%	13.7%
Experience			
0 – 3 Years Experience	13	56.5%	17.8%
4 – 20 Years Experience	9	39.1%	12.3%
Over 20 Years Experience	1	4.3%	1.4%
Area			
Core Content Teaching	22	95.7%	30.1%
Elective Content Teaching	1	4.3%	1.4%
Level			
Pre-K/Elementary School	12	52.2%	16.4%
Middle School	6	26.1%	8.2%
High School	5	21.7%	6.8%
Other School			
Location			
Rural School	19	82.6%	26%
Urban School			
Suburban School	4	17.4%	5.5%
CCRPI Score			
"A" School	2	8.7%	2.8%
"B" School	11	47.8%	15.3%
"C" School	6	26.1%	8.3%
"D" School	4	17.4%	5.6%
"F" School			

Note. n = 73; Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.

Of the 50 assistant principals who participated in this study, 26 identified as female and 24 as male. Most of the assistant principals (48%) had between four and 20 years of experience followed by assistant principals with zero to three years of experience (46%) and those with over 20 years of experience (6%). The majority of the assistant principals taught core content prior to becoming a school administrator (82%), and 18% previously taught elective content. Elementary assistant principals (52%) were represented the most in this study while only two assistant principals came from other settings such as alternative schools, kindergarten through eighth grade schools, or kindergarten through twelfth grade schools. The other assistant principals worked at high schools (28%) and middle schools (16%). Of the assistant principals represented, 70% were from rural schools while 18% were from suburban schools and 12% were from urban schools. Most (46.9%) were from "B" schools based upon CCRPI score while 28.6% were from "C" schools, 14.3% were from "D" schools, and 10.2% were from "A" schools. None of the assistant principals were from failing schools. Table 3 shows the representation of the assistant principal subgroup from the total sample of participants.

Table 3

Assistant Principal Representation

Demographic	*n*	% of Total Subgroup	% of Total Sample
Gender			
Male	24	48.0%	32.9%
Female	26	52.0%	35.6%
Experience			
0 – 3 Years Experience	23	46.0%	31.5%
4 – 20 Years Experience	24	48.0%	32.9%
Over 20 Years Experience	3	6.0%	4.1%
Area			
Core Content Teaching	41	82.0%	56.2%
Elective Content Teaching	9	18.0%	12.3%
Level			
Pre-K/Elementary School	26	52.0%	35.6%
Middle School	8	16.0%	11.0%
High School	14	28.0%	19.2%
Other School	2	4.0%	2.7%
Location			
Rural School	35	70.0%	47.9%
Urban School	6	12.0%	8.2%
Suburban School	9	18.0%	12.3%
CCRPI Score			
"A" School	5	10.2%	6.9%
"B" School	23	46.9%	31.9%
"C" School	14	28.6%	19.4%
"D" School	7	14.3%	9.7%
"F School			

Note. n = 73; Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.

Reliability and Prior Studies

Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for this study and utilized to determine reliability for the two main sections of the survey instrument, the second section containing 21 use of time items, and the third section containing 31 items from the SLSES. The results are displayed in Table 4, and the results indicated strong reliability for both sections of the survey instrument. The combination of the SLSES and use of time items developed in the McBrayer et al. (2018) study resulted in an overall Cronbach's Alpha of 0.94 indicating the instrument effectively measured the leadership self-efficacy and school administrators' use of time. When compared to previous studies such as the original Petridou et al. (2014)

and the McBrayer et al. (2018) study, the current study resulted in measures of internal consistency that ensured a similar and strong amount of reliability.

When the inter-item correlations were analyzed from this study's use of time items, a few of the items within their respective categories of tasks, instructional leadership or school management, had correlation coefficients that were less than 0.30. However, if the items were deleted from the survey results, Cronbach's Alpha did not increase significantly. When the inter-item correlations were analyzed for the SLSES items, a few of the items within their respective categories of tasks and within the eight factors had correlation coefficients that were at or below 0.30. However, no significant increase to Cronbach's Alpha occurred if the items had been removed from this study. Therefore, none of the items were deleted from this study's survey instrument and resulting data.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics

Survey Instrument Section	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	Number of Items
SLSES	0.95	0.95	31
Use of Time	0.88	0.89	21

Note. n = 73.

In the original study that led to the development of the SLSES, the correlations between the eight factors ranged from 0.47 to 0.86 (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 241). Pearson correlations for this study ranged from 0.32 to 0.76 and are displayed in Table 5. When compared to the original study, the current study's findings demonstrated moderate factor correlations suggesting that the factors measured related facets of school leaders' self-efficacy.

Table 5

SLSES Factor Correlations

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Creating an appropriate structure		.69	.51	.70	.43	.59	.69	.51
2. Leading and managing the learning organization			.74	.76	.63	.61	.76	.67
3. School self-evaluation for school improvement				.58	.46	.45	.63	.54
4. Developing a positive climate and managing conflicts					.38	.62	.64	.54
5. Evaluating classroom practices						.32	.48	.46
6. Adhering to community and policy demands							.59	.45
7. Monitoring learning								.69
8. Leadership of CPD – developing others								

Note. n = 73.

In the original study for the development of the SLSES, Cronbach's Alpha ranged from 0.76 to 0.93 for the eight factors of the survey instrument (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 243). For the current study, Cronbach's Alpha ranged from 0.70 to 0.92. Table 6 displays the Cronbach's Alpha results from both studies for comparison. Although reliability statistics were somewhat less than those demonstrated in the original study, their moderate to strong values in conjunction with the review of item correlations warranted continuing with data analyses.

Table 6

Reliability Comparisons

Factor	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha for the Original Study	Cronbach's Alpha for the Current Study
1. Creating an appropriate structure	7	.88	.76
2. Leading and managing the learning organization	7	.88	.87
3. School self-evaluation for school improvement	3	.93	.92
4. Developing a positive climate and managing conflicts	3	.82	.70
5. Evaluating classroom practices	3	.76	.83
6. Adhering to community and policy demands	3	.76	.79
7. Monitoring learning	3	.78	.78
8. Leadership of CPD – developing others	2	.76	.89

Note. n = 73.

Descriptive Statistics from the SLSES

The aggregate mean score for school administrators completing the SLSES portion of the study's instrument was 3.99 out of 5.00 points. This suggested school administrators' confidence in their leadership capabilities was strong (near a 4.00 on the SLSES scale) indicating confidence. The school administrators' highest mean score on the SLSES (4.42) was on making sound decisions based on their professional, ethical, or legal principles. The school administrators averaged their lowest score (3.37) on developing school self-evaluation plans. The mean leadership self-efficacy score for principals was 3.93, and the mean leadership self-efficacy score for assistant principals was 4.10. Tables 7 and 8 provide the aggregate scores on the SLSES for principals and assistant principals, respectively, based upon the subgroups of gender, tenure, teaching experience, school type, school location, and CCRPI score.

Table 7

SLSES Aggregate Scores: Principals

Demographic	Mean	Median	Mode
Gender			
Male	4.15	4.16	3.74[a]
Female	4.04	4.05	4.00
Experience			
0 – 3 Years Experience	4.02	3.97	4.16
4 – 20 Years Experience	4.23	4.13	3.65[a]
Over 20 Years Experience	4.00	4.00	4.00
Area			
Core Content Teaching	4.08	4.05	3.74[a]
Elective Content Teaching			
Level			
Pre-K/Elementary School	4.10	4.15	3.23[a]
Middle School	4.08	3.98	3.81
High School	4.12	4.16	3.74
Other School			
Location			
Rural School	4.09	4.10	3.74
Urban School			
Suburban School	4.15	4.06	3.97[a]
CCRPI Score			
"A" School	4.53	4.53	4.52[a]
"B" School	3.99	4.13	4.16[a]
"C" School	4.16	3.92	3.74[a]
"D" School	4.10	4.03	3.65[a]
"F" School			

Note. n = 73; Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.

