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A Message from the Editor

Frederick Dembowski
Southeastern Louisiana University

In this edition of the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* readers are presented with information pertaining to a variety of issues in higher education. The edition contains research and best practice articles, including the conclusion of Gary Martin's two-part article from the last issue, as well as two book reviews. The lead article "Self-Efficacy Development in School Leaders: An Alternate Paradigm," by Diane Ketelle provides a model for helping students in administrator training programs develop self-efficacy. The author shows how she attempted to do this through an assignment, and shares her findings.

The second article, "Gender, Politics and the ISLLC Standards: A Closer Look" by Carol Engler and Carla Edlefsen, reports the findings of their research to determine how much knowledge of the ISLLC standards educational administration graduate students possess. Their study reveals a difference in the knowledge reported by female and male participants.

In the last research article, "What Knowledge Matters Most to On-the-Job School Administrators in Florida?," Carol Mullen surveys new school administrators to discover issues they are facing. She investigates the appropriation of their time to determine

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A Message from the Editor

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where new administrators are spending too much or not investing enough time, as well as the level of importance they assign to particular functions of their job. The study explores “salient work that beginning administrators currently perform” and provides “suggestions for improving university preparation programs.”

Judith Zimmerman poses the question “Are Weapons Searches in the Job Descriptions of Instructional Leaders?” in her article which brings to attention changing duties of school principals that were not faced by previous generations. The article reports observations made during time spent with a current high school principal.

Gary Martin concludes his two-part article “How to Stop Dealing with the Same Types of Problems Day after Day.” This section looks at types of leadership and group processes as they apply to problem solving and/or prevention. This article raises some interesting questions that leaders need to ask in everyday decision making.

The first book review by William Leary is *Making the Most of College*. This book reports the findings of an extended study at Harvard University. The study began in 1986 out of former Harvard president Derek Bok’s desire to find “ways to judge what exactly students at Harvard were learning, and how to better assess both programs and faculty to determine the degree of success of student programs and student learning.” Bok’s successors supported the program until completion. Author Richard Light reports findings and provides recommendations in this book.

In their review of the book *Introduction to Educational Leadership and Organizational Behavior*, Daniel Gutmore and Charles P. Mitchell state that this “text is well-timed to take advantage of the current press to make more effective use of the practical expertise of adjuncts and thus add balance to education administration preparation.” The reviewers propose that this text is an excellent contribution to the field of leadership studies.

Self-Efficacy Development in School Leaders: An Alternate Paradigm

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Abstract

Although self-efficacy is an area of self-cognition that has been well explored in psychology, teacher education and business management, it has not been investigated or related to school leadership. In this article the author presents an example of how her administrative credential students developed greater efficacy perceptions through a leadership assignment. The author suggests that the success of the assignment has implications for leadership preparation curriculum development.

Although self-efficacy is an area of self-cognition that has been well explored in psychology, teacher education and business management, it has not been investigated or related to school leadership. Self-efficacy is the belief that one has the personal capabilities and resources to meet the demands of a specific task (Bandura, 1977). Typically leadership theories focus on traits, innate abilities, established positions of authority and leadership styles (Rost, 1991). School leadership programs are often highly prescriptive and tend to encourage “untested principles of practice, war stories and non-theoretically grounded prescriptions” (Murphy, 1992, p. 182).

In contrast, leadership self-efficacy influences how a novice leader will consider leading, and falls outside the traditional way of studying leadership. The tendency to promote prescriptive preparation fails to fully address the leadership demands placed on novice school leaders. Because it appears that self-efficacy enhances work performance in general, extending self-efficacy development to school leadership seems necessary; inquiry into this topic appears to be warranted.

Research focused on self-efficacy theory has found that personal efficacy influences people’s choices and goals, their hopes and aspirations, how much effort they exert and how long they will persist in the face of difficulties and disappointments (Maurer, 2001). Other findings have focused on whether an individual experiences self-hindering or self-aiding thinking, how well a person responds to difficult circumstances and how resilient a person is in the face adversity (Bandura, 1977). It is interesting to acknowledge that individuals who experience success in leadership positions are similarly described (Bass, 1990). Locke (1991)

notes that effective leadership has been characterized as evidencing high commitment, determination, resilience, goals focus, resourcefulness and strong problem-solving skills.

Bandura (1986) identified four major categories of experiences that influence the development of efficacy. The first relates to personal performance accomplishments. Research indicates that finding success in challenging leadership activities influence a person’s efficacy beliefs. The second category involves vicarious experiences, or exposure to models. By observing skills in others it is possible for people to enhance their own skills. The third category is positive feedback or the encouragement of a coach or mentor. The final category is physiological condition and mood states. The better an individual feels physically and emotionally, the more efficacious that individual will feel.

Teacher self-efficacy, or a teacher’s belief in her effectiveness, has been widely studied and some of the implications of that research could be related to training school leaders. The RAND Corporation in the 1970s found a link between teacher efficacy and student achievement (Armor, et al., 1976). Since that early study, teacher self-efficacy has been associated with motivation, teacher innovations, administrator ratings of teacher competence, teachers’ classroom management strategies and time spent on teaching certain tasks and referrals to special education (Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000). In school leadership implementing innovations is particularly important and research suggests, at least with teachers, that building self-efficacy can increase ability to innovate. After all, we know that high efficacy teachers are open to change because they feel they can impact what occurs in the classroom (Johnson, Wallace and Thompson, 1999). Two constructs that have been iden-

tified in the literature are General Teaching Efficacy (GTE) which is determined by an individual's internal and external sense of ability to teach, and Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE) which reflects a teacher's degree of confidence in his or her teaching ability (Flores, Desjean-Perrotta and Steinmetz, 2004). GTE and PTE may also have applicability to school leadership preparation. Building a sense of personal ability to lead, along with a belief in one's leadership ability seems important for a novice leader.