[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

Table 8

SLSES Aggregate Scores: Assistant Principals

Demographic	Mean	Median	Mode
Gender			
Male	3.91	3.94	4.06
Female	3.95	3.87	3.68[a]
Experience			
0 – 3 Years Experience	3.78	3.77	3.29[a]
4 – 20 Years Experience	3.99	3.97	4.74
Over 20 Years Experience	4.56	4.36	4.32[a]
Area			
Core Content Teaching	3.91	3.90	4.74
Elective Content Teaching	4.03	4.00	3.26[a]
Level			
Pre-K/Elementary School	3.86	3.87	3.74[a]
Middle School	4.15	3.95	3.68
High School	3.99	4.02	3.26[a]
Other School	3.60	3.60	3.45[a]
Location			
Rural School	3.97	3.94	3.68[a]
Urban School	3.84	3.97	4.00
Suburban School	3.86	3.74	3.26[a]
CCRPI Score			
"A" School	4.28	4.23	3.84[a]
"B" School	3.93	3.84	4.06
"C" School	3.87	3.92	3.74[a]
"D" School	3.81	3.81	3.06[a]
"F" School			

Note. n = 73; Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.
[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

The mean overall SLSES score on items from instructional leadership tasks was 3.95 out of 5.00, the median was 4.00, and the mode was 4.00. The mean overall SLSES score on items from school management tasks was 4.02, the median was 4.00, and the mode was 3.88. The instructional leadership task with the highest mean SLSES score (4.33) was evaluating teacher performance through classroom observation. The instructional leadership task with the lowest mean SLSES score (3.37) was developing school self-evaluation plans. The school management task with the highest mean SLSES score (4.42) was making sound decisions based upon professional, ethical, and legal principles. The school management task with the lowest mean SLSES score (3.75) was managing the school's financial and human resources.

The mean SLSES score for principals on items associated with instructional leadership tasks was 4.06, with a median of 4.07 and a mode of 3.64. The mean SLSES score for assistant principals on instructional leadership tasks was 3.90, with a median of 3.89 and a mode of 4.00. The mean SLSES score for principals on items associated with school management tasks was 4.14, with a median of 4.12 and a mode of 3.41. The mean SLSES score for assistant principals on school management tasks was 3.96, with a median of 3.94 and a mode of 3.88. Tables 9 and 10 display descriptive statistics for the leadership self-efficacy scores of principals and assistant principals for instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

Table 9

SLSES Descriptive Statistics by Instructional Leadership Tasks

Demographic	Principal IL Tasks			AP IL Tasks		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Mean	Median	Mode
Gender						
Male	4.09	4.21	3.64[a]	3.86	3.96	4.00
Female	4.02	4.04	4.00	3.95	3.70	3.36[a]
Experience						
0 – 3 Years Experience	3.97	4.15	3.71[a]	3.79	3.79	4.00
4 – 20 Years Experience	4.20	4.07	3.64[a]	3.94	3.93	3.79[a]
Over 20 Years Experience	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.48	4.29	4.14[a]
Area						
Core Content Teaching	4.05	4.04	3.64[a]	3.89	3.79	3.71[a]
Elective Content Teaching	4.21	4.21	4.21	3.96	4.00	3.14[a]
Level						
Elementary School	4.07	4.14	4.29	3.88	3.79	3.79[a]
Middle School	4.00	3.89	3.79	4.11	4.04	3.29[a]
High School	4.10	4.21	3.64[a]	3.91	4.07	3.14[a]
Other School				3.32	3.32	3.00[a]
Region						
Rural School	4.07	4.15	3.71[a]	3.94	3.86	3.79
Urban School				3.86	4.00	4.00
Suburban School	4.00	4.04	3.64[a]	3.81	3.71	3.14[a]
CCRPI						
"A" School	4.25	4.25	4.21[a]	4.26	4.29	3.79
"B" School	4.00	4.15	4.43	3.91	3.79	3.29
"C" School	4.14	3.89	3.71	3.82	4.00	4.00
"D" School	4.00	3.86	3.64[a]	3.74	3.71	3.71
"F" School						

Note. AP indicates Assistant Principal. IL indicates instructional leadership.
Valid *n* for each role cell varies.
Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.
[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

Table 10

SLSES Descriptive Statistics by School Management Tasks

Demographic	Principal SM Tasks			AP SM Tasks		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Mean	Median	Mode
Gender						
Male	4.19	4.24	3.41[a]	3.95	3.97	3.88[a]
Female	4.06	4.06	3.47[a]	3.98	3.91	3.88
Experience						
0 – 3 Years Experience	4.06	3.94	3.94	3.80	3.88	4.00
4 – 20 Years Experience	4.25	4.35	3.41[a]	4.03	3.97	3.88
Over 20 Years Experience	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.63	4.47	4.41[a]
Area						
Core Content Teaching	4.10	4.06	3.41[a]	3.94	3.88	3.88
Elective Content Teaching	4.80	4.82	4.82	4.09	4.00	3.35[a]
Level						
Elementary School	4.13	4.15	3.41	3.86	3.88	3.88
Middle School	4.15	4.12	3.71[a]	4.19	4.00	4.00
High School	4.14	3.94	3.76[a]	4.05	4.03	3.88
Other School				3.82	3.82	3.82
Region						
Rural School	4.11	3.94	3.41[a]	4.00	4.00	4.00[a]
Urban School				3.82	3.91	3.88[a]
Suburban School	4.28	4.21	4.00[a]	3.90	3.65	3.88
CCRPI						
"A" School	4.76	4.76	4.71[a]	4.29	4.12	3.88[a]
"B" School	3.98	3.94	3.41[a]	3.94	3.94	3.65
"C" School	4.18	3.97	3.76[a]	3.92	3.88	4.00
"D" School	4.19	4.29	3.41[a]	3.86	3.88	3.88
"F" School						

Note. AP indicates Assistant Principal. SM indicates school management.
Valid *n* for each role cell varies.
Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.
[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

The school administrator participants were also scored on the eight factors of the SLSES:

"creating an appropriate structure, leading and managing the learning organization, self-evaluation for

school improvement, developing a positive climate and managing conflicts, evaluating classroom

practices, adhering to community and policy demands, monitoring learning, and leadership of continuing

professional development" (Petridou et al., 2014, p. 237). The mean subscale scores ranged from 3.47 to

4.25 for all school administrators, and the mean subscale scores ranged from 3.59 to 4.26 for principals

and from 3.44 to 4.25 for assistant principals. Similar distributions were evidenced in median and mode

scores. Both principals and assistant principals rated the most confidence by SLSES subscale score in the

factor concerning their ability to evaluate classroom performance. Both groups indicated the least

confidence on the items within the factor concerning school self-evaluation for school improvement.

These results mirrored those of the McBrayer et al. study in that their study noted school administrators

showed the least amount of confidence in the area of school self-evaluation for school improvement

(2018). The mean, median, and mode leadership self-efficacy scores for principals and assistant principals

per each SLSES factor are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

SLSES Subscale Scores

SLSES Factor	All School Administrators			Principals			Assistant Principals		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Mean	Median	Mode	Mean	Median	Mode
1. Creating an appropriate structure	4.05	4.00	4.14	4.11	4.14	4.14[a]	4.02	4.00	4.00
2. Leading and managing the learning organization	4.06	4.00	4.00	4.18	4.00	4.00	4.02	4.00	4.00
3. School self-evaluation for school improvement	3.47	3.67	4.00	3.59	4.00	4.00	3.41	3.33	4.00
4. Developing a positive climate and managing conflicts	4.04	4.00	4.00	4.17	4.00	4.00	3.98	4.00	4.00
5. Evaluating classroom practices	4.25	4.00	4.00	4.26	4.00	4.00	4.24	4.00	4.00
6. Adhering to community and policy demands	3.90	4.00	4.00	4.13	4.00	4.00	3.79	3.83	4.00
7. Monitoring learning	4.09	4.00	4.00	4.25	4.00	4.00	4.01	4.00	4.00
8. Leadership of CPD – developing others	3.82	4.00	4.00	3.96	4.00	4.00	3.75	4.00	4.00

Note. n = 73.
[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

Use of Time Scores

For the use of time portion of the study's survey instrument, the highest mean score for school administrators was 2.73 in student supervision (with 1= less than 10% of the time, 2 = between 10 – 30% of the time, 3 = between 30 – 50% of the time, 4 = more than 50% of the time). School administrators spent the least amount of their time modeling a lesson with a mean of 1.13. Subsequently, the instructional leadership task school administrators spent the most time on was using data to inform decisions (2.71), and the instructional leadership task school administrators spent the least time on was

modeling a lesson (1.13). The school management task school administrators spent the most time on was student supervision (2.73). The school management task school administrators spent the least amount of time on was budgeting and financial management (1.44). School administrators spent more time on school management tasks (2.18) than instructional leadership tasks (1.93). The results for principals and assistant principals were the same for the tasks the school administrators spent the most time on, student supervision (2.73), and the least time on, modeling a lesson (1.12). The instructional leadership task they both spent the most time on was using data to inform decisions, with a mean of 2.69 for principals and 2.71 for assistant principals. The instructional leadership task they both spent the least amount of time on was modeling a lesson, with a mean of 1.12 for both. The school management task they both spent the most time on was student supervision with a mean of 2.73 for both. The school management task they both spent the least amount of time on was budgeting and financial management, with a mean of 1.43 for principals and 1.44 for assistant principals.

When specifically asked about the percentage of their school week spent on instructional leadership tasks, 74% of the school administrators spent less than 50% of their time on instructional leadership tasks while 26% of the school administrators spent over 50% of their time on instructional leadership tasks. Only 22% of the assistant principals spent over 50% of their work week on instructional leadership tasks while 35% of the principals spent over 50% of the time on instructional leadership tasks. When specifically asked about the percentage of their school week spent on school management tasks, 39% of the school administrators spent less than 50% of the time on school management tasks and 61% spent more than 50% of the time on school management tasks. When comparing the use of time of principals and assistant principals, more assistant principals (71%) spent more than half their time on school management tasks than principals (39%). Figure 1 displays the comparison of the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

Figure 1

Time Spent on Instructional Leadership Tasks vs. School Management Tasks

	0 - 25%	25 - 50%	50 - 75%	75 - 100%
☐ School Management Tasks	4	24	32	11
☐ Instructional Leadership Tasks	16	38	17	2
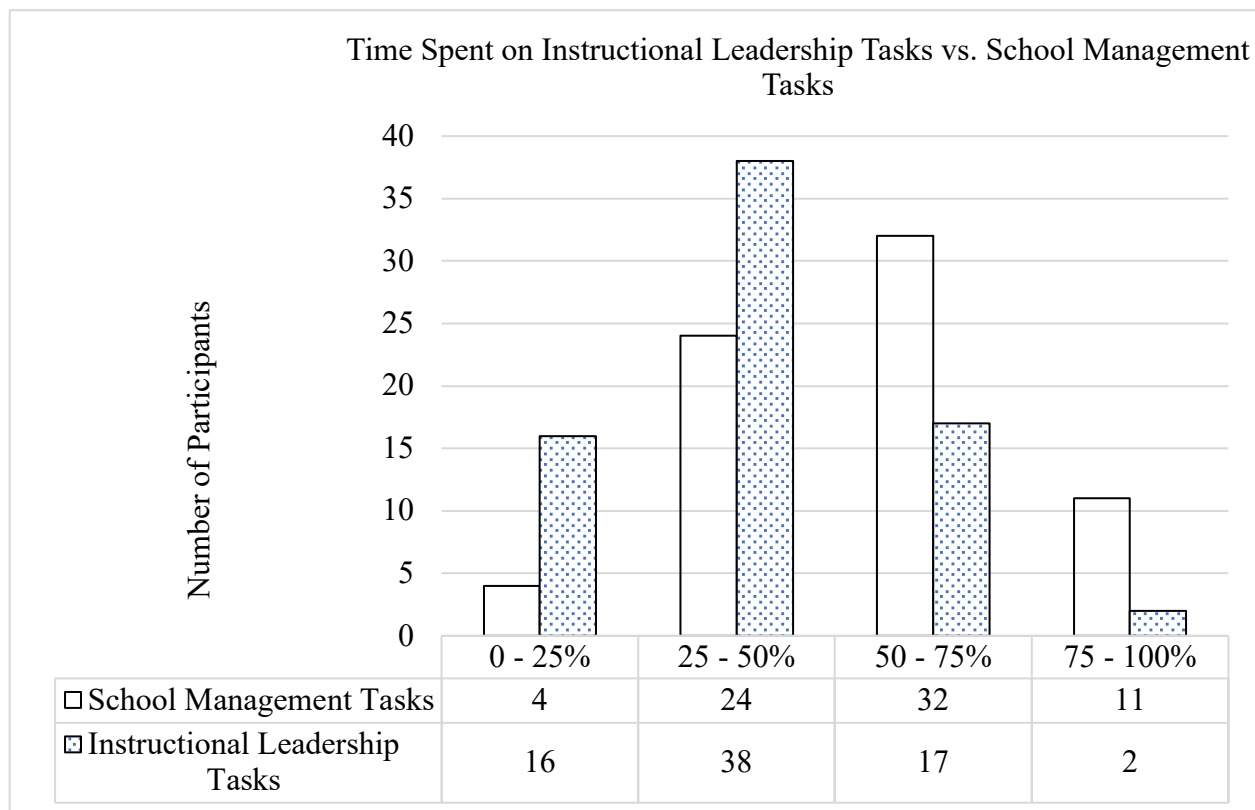
Leadership Self-Efficacy and School Tasks

Research question one purposed to examine the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. The first question of this study asked: What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators? Pearson correlations were calculated in SPSS with the two independent variables, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and the dependent variable, leadership self-efficacy. The Pearson correlation coefficient (r) for overall scores on the SLSES and the leadership self-efficacy scores for instructional leadership tasks was $r = 0.947$. The Pearson correlation coefficient for overall scores on the SLSES and the leadership self-efficacy scores for school management tasks was $r = 0.953$. Both were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$ for a two-tailed test) based on 73 complete observations. The results suggested there

is a positive, linear relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. See Table 12.

Table 12

Task/SLSES Correlations

Administrator Tasks	SLSES
Instructional Leadership	.947
School Management	.953

Note. n = 73. *p* < 0.01.

Principals and Assistant Principals and School Tasks

Research question two was designed to examine the difference in leadership self-efficacy between the two types of school administrators: principals and assistant principals. The second question of this study asked: What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks? To determine the answers to the question, two independent samples *t*-tests were conducted in SPSS with the independent variables, instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and the dependent variable, the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals. The results indicated principals had higher mean SLSES scores on instructional leadership tasks (4.06) and school management tasks (4.14) than the assistant principals' SLSES scores on instructional leadership tasks (3.90) and school management tasks (3.96).