It has been argued that self-efficacy is a necessary factor contributing to successful teaching. It is interesting that such inquiry has not been extended to school leadership and raises the question: How do leadership efficacy perceptions develop? This paper outlines one example of a reflective assignment given to students in an administrator preparation program. The example is used to illustrate the need to emphasize the development of self-efficacy in novice administrators.

Developing Self-Efficacy in Leaders

While we know little about self-efficacy as it relates to school leadership, research has explored leader self-confidence and leadership success. Many researchers have identified self-confidence as an essential characteristic in successful leadership (Northhouse, 2001; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992). However, it is important to note that self-confidence and self-efficacy are not exactly the same (McCormick, Tanguma, Lopez-Forment, 2002). While self-confidence is a generalized sense of competence and has been considered a personal trait not subject to change; self-efficacy is a personal belief, a self-judgment about one's capabilities in a specific domain. Self-efficacy, a social cognition construct, is subject to change under the appropriate conditions. Despite conceptual differences, self-confidence and self-efficacy have been related to some extent (Brockner, 1988). Chemers (1997), in his integrative theory of leadership, argues that an individual's estimate of her ability to engage in leadership behaviors required by a situation is influenced by her self-confidence. What this means is that a person in a leadership role who is highly confident would most likely report a high level of self-efficacy as well. However, according to self-efficacy theory, self-confidence does not directly contribute to leader success. Self-efficacy theory points out that it is an individual's belief regarding her capabilities to successfully perform leadership tasks that is the important factor.

There are other studies in the self-efficacy literature that suggest that business leader self-efficacy perceptions contribute to leader success. Bandura studied managerial decision making in the business sector and found that self-efficacy plays an important role in the management process through its impact on task strategy development (Chemers, 1997; Mintzberg, 1973). Bandura and Dweck (cited in Bandura 1997) found that study participants who lacked

confidence in their abilities to cope with work demands experienced stress induced thoughts which diminished their analytical thinking capacities. Wood and Bandura (1989b) studied the influence of perceived efficacy in a simulated business. Before the study one group of participants experienced a procedure that diminished their efficacy in their management capabilities, while the second group experienced a manipulation that enhanced their sense of self-efficacy. Those participants whose efficacy had been initially diminished became discouraged over a series of problems. Along with this their quality of analytic thinking declined. However, the managers whose self-efficacy met enhanced performance goals increased their analytic capabilities while group performance maximized. These studies were replicated twice (Wood and Bandura, 1989a; Wood, Bandura and Bailey, 1990).

Bandura's (1986) research indicates that finding success in challenging leadership activities can strongly influence a person's efficacy beliefs. Ultimately, self-efficacy is important because it assesses the role of one's self-beliefs in the context of behavior (Stage, 1996). Specifically, Stage found that for novice student leaders, self-efficacy affects involvement by determining whether or not a leadership candidate will aspire to become involved in an organization and take a leadership role.

The Assignment and Student Experience

"You, Me and Leadership" was the name of an assignment given in an administrative field experience course I teach to students earning their administrative credentials. The assignment was given during the middle of the second semester of a one year program. The administrative preparation program where I teach is small, enrolling no more than 12 students each year. The students take all their credential courses together and most of them are aspiring to be public school principals. Ten students in the class were classroom teachers, and the other two had jobs that related to education when this assignment was given.

The assignment was developed as I considered ways my students could build greater self-efficacy. I asked my students to talk to friends, family members, children, partners or colleagues and explain that they were in an administrative leadership program. The assignment required them to ask the people they approached for a story, photograph or any sort of artifact that represented the student as a leader at any point in her life.

In hindsight, I realize that in order for this assignment to be beneficial it was crucial to establish trust in the group. The mutual trust that had been established in the first semester created a rapport among students and provided a level of comfort from which this exploration of self and leadership could develop.

It is also important to acknowledge the reflective class dialogue that encouraged and supported exploration of the

students' presentations. Time and sustained effort need to go into allowing reflective conversations to occur in tandem with an assignment such as this one.

The assignment was very open ended. I even used an unconventional example that surfaced understanding from my own life through my mother, son, friends and former colleagues input. The example was messy on purpose, I did not want anyone to feel or believe they had to replicate it. My presentation included photographs given to me and parts of stories that were told to me over the phone, through e-mail or in letters. My mother gave me some old newspaper clippings of awards I received for my participation in the 4-H Club in my youth and indicated that I had shown leadership at a very young age. My son gave me a photograph of his first airplane ride and explained that through my supportive leadership he overcame his tremendous fear of flying that day. A friend I knew in my previous career as a tightrope walker told a story about my creativity, and ability to take risks. Teachers from schools where I had led sent photos of experiences they remembered while I was principal. What I emphasized to the class was how different this assignment would have been if I had done it all alone. If I had not sought other perspectives I would have presented myself in a different way, but through soliciting multiple perspectives I was able to reflect on aspects of myself that I may not have otherwise considered. When I was done presenting my example, I was clear there was no one right way to get this assignment done and it did not require a written paper. It did, however, require reflecting on the responses collected.