However, although these scores were higher, no statistical significance was found as the *p*-value exceeded 0.05 for each of the tests. Specifically, for the independent samples *t*-test for the SLSES scores and the scores for the instructional leadership tasks, the *p*-value was 0.21. For the independent sample *t*-test for the SLSES scores and the scores for the school management tasks, the *p*-value was 0.11. Thus, based upon the present data, no statistically significant difference between the leadership self-efficacy for the instructional leadership tasks and the school management tasks was found based upon the roles of school administrators.

Leadership Self-Efficacy and School Demographics

The goal of research question three was to explore the differences in the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators across various demographics. Question three of this research study asked: What is the difference in the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location? To answer the question, descriptive statistics of the scores reported by principals and assistant principals were calculated using SPSS and reviewed in the context of school level, years of experience, school CCRPI score, and school location of the school administrators. This data is presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Leadership Self-Efficacy Comparisons

Demographic	Principals			Assistant Principals		
	Mean	Median	Mode	Mean	Median	Mode
Level						
Pre-K/Elementary School	4.10	4.15	3.23[a]	3.86	3.87	3.74[a]
Middle School	4.08	3.98	3.81[a]	4.15	3.95	3.68
High School	4.12	4.16	3.74	3.99	4.02	3.26[a]
Other School				3.60	3.60	3.45
Experience						
0 – 3 Years Experience	4.02	3.97	4.16	3.78	3.77	3.29[a]
4 – 20 Years Experience	4.23	4.13	3.65[a]	3.99	3.97	4.74
Over 20 Years Experience	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.56	4.36	4.32[a]
CCRPI Score						
"A" School	4.53	4.53	4.52[a]	4.28	4.23	3.84[a]
"B" School	3.99	4.13	4.16[a]	3.93	3.84	4.06
"C" School	4.16	3.92	3.74[a]	3.87	3.92	3.74[a]
"D" School	4.10	4.03	3.65[a]	3.81	3.81	3.06[a]
"F" School						
Location						
Rural School	4.09	4.10	3.74[a]	3.97	3.94	3.68[a]
Urban School				3.84	3.97	4.00
Suburban School	4.15	4.06	3.97[a]	3.86	3.74	3.26[a]

Note. n = 73.
Empty cells indicate no participants in the subgroup.
[a] indicates multiple modes were found, the smallest mode is reported here.

High school principals reported the highest mean SLSES score among principals (4.12). The lowest mean SLSES scores reported were from middle school principals (4.08). The median SLSES score for elementary school principals was 4.15, and the median SLSES score for high school principals was 4.16. Middle school assistant principals had the highest mean SLSES score among assistant principals (4.15). The lowest mean SLSES score was elementary assistant principals at 3.86. The high school assistant principals had the highest median SLSES score at 4.02. Principals with between four and 20 years of experience had the highest mean SLSES score (4.23). The lowest mean SLSES score was the

lone principal with over 20 years of experience at 4.00. The highest median SLSES score was 4.02 for principals with between four and 20 years of experience. Assistant principals with more than 20 years of experience had the highest mean SLSES score (4.56). The lowest mean SLSES score was assistant principals with zero to three years of experience (3.78). The highest median SLSES score for assistant principals with four to 20 years of experience was 4.35. Principals at "A" schools had the highest mean SLSES score (4.53). The lowest mean SLSES score for principals was at "B" schools (3.99). The highest median score for principals was at "A" schools (4.53). Assistant principals at "A" schools had the highest mean SLSES score (4.28). Assistant principals at "D" schools had the lowest mean SLSES score (3.81). The median score for assistant principals was highest for "A" schools (4.23). Principals at suburban schools had a higher mean SLSES score (4.15) than rural school principals at 4.09. No urban school principals reported scores. The highest median SLSES score was 4.10 for rural school principals. Assistant principals at rural schools had the highest mean score on the SLSES (3.97). The lowest mean SLSES score was for assistant principals at urban schools (3.84). The urban schools assistant principals had the highest median SLSES score (3.97).

Time Spent on School Tasks

Research question four was designed to analyze use of time data for principals and assistant principals. Question four of this study asked: What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals? To determine the answers to the question, two independent samples *t*-tests were conducted in SPSS with the independent variables, the use of time on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, and the dependent variable, school administrator role. Data from the use of time portion of the study's instrument indicated that principals and assistant principals reported higher mean use of time on school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks. The mean use of time score for on school management tasks was 2.20 for principals and 2.17 for assistant principals (with 1 = less than 10%, 2 = between 10 – 30%, 3 = between 30 – 50%, and 4 = more than 50%). The mean use of time on instructional leadership tasks was 2.04 for principals and 1.88 for assistant principals.

Although the mean use of time on instructional leadership tasks by principals was found to be higher than assistant principals, the *p*-value of 0.262 suggested no statistically significant difference between the means. Similarly, for the use of time on school management tasks by principals and assistant principals, the *p*-value of 0.859 indicated the difference between the means (i.e., principals reporting 2.20 and assistant principals 2.17) was not statistically significant. Thus, no statistically significant difference was found between the use of time on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon school administrator role.

Additional Results from the Study

When the participants of the study were asked about the role they most identified with, instructional leader or school manager, 55.6% of school administrators considered themselves to be instructional leaders while 44.4% of school administrators considered themselves to be school managers. More principals perceived themselves to be instructional leaders (69.6%) than school managers (30.4%). More assistant principals saw themselves as school managers (51%) than instructional leaders (49%). Participants were then asked to state the rationale for their characterization of instructional leader or school manager. Analysis of the qualitative comments yielded multiple common themes. The participants who characterized themselves as instructional leaders reported themes such as: they believed that instructional leadership was their strength
 (36%), they spent more time on instructional leadership tasks (31%), they believed that instructional leadership was their job description and purpose (19%), or they believed that instructional leadership was the most important (14%). The participants who characterized themselves as school managers reported themes such as: they spent most of their time on school management tasks (38%), believed school management was the expectation (32%), they lacked confidence in their instructional leadership skills (8%), or they believed their strength was school management (3%).

Study participants were asked to state the top three instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks they fulfilled the most within their current role. Narrative comments from this open-ended question were analyzed and categorized into common themes. The three most frequently reported

instructional leadership tasks were teacher observations and monitoring instruction (32), observation

feedback/coaching (24), professional learning for teachers (24), and teacher evaluations (23) out of 162

reported instructional leadership tasks. The three most frequently reported school management tasks were

discipline (39), safety and security (19), and personnel management (18) out of 160 reported school

management tasks. Tables 14 and 15 show the lists of all the instructional leadership tasks and school

management tasks stated by the participants, respectively.

Table 14

Instructional Leadership Tasks Most Fulfilled

Task	Frequency
Monitor instruction/observations/program management	32
Plan professional development/facilitate professional learning sessions	24
Feedback from observation/coaching	24
Conduct teacher evaluations using TKES	23
Data collection and analysis	20
Provide teacher resources/curriculum support	8
Review lesson plans	8
Testing coordinator/ Advanced Placement program	7
RTI/SST/MTSS/504 coordinator	6
Scheduling/master schedule	5
School improvement plan	2
Coaching new teachers	1
Professional learning plans	1
Dual enrollment	1

Note. Number of instructional leadership tasks = 162.

Table 15

School Management Tasks Most Fulfilled

Task	Frequency
Student discipline	39
School safety and security	19
Personnel/employee issues/hiring	18
Student supervision/duty	17
Facility/building maintenance	16
Parent conferences/issues	13
Budget/purchasing	7
Student conferences/issues	7
Transportation	7
Teacher attendance/substitute teachers	5
Department and district meetings	3
Paperwork	3
Testing/compliance	2
Athletic director	1
Supplies/inventory	1
Parent involvement	1
Staff morale	1

Note. Number of school management tasks = 160.

Chapter Summary

Of the southeast Georgia school administrators who participated in the survey, most were assistant principals from rural school districts. Most of the participants were also elementary administrators in moderately successful schools and were fairly new to the role. When analyzing measures of internal consistency, the two main portions of the survey instrument used to measure leadership self-efficacy and use of time were shown to be reliable. The participants' overall scores on the SLSES portion of the survey instrument indicated the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators, and the results showed the participants to be confident in their leadership abilities. The administrators' SLSES results disclosed higher leadership self-efficacy for school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks. The use of time results indicated that school administrators spent more time on school management tasks coupled with higher confidence while performing these tasks.

The data resulting from the administration of this study's instrument were analyzed to determine the outcomes related to the overarching research questions. A positive, linear relationship was found

between leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. There was no statistically significant difference between leadership self-efficacy for instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon the role of the school administrator. Also, there was no statistically significant difference between the use of time on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon the role of the school administrator. The next chapter will provide the interpretation of this study's findings and provide future implications for the delegation of tasks for principals and assistant principals within schools.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a discussion of the study's findings with summaries and detailed comparisons of the study's outcomes with prior related studies. This section begins with an overview of the study followed by a discussion of each research question and outcomes, limitations, delimitations, assumptions, implications for practice, recommendations for future research within the field of leadership self-efficacy and school administrators' tasks, and conclusions. The findings from this study will drive the discussion, and the chapter will conclude with a summary of the entire study.

This study's focus on the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators and the impact on leadership self-efficacy is a byproduct of a current focus on school accountability and the influence of school leadership on student achievement (Argon, 2015; Gurley et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2020; Morgan, 2018; Vooren, 2018). The growing attention to school administrators' abilities to complete instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks could influence how the school administrators perceive themselves as school leaders. While school administrators sought to balance the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks effectively, there seemed to be disparities among school administrators' tasks and the amount of time they were able to commit to each type of task.

This study purposed to identify the relationship between the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators and their leadership self-efficacy across multiple demographics. The instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals were analyzed based upon various demographic factors such as school location, school level, years of experience, and CCRPI score to determine the school administrators' level of confidence and use of time. The study of the impact of school tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals led to the following equally weighted research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators?

2. What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks?

3. What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location?

4. What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals?

To answer the research questions and fulfill the purpose of the study, a quantitative, cross-sectional research design was utilized with the administering of a survey to principals and assistant principals from southeast Georgia school districts. The survey was comprised of leadership self-efficacy items from the SLSES and use of time items from the McBrayer et al. study (2018), and all items were based upon instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. The first section of the survey collected the demographic information (gender identity, type of school administrator, school location, school type, school CCRPI score) of each participating school administrator. The second section of the survey collected the use of time data of the study's participants by allowing the school administrators to rate their frequency of instructional leadership task completion and school management task completion. The third section of the survey collected leadership self-efficacy data by allowing the school administrators to rate their level of confidence completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. The last section of the survey collected data on the school administrators' characterization of their leadership role and additional data on the frequency and types of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks completed within their current role.

The survey was completed electronically by 73 practicing principals and assistant principals across multiple demographics. The data collected were analyzed using SPSS and multiple statistical tests, including independent sample *t*-tests and correlations. The data analysis outcomes were utilized to answer the research questions and determine the impact of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals. The results yielded findings that

were beneficial to answer the research questions and beneficial to the implications of the study and future research within the field.

Over half of the study's participants were assistant principals, and most were elementary school administrators from rural districts. There was almost an equal amount of male and female administrator representation, and most of the participants were from moderately to high-achieving schools based upon CCRPI rating. There was almost an equal amount of new and veteran school administrators represented in this study. On the leadership self-efficacy portion of the study's instrument, the mean overall score was 3.99 indicating the school administrators' confidence in their leadership abilities. This score was lower than the mean overall score of 4.1 for the school administrators participating in the McBrayer et al. study (2018) using the same items from the SLSES. However, both scores in these comparison studies indicated school administrators' overall confidence in their ability to lead schools while completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

Because principals are considered to be the site-based leader of the entire school, it was expected that principals would have a higher rating a confidence in their leadership than assistant principals who served alongside them. However, when comparing the leadership self-efficacy of principals to assistant principals, the mean leadership self-efficacy score for assistant principals was 0.17 points higher than the mean score for principals. This outcome led to further disaggregation of mean leadership self-efficacy scores by instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of principals and assistant principals. When comparing the leadership self-efficacy scores per the types of tasks, principals had a higher leadership self-efficacy score on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks than assistant principals. Therefore, principals in this study had more confidence in their abilities to lead while completing both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks than the assistant principals. This both mirrored and contrasted the results of a previous study of Miami-Dade County principals who rated themselves as most effective on school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

Differences in the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals were found in the outcomes of the survey data; therefore, differences were anticipated when the use of time data were analyzed for the participants of the study. Similar to the McBrayer et al. study (2018), the current findings showed that the participating school administrators spent more time on school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks. However, a small percentage of principals were able to commit over 50% of their time to instructional leadership tasks. The current study found that 35% of the principals spent over half of their time on instructional leadership tasks. The amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks by principals was a contrast to previous studies of principals who spent the majority of their time completing school management tasks (Horng et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2020; Parson et al., 2016). The assistant principals in the current study spent over half of their time completing school management tasks. This finding was similar to previous studies of principals and assistant principals that concluded that principals completed most of the instructional leadership tasks while the assistant principals fulfilled mostly school management tasks (Leaf &Odhiambo, 2017; Morgan, 2018).

The aforementioned outcomes concerning the time committed to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals led to the assumption that principals would characterize themselves as instructional leaders while assistant principals would characterize themselves as school managers. Over half of the participating school administrators perceived themselves as instructional leaders while the study's participants were mostly assistant principals. However, more of the principals saw themselves as instructional leaders while the assistant principals perceived themselves to be school managers as expected.

Research Question One

The first research question asked: What is the relationship between the leadership self-efficacy and instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators? The outcome showed a positive, linear relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. The leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and the types of tasks they complete moved in tandem. The data showed leadership self-

efficacy increased or decreased as the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks increased or decreased, respectively. This finding is similar to a previous study's finding of school administrators' leadership self-efficacy increasing as their use of time completing instructional leadership tasks increased (McBrayer et al., 2018). The findings also mirrored those of a study that showed that assistant principals who spent the least amount of time on instructional leadership tasks reported the least amount of leadership self-efficacy among school administrators (Morgan, 2018). These results provided additional support to the study on leadership tasks and leadership effectiveness of school administrators previously conducted which showed how school leader confidence increased with a balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks fulfilled by principal and assistant principals (Grissom & Loeb, 2011).

Because the outcome showed a linear relationship between instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and leadership self-efficacy, it is possible that the balance of the two types of leadership tasks completed by principals and assistant principals empowered the school leaders toward greater effectiveness within each role. Therefore, the study's findings added more support to a previous study's argument that the fulfillment of both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks is vital to the effectiveness of the role of the school administrator (Lemoine et al., 2014). Based upon the current study's findings, it is possible that school administrators' confidence in their ability to lead is enhanced by their increased experience with instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. It could also be assumed that their confidence in their leadership capabilities could be diminished by less experience with instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. In a previous study, the researchers found school administrators perceived themselves as more effective with school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks and less effective with instructional leadership tasks than school management tasks, and they also completed more school management tasks than instructional leadership tasks (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). For school administrators to view themselves as effective leaders and possess strong leadership self-efficacy, the current study's findings showed it is possible that a balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks is needed.