Through this assignment the students came to realize that what they have experienced relates to how they will lead. Presentations surfaced a variety of stories. Mary presented her mother's story about her organized daughter which acted as a representation of a leadership role. Karen's husband's told a story of her kindness which he viewed to be related to leadership. Joan's friend used the metaphor of a lighthouse to describe her friend as a leader. Each student presented multiple images of their roles as leaders throughout their lives. Some students created books, others videos, while some spoke from hand written notes.

Not all the leadership stories were positive. Joan's mother told a story of a bossy little girl. Joan used the story as grist for reflection and realized that she still has the tendency to be bossy and she should become more aware of that. Both positive and negative examples were fruitful in helping students better understand themselves through the assignment.

After all the students had presented I asked them to do a quick write up responding to the project experience. Students found the assignment to be: 1) very beneficial in helping them identify as leaders; and 2) helpful in clarifying their desire to lead. All 12 students found the assignment beneficial, sharing comments such as:

"I really enjoyed the entire experience."

"I'm glad I had the opportunity to reflect with others and consider my leadership ability."

"I am very glad to have done this project. My family has a history of being non-communicative and this forced them to tell me things they otherwise would not have shared about my leadership."

This project marked a change in how these administrative students perceived themselves as leaders. Some clarified the power the assignment had for them:

This assignment centered us in ourselves and asked us to review our experiences in a past, present format that has led to new understandings of ourselves.

There was acknowledgement that leading is complex and "leadership" can be viewed in many ways. This assignment helped students clarify their desire to lead:

What this assignment did for me was to clarify my desire to be an administrator or perhaps more than just that, a leader in whatever capacity. It also was revealing because aspects of my personality or character were recognized or described in ways I hadn't thought about as being related to leadership until now.

The responses I collected were profound. People read intention into my prior actions that I didn't necessarily intend to convey. People also saw clearly what they valued in what I do ... I also became confident that leadership is something I want to do and have done ... Sometimes I'm just doing what I think is best, and my actions are viewed as leadership.

These responses reflect self-efficacy built through reconsideration of self in prior role attainment. It is important to note that this was a class assignment, not a formal study. The responses recorded are not presented as definitive findings, but instead as evidence that these emergent leaders benefited from this deeply reflective exercise.

Rather than taking for granted students' views of themselves as capable, this assignment helped students develop skills to appraise past performance through stories and information received by others. A sense of efficacy was built through the reexamination of authentic accomplishments in the past.

Discussion

The examination of "self" through multiple perspectives (the eyes and views of family, friends and colleagues) can lead to in-depth reflection. Feelings of efficacy, after all, develop through life experience. Perhaps one of the most potent determinants of the development of self-efficacy is past performance accomplishments in relevant tasks

(Bandura, 1982). This suggests that the more awareness one develops of leadership role experience, the greater the potential for the development of leadership self-efficacy.

In this assignment students had the opportunity to revisit prior leadership roles, which before the assignment had not been considered, in order to cognitively appraise the value of prior performance attainment. The success of this assignment opens the door to the development of new kinds of curriculum in educational leadership preparation programs.

Although efficacy has not been explored in school leadership, it is an area that could offer new insight in integrating leadership knowledge with practice. During administrator preparation programs students move from positions of uncertainty and self-doubt to a sense of self-efficacy and preparation to enter the complex world of school leadership. We might predict that cognitive belief in one's ability to accomplish leadership tasks coupled with personal beliefs about one's capacity to lead could enhance one's ability to take on the complexity of school change in order to innovate. School leadership training programs should not resist exploring new paradigms in training creative and intelligent leaders who will grow to become resilient and capable professionals.

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Gender, Politics and the ISLLC Standards: A Closer Look

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Providing quality principal preparation internship programs at the nation's graduate schools of education has long been a topic of discussion and concern (Hackmann, Schmitt-Oliver and Tracy, 2002). In 1989, the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) cited a decline in the quality of administrator preparation programs. These programs were criticized for being excessively steeped in theory while lacking in real-life applications (NPBEA, 1989).

Furthermore, with the advent of the school reform movement that began with the release of *A Nation At Risk* in 1983, standards based curriculum became a prime consideration in all curriculum areas. As a result, in 1994, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) and NPBEA created the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), whose charge was to address the issue of standards in the field of educational leadership (Hackmann et al., 2002). The ISLLC standards were consciously designed to focus "on matters of learning and teaching and the creation of powerful learning environments" (ISLLC, 1996, p.8). The standards were developed from the research discoveries that emerged from effective schools research (Murphy, 2003). These standards were deliberately broad, placing emphasis on the knowledge, dispositions and performances necessary for exemplary school leadership.

The six ISLLC standards emphasized the belief that school administrators must insure the success of all students by:

1. Facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by the school community.
2. Advocating, nurturing and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth.
3. Ensuring management of the organization, operations and resources for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment.
4. Collaborating with families and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources.

5. Acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner.
6. Understanding, responding to and influencing the larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural context (ISLLC, 1996, pp. 12-22).

Although it was the desire of the Consortium to raise the bar for the practice of school leadership, the ISLLC standards were also developed to be compatible with the new National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Curriculum Guidelines.

The ISLLC standards have either been adopted or adapted by 44 states. While this is a commendable achievement, the question still remains: How can principal preparation programs align with these standards in a timely and comprehensive manner?