Research Question Two

The second research question asked: What is the difference between the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks? The outcomes determined there was no statistically significant difference between the leadership self-efficacy for the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks that school administrators completed based upon their roles. Therefore, any differences or similarities in leadership self-efficacy based upon the types of tasks fulfilled by principals and assistant principals were potentially by chance or by a factor not examined in this study. These findings provided support for the argument that the delegation of instructional leadership tasks to one school administrator and school management tasks to the other school administrator would neither lessen nor decrease the effectiveness of the two roles (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017). The researchers found that when principals were responsible for completing instructional leadership tasks and assistant principals were responsible for completing school management tasks, the principal and assistant principal deemed the delegation of these tasks as vital to the effective organization of the school without a negative impact on their leadership self-efficacy (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017).

Even though the current study found principals to have higher leadership self-efficacy with instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks than assistant principals, it is possible that the differences were not due to just their roles as principals and assistant principals. The school administrators' roles in this study did not determine their leadership self-efficacy when completing instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. If any similarities or differences surfaced, there was no specific explanation for the outcomes. Therefore, the school administrators' roles and types of tasks were not solely responsible for the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators. This is in contrast to the McBrayer et al. (2018) study which found that the more time spent on instructional leadership tasks, the higher the leadership self-efficacy for principals and assistant principals. The findings are also different from a study of Canadian assistant principals which found that the assistant principals who were given mostly school management tasks, instead of the desired instructional

leadership tasks, had lower leadership self-efficacy scores (Mitchell et al., 2017). The finding also contradicted a study that determined assistant principals had lower leadership self-efficacy on instructional leadership tasks when they completed less instructional leadership tasks (Morgan, 2018). Other previous studies also claimed that school administrators' perceptions of their leadership abilities and role definitions were attributed to the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks (Morgan, 2018; Muse & Abram, 2011; Oleszewski et al., 2012). The current study does not support these previous findings for the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals and the relationship to the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

Research Question Three

The third research question asked: What is the difference in leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals relative to school level, the experience of school administrators, CCRPI score, and school location? The school levels represented by the school administrators in the study were elementary, middle and high school. The high school principals had the highest mean score on the SLSES for the principals who participated in the study. High school principals made up 6.8% of the total sample of school administrators and 21.7% of the principals who participated. The middle school assistant principals had the highest mean leadership self-efficacy score for the assistant principals who participated in the study. Middle school assistant principals made up 11% of the total sample of school administrators and 16% of the assistant principals who participated.

Some earlier studies showed strong overall leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals at each school level (McBrayer et al., 2018; Muse & Abrams, 2011). However, one study compared the leadership self-efficacy of school principals across multiple school levels and found no differences between the school principals' ratings of their effectiveness (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). This contradicts the findings of the current study comparing the leadership self-efficacy of elementary, middle, and high school principals and assistant principals. Based upon the current study, it is possible that high

school principals and middle school assistant principals are the most confident in their leadership capabilities.

Experienced principals with between four and 20 years of service within the role had the highest mean leadership self-efficacy score. Therefore, it is likely that veteran principals are more confident in their ability to lead schools than novice principals. These findings contradict a previous study where new principals with less than four years of experience had higher leadership self-efficacy than veteran principals with more experience (Fisher, 2014). Assistant principals with over 20 years of experience had the highest mean leadership self-efficacy score with assistant principals with four to 20 years of experience having the next highest mean self-efficacy score. Assistant principals with over 20 years of experience made up only 4.1% of the total sample and 6% of the assistant principals who participated in the study. Therefore, the more years of experience as an assistant principal could result in stronger confidence in leadership capabilities.

Both principals and assistant principals from "A" schools had the highest mean SLSES score, and only 8.7% of the principals were from "A" schools and only 10.2% of the assistant principals were from "A" schools. Therefore, it appeared that school administrators from high-performing schools had the greatest confidence in their leadership abilities. These findings are supported by previous studies on the relationship between leadership self-efficacy and a focus on school performance. One study found that leadership self-efficacy positively impacted school performance (McCullers & Bozeman, 2010). Another study determined that the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators indirectly impacted the student achievement within schools (Airola et al., 2014). While suburban principals were 17.4% of the principals represented in the study, they had the highest mean leadership self-efficacy score among principals. Rural principals had the lowest mean leadership self-efficacy score, similar to a previous study of 292 rural principals with 22% rating their leadership self-efficacy low (Versland, 2013). In another study of rural school principals, their perception of their leadership capabilities mirrored the results of the current study due to their decreased perception of their instructional leadership based upon the completion of less instructional leadership tasks (Parson et al., 2016). While assistant principals from rural schools were

70% of the assistant principals represented in the study, they had the highest mean leadership self-efficacy score among assistant principals. It appeared that the most confident principals were from suburban schools while the most confident assistant principals were from smaller, rural schools.

Research Question Four

The last question asked: What is the difference in the use of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals? The outcomes showed there was no statistically significant difference between the time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon school administrator role. Even though the principals in this study spent more time on instructional leadership tasks than assistant principals and assistant principals spent more time on school management tasks than principals, it could not be assumed that the use of time disparities were solely attributed to the differences in school administrators' roles. Any differences or similarities in the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals could only be explainable by chance or a factor not examined in this study.

An earlier study on the tasks of school administrators found that school management interruptions were the cause of decreased time spent on instructional leadership tasks by principals and assistant principals (Hallinger & Murphy, 2012). These findings contradicted the current study's outcome. However, the current study's findings are supported by a previous study's determination that the imbalance of instructional leadership and school management task completion by principals and assistant principals was not due to a lack of time or daily interruptions (Sebastian et al., 2018). Additional studies found that differences in the roles of school administrators attributed to the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Some studies found school principals spent most of their time on school management tasks than any other tasks (Horng et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2020; Parson et al., 2016). Other studies found that assistant principals completed mostly school management tasks while principals completed mostly instructional leadership tasks (Hilliard & Newsome, 2013; Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017; Morgan, 2018). While previous studies found differences in the completion of

instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks by principals and assistant principals due to factors such as time management and role delegation, the current study did not support those findings. The current study found the role of the school administrator, principal or assistant principal, did not determine the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

The participants of the study were practicing school administrators from one region of the state of Georgia. Although the survey instrument was sent to 302 school administrators, only 73 completed the instrument for a low response rate for the study. This impacted the sample size of practicing principals and assistant principals and created another possible limitation. While school administrators from 17 counties were implored to participate in the study, the largest urban school district in southeast Georgia was not included due to lack of access to the school administrators' electronic contact information. This prohibited the inclusion of multiple urban schools and an abundance of principals and assistant principals currently practicing across multiple demographics. The lack of urban school participation influenced the transferability and generalizability of the study's findings. These findings are representative of a small portion of rural and suburban school districts; however, they may not be representative of the leadership tasks and leadership self-efficacy of school administrators in urban school districts and across the entire state.

Administering a leadership self-efficacy scale to principals and assistant principals requires the school administrators to practice self-reflection of their current leadership skills and task completion. Therefore, another possible limitation was the dependency upon the school administrators' candor when providing a subjective analysis of their leadership task completion and leadership self-efficacy. This could have compromised the authenticity of the school administrators' responses to the items on the study's survey instrument. Lastly, the amount and types of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks included in the survey instrument for this study could have been a limitation. When rating their leadership self-efficacy and completion time on instructional leadership tasks and school management

tasks, participants were limited to the selection of items based upon the research of the creators of each portion of the survey.