Purpose of the Study and Research Question

The Department of Educational Administration at Ashland University anticipated incorporating the ISLLC standards into its curriculum through an intensive examination of current courses of study. The first step, however, was to determine how much knowledge current graduate students had of the ISLLC standards.

The research question posed by the faculty was: How much knowledge do educational administration graduate students have of the content covered by the ISLLC standards?

Methodology

Description of Sample

In the spring of 2003, all students enrolled in the capstone educational administration internship course at Ashland University's five centers were asked to complete a survey during an on-site required seminar. Overall, 180 students out of a possible 215 responded, which was an 84 percent response rate. The number of female and male interns was the same. Women in the sample had more experience as professional educators than men; 41 percent of the women and 28 percent of the men had more than 10 years of experience. Twelve percent of the respondents were African-American.

Survey Instrument

For each of the six ISLLC standards there are “knowledge, disposition and performance indicators ... that mark the work of an effective leader and define each of the six standards” (Hessel and Holloway, 2002, p. 20). For the purpose of the current research, only knowledge indicators were used in the survey. Knowledge indicators can be defined as “the kinds of theories, trends, principles, models and concepts that serve as a part of the foundation for what the school leader should know and understand” (p. 20).

We created the survey instrument by listing the 43 knowledge indicators verbatim. For example:

- Learning goals in a pluralistic society;
- The principles of developing and implementing strategic plans;
- Effective communication; and
- Systems theory

The survey instructed respondents to “Please appraise your knowledge of the topics listed below, using the following scale: 1-Very Knowledgeable, 2-Knowledgeable, 3-Minimal and 4-None.”

Data Analysis

Each of the 43 indicators relate to one of the six ISLLC standards. Each indicator was analyzed separately, using t-test or ANOVA, to test mean differences among various subgroups of the respondents; for example, gender, region of the state, urban/rural, race and educational experience. Indicators were then grouped according to their ISLLC standard, and the scores were summed to create a score for each standard. Mean differences among the subgroups on each of the six standards were tested using t-test and ANOVA. The significance level was set at .10.

Findings

There were very few differences on either the indicators or the standards between the various subgroups. The exception was that women had significantly less confidence than men in their knowledge of the politics of education. On four indicators relating to politics, women’s average scores were higher than men’s. (Higher scores indicate lower ranking of knowledge.) The four are presented in Table 1.

Scores on the individual indicators were summed to give a total score for each standard. Table 2 presents the mean total score for men and women for each standard. The only statistically significant difference between men and women was on Standard 6.

Comparing the mean of the total scores for men (15.92) and women (17.16) on Standard 6 again showed that women were less self confident than their male counterparts. This difference was significant at the .05 level.

Discussion

What might be the causes of the different self-assessment of their own political knowledge between men and women? No other set of indicators and none of the other standards showed this difference. Our data do not answer this question, so we consulted both the literature and our experience in working with students to come up with some possible explanations.

Different Aspirations

Women are less likely than men to aspire to the position of head of the educational organization (Gupton and Slick, 1996). Women superintendents stress the importance of curriculum and instruction in their work (Tallerico and Burstyn, 1996), and women educators enter administration

Table 1. ISLLC Knowledge Indicators Showing Significant Differences Between Women and Men

Indicator	Mean for Women	Mean for Men	t (degrees of freedom)
Emerging issues and trends that potentially impact the school community (knowledge indicator for Standard 4).	2.06	1.87	1.828 (177)*
The role of public education in developing and renewing a democratic society and an economically productive nation (knowledge indicator for Standard 6).	2.14	1.97	1.757 (178)*
The law as related to education and schooling (knowledge indicator for Standard 6).	2.02	1.84	1.812 (177)*
The dynamics of policy development and advocacy under our democratic political system (knowledge indicator for Standard 6).	2.31	2.10	2.236 (178)**

* p < .10

** p < .05

Table 2. Men and Women’s Rating of Their Own Knowledge on the Six ISLLC Standards

ISLLC Standard	Mean for Women	Mean for Men	t (degrees of freedom)
1. facilitating ... vision ...	12.24	12.13	.278 (172)
2. a school culture ... conducive to student learning and staff professional growth	20.50	20.94	.597 (175)
3. management ... for a safe, efficient and effective learning environment	16.69	16.40	.50 (170)
4. collaborating with families and community	10.35	10.20	.376 (176)
5. acting with integrity, fairness and in an ethical manner	9.57	9.35	.543 (174)
6. understanding, responding to and influencing the larger political, social economic, legal and cultural context	17.16	15.92	2.143 (175)**

** p < .05

because they want to facilitate teaching and learning, not because they want to be the boss (Young and McLeod, 2001). Young and McLeod found that their women respondents expressed denial of their ambitions to lead, consistent with traditional behavioral norms for women.

Groan (1996) concluded that what women tend to be good at—people and instruction—are skills for the support role, not the top role. This research supports the idea that women are more likely to believe they are prepared for the instructional leadership requirements of the administrative role, but not the more political aspects of community visibility and supervision of other educators.

A Different View of Power

The leadership literature indicates a core difference in the way that men and women view the political realities of educational administrative positions. Brunner (1999) has stated that men traditionally tend to view the use of power as “power over” people. Women tend not to use power that way. They use their power as “power to” get the job accomplished through collaboration and consensus building (p. 40). Women tend to have a more democratic leadership style (Young and McLeod, 2001). Perhaps men view their use of power as political, while women do not.

Tallerico and Burstyn (1996) found that women superintendents felt they had a minority or a token status in a male-dominated profession, leading to “ambiguous empowerment” (p. 653). The time-tested concept of “quid pro quo” (I do something for you, you do something for me) is viewed as distasteful and even dishonest by some women. Brunner (2000) found that women are ambivalent about power and downplay their authority. Traditionally, power is not feminine.

A Different Level of Scrutiny

Women educational administrators report that their competence is more often challenged than that of men, and that school boards and others think a woman leader will be easier to influence (Skrla, Reyes and Sheurich, 2000; Tallerico and Burstyn, 1996). The administrators interviewed by Gupton and Slick (1996) felt they were under more scrutiny than their male counterparts.

A Need for More Help

Hill and Ragland (1995) described the way administrative positions are filled. Male administrators have tended to hire people like themselves in not only gender, but in beliefs, attitudes, religion and background. Women candidates are less likely than men to receive mentoring from either other women or from men. Informal networks operate powerfully to tap people for positions; women may be less likely than men to be “in the loop.” Gupton and Slick (1996) found that not understanding politics and bureaucracy was a barrier in women’s careers.

Implications

In conclusion, the original research question: How much knowledge do educational administration graduate students have of the content covered by the ISLLC standards? has been answered by findings that indicate women rate their knowledge of the political arena lower than that of men.

As a response to our data and our analysis, we agree with Young and McCloud (2001) that principal preparation programs need to do the following things:

1. Expose graduate students to alternative theories of leadership employed by authors such as the works of Catherine Marshall, Helen Regan and Linda Skrla.
2. Expose women educational administration graduate

students to real life role models by encouraging field-based projects with female leaders. It is important to include in the curriculum: panel discussions, guest presentations and courses that are taught by successful women leaders.

3. Recruit gifted men and women into educational administration programs. Efforts must be especially intense when seeking qualified female administrative graduate students. Because women tend to focus on the facilitation of the learning process, they may not see themselves as potential administrators in the strictly traditional sense.
4. Collaborate with teacher preparation programs to demonstrate the linkage between elementary and secondary classroom instructional leadership and school and district administrative work.
5. Provide mentoring programs for women graduate students. While much has been written about this topic, little research has focused on what mentoring actually accomplishes (Grogan and Crow, 2004). We suggest that formalized mentoring programs be developed within principal preparation programs, longitudinal research should follow women graduate students into their entry-level administrative positions. By conducting this action-based research, the outcomes of formal mentoring programs can be accurately assessed.

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What Knowledge Matters Most to On-the-Job School Administrators in Florida?

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These straightforward comments were made during a What knowledge matters most to on-the-job school administrators? This paper is a report of an investigation into what practicing leaders in Florida believe they must know and be capable of in order to effectively perform their role. The focus is relevant to the preparation of principals and to best practices that can advance the profession of educational administration. Reflecting an unusual approach to empirical study, this study initiates conversation about establishing a knowledge base for principals and professors by exploring leadership as actually practiced in schools *and* by turning to novice administrators for feedback. For the purposes of this research, *new administrator/leader* was defined as assistant principals and principals who have been working in their school-based positions for up to two years.

Conceptual Frameworks and Literature

Few studies reveal what beginning leaders do on the job from their own perspective (exceptions include Oliver, 2003; Rallis and Goldring, 2000). Because the assistant principal's role in leading schools has been nearly overlooked, a gap exists concerning the daily challenges involved and the extent of preparedness (Bartholomew and Fusarelli, 2003). While the results reported herein are provisional and situated, they should have relevance to the national agenda.

The novice administrator was featured for several reasons. The fresh viewpoints of newcomers in any field offer valuable information. Also, because new leaders have specific understandings of their own learning (Crows and Matthews, 1998), this subculture is worthy of study. Hence, this analysis of administrative leadership explored two related areas of socialization: (1) salient work that beginning school leaders currently perform, and (2) suggestions for improving university preparation programs.

Gender and race in the principalship also has relevance. The U.S. Department of Education reports that only 39 percent of all principals from 1993 to 1994 were women, and 14 percent belonged to an ethnic minority group (Henke,

Choy, Geis and Broughman, 1996). The traditional gender and racial imbalances are gradually changing—more females than ever lead secondary schools and males, elementary schools. However, the workforce of principals is still largely male and white (Spencer and Kochan, 2000).

Methods

Study Design

Evidence from survey questions is reported and results from focus groups more qualitative in nature are integrated. This study was carried out from 2000 to 2003, and in three successive phases:

1. Development of the administrator survey with the input of experienced practitioners;
2. Revision of the survey and distribution to elementary, middle and secondary schools; and
3. Peer assessor critique of data analysis through focus groups.

This paper reports the findings from phases 2 and 3.

Data Collection: Instrument and Rating

The Likert-scale instrument contained three parts: (1) demographics of participants (numerical data); (2) matrix representing the nature of the work and tasks new leaders perform (numerical data); and (3) open-response commentary on experiences as a beginning school administrator, graduate preparation and critique of the instrument itself. Respondents rated each of the topic sections from “0” to “5”; their responses were “weighted” relative to both the areas and the items selected.

Using the Florida Association of School Administrators' (2002) directory, participants were identified and telephoned. The survey was then postal mailed to 271 willing new leaders, representing 56 of the state's 67 school districts. In all, 115 beginning leaders from the same number of Florida schools participated, 91 [33 percent] as survey respondents and the rest as focus group members.