While the daily operations of the schools are divided between principals and assistant principals, it is assumed that both have experience with both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Therefore, it was assumed that all school administrators would be knowledgeable enough to speak to the fulfillment of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks per the survey instrument used for this study. Knowledge of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and school administrators' confidence in their ability to lead should have been apparent for all participating school administrators from each level of experience and each grade level represented.

Implications for Practice

The results of the study could be vital to the future success of principals and assistant principals and their direct and indirect impact on student achievement and school improvement. The leadership self-efficacy outcomes based upon the administering of the SLSES to study participants could drive the professional learning content for principals and assistant principals on the district level. To increase the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators, school districts could complete an item analysis each time the SLSES is administered to determine which specific tasks, both instructional leadership and school management, are rated the lowest. Professional learning content for principals and assistant principals could be built around the tasks that are rated with the lowest confidence levels.

While school administrators had a higher leadership self-efficacy when completing school management tasks, they also spent more time completing school management tasks and less time completing instructional leadership tasks. The success of the school is dependent upon the school administrators' ability to perform both types of tasks efficiently and effectively. To perform proficiently within both types of tasks, school administrators are looking to seek a balance between their use of time on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. Assistant principals seem to also desire more experience with instructional leadership tasks than they have previously either had time to do or be permitted to do. School district leaders could possibly work with principals and assistant principals to

streamline the delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure the balance of these tasks for all school administrators. If the balance were to become a part of the administrative leadership culture, the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators could be positively impacted while student achievement and school improvement are enhanced and in turn, fill a leadership gap.

The outcomes of this study could be used to assist school district administrators, principals, and assistant principals with the distribution and delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. If it is common practice for district administrators to determine the distribution of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to principals and assistant principals, the findings from this study could influence the redistribution of the types of tasks based upon needs to balance the use of time of school administrators and the desire to enhance their leadership self-efficacy. Principals delegate school tasks to their assistant principals, and the findings of this study could influence the fair and balanced delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to ensure the proper preparation of assistant principals for the principalship in the future.

The results of this study could also drive the content for school districts' leadership preparation programs that grow future potential principals and assistant principals from their own school leaders within the district. Knowing the types of tasks most school administrators fulfill and how the completion of the tasks relates to their leadership self-efficacy, could empower the instructors delivering the content to focus more on the specific needs of the school administrators within the district. The instrument used for this study, which combined the SLSES with use of time items based upon instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, could be beneficial to annual summative evaluations of school administrators. The use of this instrument and its results could drive discussions between evaluators and school administrators concerning their leadership self-efficacy and use of time on specific tasks based upon the previous school year while planning the delegation of tasks for the next school year.

The study could impact the role of the school administrator and school improvement in multiple ways. Schools could be granted additional resources in the form of support staff or more assistant

principals to ensure the opportunities for principals and assistant principals to balance and complete instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. School district officials and school administrators could also become more intentional concerning the distribution and delegation of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to principals and assistant principals based upon the leadership self-efficacy and desired use of time of the school administrators. Assigning principals and assistant principals tasks based upon their enhanced confidence levels could prove to be beneficial to the entire school environment. This level of support could enhance the preparation of assistant principals for future roles as principals and positively impact student achievement and school improvement.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study was conducted with school administrators from school districts within southeast Georgia communities. First, to increase the sample size and broaden the representation of school administrators, the study could be conducted with school administrators from an entire state, a region of the United States, or across the entire country. This would afford researchers the opportunity to have larger numbers of principals and assistant principals within each demographic subgroup. With a larger, broader sample size, more attention could be given to the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks and leadership self-efficacy of school administrators within specific demographic subgroups. Second, additional demographic factors, including socioeconomic status and school size, could also be considered to determine their potential impact on leadership self-efficacy and use of time of school administrators.

The third recommendation for future research would change the research design to allow for deeper analysis of the topic. The current study was conducted using a cross-sectional survey design. Future research on this topic using a longitudinal design would be beneficial. If leadership self-efficacy and use of time could be studied using one sample over an extended period of time, researchers would get the opportunity to compare and contrast leadership self-efficacy scores and time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to better determine any additional factors impacting school

administrators and their confidence in their ability to lead and their use of time fulfilling job tasks. The last part of the instrument utilized for this study included two open-ended questions related to the types of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks participants completed the most within their role. These questions gave participants the opportunity to share instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks that may not have been included within the survey instrument. Future researchers could gain more specific contextual data if a qualitative approach was used for a study on the leadership self-efficacy and use of time of school administrators.

Conclusion

Based upon the outcomes of the study, multiple conclusions of the impact of the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks on principals and assistant principals can be drawn relative to their use of time and leadership self-efficacy. While there was no statistically significant difference between the leadership self-efficacy for the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks based upon the roles of school administrator, there was a linear relationship between leadership self-efficacy and the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks of school administrators. This means the types of tasks and the specific role of the school administrator might not determine the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals. However, leadership self-efficacy could possibly increase or decrease dependent upon the increase or decrease of the instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks completed. The results could possibly support the notion of a need for the balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks to enhance the effectiveness of principals and assistant principals.

While the amount of time spent completing instructional leadership tasks was lower for school administrators than the amount of time spent completing school management tasks, the amount of time spent on specific tasks within each category did not differ much dependent upon the role of the school administrator. However, when the participants were asked about the percentage of their school week spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks, there were differences between the amount of time spent on each type of tasks by principals and assistant principals. It appeared that the

principals were able to spend more time on instructional leadership tasks than the assistant principals. Most of the assistant principals spent over half of their time each week completing school management tasks. It seemed the principals were still afforded more opportunities to fulfill instructional leadership tasks than assistant principals. There still seemed to be no balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks between principals and assistant principals.

Although the results of the survey indicated that the school administrators perceived themselves to be mostly instructional leaders, they spent most of their time completing school management tasks. Once the data were disaggregated further, the school administrators' perceptions were more aligned with their reported use of time. The participants seemed to realize the imbalance of their instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks in their daily work within their roles. Of the assistant principals who participated in this study, 51% saw themselves as school managers, and this perception seemed to be verified based upon the amount of time spent on school management tasks. Of the principals who participated in this study, 69.6% saw themselves as instructional leaders, and this perception seemed to be verified based upon the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks.

Chapter Summary

The enhanced emphasis on school performance based upon state evaluations such as Georgia's CCRPI is ongoing and has the attention of school stakeholders as school administrators work to lead their schools to success. The goals of showing student growth and school improvement annually while balancing the completion of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks had the potential to impact the leadership self-efficacy of the school administrators working onsite. This study sought to determine the impact on the leadership self-efficacy of principals and assistant principals and provide implications applicable to practice and recommendations for future research within the field.

With study participants of practicing principals and assistant principals, this study found a positive relationship between the leadership self-efficacy of school administrators and their instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks. This finding provided support to the notion of a needed balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for principals and assistant

principals. However, the study also showed that the roles of the school administrators, principals and assistant principals, and their assigned tasks were not solely responsible for the leadership self-efficacy of the principals and assistant principals. As far as the use of time of principals and assistant principals was concerned, the specific role of the school administrator did not determine the amount of time spent on instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

The outcomes led to implications for future district principal preparation programs and other content-specific professional learning designed for principals and assistant principals. District officials are implored to utilize leadership self-efficacy scales to incorporate leadership content on specific instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks that are a concern for the principals and assistant principals practicing within the schools. School administrators are also encouraged to provide a balance of instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks when assigning role responsibilities. Due to a small sample size and the need for more contextual data within the field of leadership self-efficacy and the tasks of school administrators, future researchers are charged with expanding this type of study to include an entire state, region, or country and utilizing a qualitative research design for additional details related to the topic. School administrators, principals and assistant principals, want to be effective in both instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks for enhanced student achievement and school improvement. With growing attention to their leadership self-efficacy and the factors potentially impacting it, all school stakeholders could benefit from the effective leadership of school administrators as they efficiently balance and fulfill instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SELF-EFFICACY AND USE OF TIME SURVEY

Q1 Indicate your current role:

- Principal

- Assistant Principal

Q2 Indicate your gender identity:

- Man

- Woman

- Non-binary

- Other, please describe:

Q3 How many years have you served in your current role?