Five core leadership areas were assessed on the survey: (1) instructional supervision; (2) school organization; (3) student services; (4) community relations; and (5) school management. Each of these domains was accompanied by

administrative duties. (See Table 1 for a list of the salient areas and corresponding priority tasks, and Table 2 for greater specificity.) The areas had emerged from educational leadership literature (e.g., McCarthy, 1999), comprehensive reviews (e.g. Mullen, Gordon, Greenlee and Anderson, 2002), the ISLLC Standards (CCSSO, 1996), and feedback gathered from phase 1.

Data Analysis Procedures

The research team interpreted the survey results and later met with two focus groups (participant respondents) to perform separate analyses of the data set. For this purpose, the numerical ratings obtained were tallied and summarized (see Table 2). Also, both groups scrutinized the themes that the researchers had constructed from the open-ended survey items. Finally, not only had the discussion groups verified the researchers' data analysis, they had also functioned as peer assessors whose feedback was built into successive phases. (The results of the open-ended survey question are reported in Mullen [2004].)

Study Results

Demographic Characteristics

More female leaders (60 percent) responded to the survey. The beginning administrator of Florida's schools is most often a white female from 36 to 55 years old, working at the elementary, middle or secondary level. She is typically from an urban or suburban area, primarily an assistant principal but also a principal holding an advanced degree. His or her professional goal most often targets the principalship and, to a lesser degree, county office administration.

Geographically, 67 percent of the respondents identified their school communities as "urban" and 33 percent, "rural." Within this participant pool, 36 percent lead at the elementary school level, while 33 percent work at the middle level and 31 percent in secondary sites. An almost equal response was obtained from successive principals, as 50 percent were assistant principals, 45 percent, principals and 5 percent "other."

Contextual Influences

Context influenced the numerical results: No hierarchical

distinction existed among the core administrator areas. However, different weights or values were attributed to each. Notably, *instructional supervision* was the most heavily emphasized (60 percent) area in the self-reports, closely followed by *school organization* (60 percent). Although both areas were given the same weight, they were not tied for top; school organization, unlike that of instructional supervision, was emphasized relative to specific items/tasks only. Next, in order of consequence as reflected in the new leaders' time and energy, were *student services* (40 percent); *community relations* (30 percent) and *school management* (10 percent).

As Table 1 indicates, all five of the domains had varying significance for the administrators.

To expound, the most critical administrator duties (e.g., assist in interviewing and hiring faculty and staff and participate in Parent-Teacher-Student Association/School Advisory Council [PTSA/SAC]) selected relative to the five leadership domains were tallied. Through inductive analysis, the relative importance of the domains surfaced: Instructional supervision received the top billing, and school organization and management had prominence relative to single tasks, with weight given to faculty meeting attendance and budget management (see Table 2).

Conceivably, at a time of economic expansion, the primary concern of an organization would be personnel. However, this is certainly not a time of fiscal advantage for Florida's public schools. Yet the value placed on instructional supervision was nonetheless maintained as a priority, suggesting that new administrators function beyond the managerial role (see Table 2).

The bigger picture suggests that new school leaders devote (or perceive themselves as devoting) more time and energy to instructional supervision than anything else, including financial operations. This outcome has significant implications for professional accountability. Instructional leadership involves administrators in faculty hiring, classroom management, teacher-student interaction, instructional support and standardized test analysis. Given the top 10 administrator tasks selected on the survey, instructional supervision achieved prominence, chosen 50

Table 1. Core Leadership Areas Performed: Survey Outcomes for Top 20 Tasks (Mullen, 2004)

Leadership Area	Weight	Total Items	Item/Task Most Highly Rated
Supervision of Instruction	60%	12	Assist in interviewing and hiring faculty/staff
School Organization	60%	13	Attend faculty meetings selectively
Student Services	40%	15	Attend parent-principal conferences
Community Relations	30%	5	Participate in *PTSA/**SAC involvement
School Management	10%	9	Manage budget (e.g., for instructional supplies)

* PTSA = Parent-Teacher-Student Association
 ** SAC = School Advisory Council

Table 2. Administrators' Top Selections of Core Leadership Areas (Mullen, 2004)

Total	Item (Administrative Task) Most Highly Rated	Core Leadership Area
<i>Primary Tier</i>		
63%	Assist in interviewing, hiring potential faculty/staff	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
63%	Participate in PTSA/SAC involvement	COMMUNITY RELATIONS
53%	Attend faculty meetings selectively	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
52%	Manage budget (e.g., for instructional supplies)	SCHOOL MANAGEMENT
52%	Advise teachers regarding classroom management	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
52%	Observe teacher-student interaction	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
52%	Communicate school employee supports instruction	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
52%	Attend parent-principal conferences	STUDENT SERVICES
51%	Supervise and assess evaluations, fire, tornado drills	STUDENT SERVICES
49%	Interpret standardized test results with/for teachers	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
<i>Secondary Tier</i>		
47%	Assist teachers with instructional plans	SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION
47%	Review and enforce school safety program	STUDENT SERVICES
44%	Attend principal/assistant principal meetings	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
42%	Design master schedule, including specials	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
41%	Plan staff orientation/school opening activities	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
41%	Relate to youth with disabilities	STUDENT SERVICES
40%	Plan open house	COMMUNITY RELATIONS
38%	Newsletter (student/staff accomplishments)	COMMUNITY RELATIONS
36%	Review curriculum documents	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
33%	Serve on a school committee	SCHOOL ORGANIZATION
<i>Tertiary Tier</i>		
31%	Review and enforce attendance/tardy policies	SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

percent of the time.

In comparison, student services appeared in 20 percent of the top choices, and school management, school organization and community relations just 10 percent each (see Tables 1 and 2).

Interestingly, although community relations had attained only 10 percent significance within the context of the core leadership areas, one of its items/tasks—participate in PTSA/SAC involvement—received the *same* rating (63 percent) as the top candidate within instructional supervision. However, this community task did not have the same weight when the results were reviewed holistically.

Survey Weight Distribution

Attention given to the core leadership areas on the survey was intentionally unequal—their differences are empirically supported. The leadership literature and the piloted feedback obtained for this study ascribe varying weights to the categories and subsequently the tasks reflected within each. Notably, published studies highlight (as does the survey) the vital role of instructional leadership for principals (e.g., Glickman, Butters and Maxey, 2003).

The survey instrument, backed by current research, reflects the increasing responsibility of leaders for student performance and teacher development. Administrators are expected to promote teacher development, proficiency and reflection, using such methods as peer coaching (Glickman, et al., 2003).

Discussion

Application to Leadership Preparation and Standards

Five core leadership areas characterize best practices in school leadership. Importantly, a transforming shift may be occurring in the principalship, from the role of manager to instructional leader, whose multitasking competencies include managerial operations. The changing role of administrative leadership is a central premise of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards: “Effective school leaders are strong educators, anchoring their work on central issues of learning and teaching and school improvement” (Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 1996, p. 5).

Based on these research results, about 50 to 60 percent of graduate program preparation can be devoted to instructional supervision, but not to the exclusion of the other core areas. Best practices would give authority to the primary and secondary tier, ranging from hiring staff to supporting teachers’ efforts at classroom management and standardized testing. Indeed, the goal is to create an instructional climate that all employees can support. The ISLLC Standards uphold that strong school communities involve its members in sharing a “vision of learning” (CCSSO, 1996, Standard 1, p. 10) and offer an “instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth” (Standard 2, p. 12).

School organization should also be stressed, albeit not to the same overall extent. Creating school schedules, attend-

ing staff and administrative meetings, planning school activities and reviewing curriculum documents are all vital functions that aspirants would benefit from experiencing first-hand. Preparation in school management must focus on finances and budgeting. Similarly, ISLLC highlights the leader's responsibility for managing the organization in order to create a "safe, efficient and effective learning environment" for all students (CCSSO, 1996, Standard 3, p. 14). The other core leadership areas (e.g., student services) should also be featured, but in relation to the weights ascribed and the salient tasks identified (see Table 2). Once again, context has a definite influence on this picture.

School Level Relevance

Different educational levels of the school and the client base (i.e., student) affect the outcome of the administrator's duties: "Our roles as administrators differ by factors such as level [e.g. primary or secondary], and geographic area." And, "I noticed that the priorities we gave to the survey items differed within our group, depending on the level of school in which we administer. We all had our own ideas about which administrative duties were more important based on our own situations."

Contextual Responses to Survey

Context was stressed in the new administrators' responses: "My answers on your survey are dependent upon my particular needs for this particular school." An assistant principal for curriculum shared this reflection, uniting the practice of school leadership with the preparation for the role: "While it's very important for administrators to review and enforce the curriculum, I don't think it is *that* crucial for leadership students to learn because the curriculum is so varied depending on the school site."

Several participants also referred to differentiation in their leadership tasks and positional authority. According to Oliver's (2003) 2000–2002 study of new assistant principals in California, a divergence in responsibilities and, implicitly, status is evident: The principal generally focuses on "leadership activities associated with instruction and programs," while the assistant principal performs "management oriented tasks" (p. 38). Notwithstanding, balance in their respective duties is necessary.

This categorical breakdown was less prominent in my study, although still apparent. This result supports Oliver's contention that principals should engage in designing mentoring systems for administrator apprentices. The assistant principals I surveyed, like the principals, valued instructional leadership. However, the ratings differed somewhat, as the vice principals may not have had the chance to carry out those particular duties. A few had confirmed as much.

Cultural Constraints

The instrument I developed is not exhaustive of all the

leadership activities that new school leaders perform in Florida, let alone throughout the nation. This culturally situated research extends to the survey itself, which reflected the current literature and variables that coalesced in 2000. My participants all wore "cultural lenses," a variable that Walker and Dimmock (2002) acknowledge.

Conclusion

School leaders' insights into the work and socialization of administrators emerge from within a culturally bound system. Recommendations for improving graduate preparation programs through a reassessment of the balance given to core areas of content should bear in mind this inevitable limitation.

With a focus on "best practices," the results provided could assist with the improvement of obsolete programs. It is expected that preservice administration programs will be aligned not only with the goals of our universities, policy-making bodies and the public, but also with the needs of school districts, administrator candidates and practicing school leaders.

The picture painted herein is certainly not static or comprehensive. For example, a larger participant population could produce different insights, so, too, could a location other than Florida.

Finally, new administrator studies are to be strongly encouraged. This pioneering area of leadership studies has the great potential to nourish best practices in our teaching and scholarship.

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Are Weapons Searches in the Job Descriptions of Instructional Leaders?