- 0 - 3 years

- 4 - 20 years

- Over 20 years

Q4 Prior to educational leadership, indicate your previous teaching experience:

- Core content teaching (ELA, math, science, social studies, foreign language)

- Elective content teaching

- No classroom teaching experience

Q5 Indicate your current work setting:

- Pre-K or Elementary (grades P - 5)

- Middle (grades 6 - 8)

- High (grades 9 - 12)

- Other (e.g. 6-12 alternative setting, K-12 school, or K-8 school)

Q6 Indicate your school's demographic location:

- Rural

- Urban

- Suburban

Q7 Indicate your school's 2018-2019 College Career Readiness Performance Index (CCRPI) score:

- A (90 - 110)
- B (80 - 89.9)
- C (70 - 79.9)
- D (60 - 69.9)
- F (0 - 59.9)

Q8 What percentage of your school week is spent on instructional leadership responsibilities (work associated with teaching and learning)?

- 0 - 25%
- 25 - 50%
- 50 - 75%
- 75- 100%

Q9 What percentage of your school week is spent on school management responsibilities (work necessary to maintain organizational stability)?

- 0 - 25%
- 25 - 50%
- 50 - 75%
- 75 - 100%

Q10 How frequently do you complete these tasks in your current role (IL = Instructional Leadership Task and SM = School Management Task)?

	Less than 10%	Between 10%-30%	Between 30%-50%	More than 50%
Conferencing with students and parents concerning discipline, attendance, etc. (SM)				
Administrative duties such as completing paperwork and taking/returning phone calls (SM)				
Employee management (hiring, conferencing, discipline, etc.) (SM)				
Budgeting and financial management (SM)				
Planning, gathering and dispersing information (SM)				
Student discipline (SM)				
Student supervision (SM)				
Building and facility management (SM)				
District meetings (SM)				
Developing and managing curriculum and instructional programs (IL)				
Teacher evaluations (IL)				
Using data to inform decisions (IL)				
Creating and revising the master schedule (IL)				
Reviewing lesson plans (IL)				
Reviewing instructional materials (IL)				
Planning and implementing professional development for teachers (IL)				
Modeling a lesson (IL)				
Enhancing your own professional development (workshops, educational literature, etc.) (IL)				
Supervising instruction (IL)				
Providing feedback (IL)				
Parent conversations concerning teaching and learning (IL)				

Q11 In your current role, please indicate how confident you are in each SLSES item below (IL = Instructional Leadership Task; SM = School Management Task):

	Not at All Confident	Not Confident	Somewhat Confident	Confident	Very Confident
Making sound decisions based on professional, ethical, and legal principles (SM)					
Managing and organizing the school environment efficiently and effectively to ensure that it meets the needs of the curriculum (IL)					
Managing and organizing the school environment efficiently and effectively to ensure that it meets the needs of health and safety regulations (SM)					
Managing the schools financial and human resources effectively and efficiently to achieve the schools educational goals and priorities (SM)					
Creating and maintaining effective partnerships with parents, caregivers and other agencies to support and improve pupils' achievement and personal development (SM)					
Managing my own workload and that of others to allow an appropriate life work balance (SM)					
Cooperating and working with relevant agencies to ensure and protect the welfare of the children of my school (SM)					
Motivating my staff to work effectively and efficiently (IL)					
Taking appropriate action when performance (mine and my staffs') is unsatisfactory (SM)					

	Not at All Confident	Not Confident	Somewhat Confident	Confident	Very Confident
Adapting my leadership style according to the situation I am faced with (SM)					
Delegating management tasks to my staff appropriately (SM)					
Monitoring the implementation of management tasks I delegate to my staff (SM)					
Ensuring that learning is at the center of strategic planning and resource management (IL)					
Encouraging my staff to actively participate in decision making (SM)					
Developing school self-evaluation plans (IL)					
Implementing school self-evaluation plans (IL)					
Using school self-evaluation data to support school improvement projects (IL)					
Managing and resolving conflicts and disagreements in a positive and constructive manner to minimize negative impact (SM)					
Developing a school climate which enables everyone to work collaboratively (share knowledge and understanding, celebrate success and accept responsibility for outcomes) (SM)					
Developing a collaborative climate between the school and external agencies (ministry, community, parents) (SM)					
Evaluating teacher performance through classroom observations (IL)					
Providing feedback to teachers on their performance following classroom observation (IL)					

	Not at All Confident	Not Confident	Somewhat Confident	Confident	Very Confident
Using research evidence to inform teaching and learning (IL)					
Ensuring that school practices comply with ministerial circulars and state policies (SM)					
Ensuring that school practices reflect community needs (SM)					
Explaining to staff and parents how the decisions in the school are related to state and national institutions and politics (SM)					
Systematically monitoring student performance (IL)					
Monitoring the effectiveness of classroom practice and promote its impact on student performance (IL)					
Effectively using the available school infrastructure to enhance student and staff learning (IL)					
Developing effective strategies for newly qualified staff induction and professional development (IL)					
Developing effective strategies for staff continuing professional development (IL)					

Q12 Which of these roles do you most identify with?

- Instructional leader
- School manager

Q13 Why do you consider yourself to be an instructional leader or school manager?

Q14 State the top three instructional leadership tasks you fulfill the most within your current role:

Q15 State the top three school management tasks you fulfill the most within your current role:

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INVITATION EMAIL

Dear School Administrator,

My name is Torri Jackson, and I am leading a research project and quantitative study examining the leadership self-efficacy of school principals and assistant principals and the impact of instructional leadership and school management tasks. This project is in partial fulfillment of the requirements set forth by Georgia Southern University to earn a Doctorate in Educational Administration. I invite you, a Georgia school administrator, to participate in this survey.

In this anonymous, online survey distributed using *Qualtrics*™, you will be asked to respond to questions regarding your daily instructional leadership tasks and school management tasks per your school administrative role. The survey is voluntary and should take up to 10 minutes to complete, and participants have the right to inquire about the content of the survey, skip survey questions as desired, or opt-out of the survey at any time. If you choose to participate, please complete the survey with the understanding that your completion serves as informed consent. Survey participation has minimal risks, no more than those associated with daily life experiences, and the data collected will be held confidential to only be shared with a Georgia Southern University College of Education Dissertation Committee.

As a participant in this study, you may ask questions regarding the study and have those questions answered by the researcher and committee members. Should you have any questions, comments, or concerns regarding the research study, please contact me, Torri Jackson, at torri_m_jackson@georgiasouthern.edu or my faculty advisor, Dr. Juliann Sergi McBrayer at jmcbrayer@georgiasouthern.edu. If the survey or a question causes any discomfort at any time, please contact Dr. McBrayer or me using the aforementioned contact information. If you have questions concerning your rights as a research participant, contact the Georgia Southern University Office of Research Integrity at irb@georgiasouthern.edu. This project has been reviewed and approved by the GSU Institutional Review Board under tracking number H20228.

I thank you in advance for your participation in this research study on the impact of instructional leadership and school management tasks on leadership self-efficacy. The survey can be accessed at the following link:https://georgiasouthern.co1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_eFdnTikPeEIywvz.

Sincerely,
Torri Jackson