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After 26 years as a school superintendent, I am no longer surprised when someone assumes that I “get the summer off.” In fact, July is one of the busiest months in my work year. To be sure, the pace is different without students and teachers, and I do relish my summer vacation. With hiring and personnel work, administrative and school board retreats and meetings, and the planning of improvement initiatives, we are still busy throughout the summer preparing for the reopening of school. Of course, each summer I write a speech for the traditional opening day event for teachers.

For the last three years, in my role as one of the university consultants assigned to Ravine Junior High School (a pseudonym) as part of a five-year federal grant, I have worked with the building principal (Jackie). I have been engaging in a long-term case study to describe this principal’s experiences during the restructuring of her building brought about by the grant (Creswell, 1998; de Vaus, 2001). The *case* for this study has been the junior high school principal, bounded by three years of data collection, involving multiple sources of information that document both the participant’s actions/interactions and her perceptions (Creswell, 1998). The data reported in this article are part of this larger study.

I visit Ravine JHS approximately three times a month. Sometimes I observe the principal “in action” as she interacts with students and staff members, individually and in meetings. Although I have formally interviewed and tape-recorded her a few times, more frequently we simply “chat” about what is on her mind. I have kept extensive field notes during all of my meetings and conversations with her and during my observations of her interactions (Creswell, 1998). She tells me that our association has been beneficial to her, because she uses me as a “sounding board” for her experiences and perceptions during this major reform effort at her school. For my part, the association with her has helped to keep me “honest” lest, as a professor, I forget the constant demands made on the time of principals in their complex worlds.

Ravine Junior High School is a large three-story brick building, located in an urban residential area, which houses approximately 800 7th and 8th grade students. Being built during the gas moratorium in the 1970’s, the building

has non-functional windows that look like slits in a fortress, and is far from being aesthetically pleasing. The ground floor has a main entrance off of a semi-circular drive and a side entrance off of the parking lot. Although not old as usual in our state, it is scheduled to be razed within the next few years as part of the district’s new construction plan. Eventually, two new middle schools housing 6th, 7th and 8th graders will replace the existing building.

Jackie’s role as a principal, because of participation in the federal grant, has grown to include more facilitation and support of faculty decision making and risk taking in her building. As a result, there have developed a number of powerful faculty committees that make decisions on a regular basis about the grade level clusters’ (or teams’) curriculum and instruction, and about professional development for the building. Often during my visits, I attend these cluster leader meetings. My intent is to watch Jackie, who does not run the meetings, interacting with the faculty. Unfortunately, there are many times when Jackie has felt she could not attend, because of the myriad of other responsibilities that she has. Although today’s principals should be strong instructional leaders as well as successful school managers, in reality many principals have little impact on instructional practice (Fink and Resnick, 2001; Schmoker, 1999).

As a former principal, I am empathetic with Jackie’s dilemma. However, I frequently remind her that her staff watches her to determine what she believes is important. According to Fullan and Hargreaves, “The principal as collaborative symbol is one of the basic keys to forming and reforming the school culture. What he or she does, pays attention to, appreciates and talks or writes about all count” (1996, p. 89). Therefore, I have asked Jackie, “When you miss important meetings, what message are you sending to the faculty?” Principals’ actions, attitudes, collaborative behaviors and communication all have an impact on the culture and the performance of the buildings they lead (Fullan and Hargreaves, 1996; Short and Greer, 2002; Sparks, 2002).

My words of caution meant nothing at all on the morning I had planned to observe Jackie during a cluster leader meeting that was scheduled for 7:30 a.m. When I arrived at the junior high, I found the ground floor filled with police

officers and two metal detector arches set up in the main entryway! I was permitted by the police officers to walk through one of the detectors on my way to the office. I asked one of Jackie's secretaries what on earth was happening. She informed me that the police were conducting a surprise weapons' search. I only spoke to Jackie briefly and foolishly asked whether or not she was going to attend the cluster leader meeting. Of course, she set me straight and indicated that her attention would be devoted to helping the police officers. School leaders' jobs are becoming increasingly complex, marked by a multitude of duties including, in this case, helping to facilitate a weapons' search. In the following narrative, I have tried to recreate this event. Informal narratives use a genre that is close to lived experience to "convey information or a set of impressions" (Shank, 2002, p. 152).

There were three sets of two officers conducting the search. The first two officers were stationed inside the parking lot entrance. These officers had no metal detector arch at their station. The other two sets of officers were at the main entrance and each of them had a metal detector arch. Students were positioned into two lines from the main door to the two stations, each of which had a table to hold belongings while the officers searched. An older officer stationed himself just inside the main doors. His job was to constantly repeat to the students, "open your book bags and purses, and remove any metal objects from your pockets." Indeed, if students obeyed these directions, it did help the lines to move more quickly.

Once each student approached the pair of officers at the two tables, the directions were repeated again. One officer searched book bags and purses while the other assisted. The assistant also helped a third officer, who instructed each student to walk through the metal detector arch. If a student "set off" the detector, he or she was first reminded to empty pockets of metal objects. If this did not work, a wand was passed over the student's body. It was surprising to note the number of students who caused the detector to "beep," because they had cans of soda pop in their pockets. Perhaps they didn't know that the cans were made of metal! Or it could be that soda is not allowed in school and they were hoping that their violation was not discovered. I never found out. Teachers who needed to get to the main office also walked through the metal detectors. Although some of the teachers set off the alarm and were "alarmed," the police officers allowed them to proceed without being searched. I watched this entire event, which lasted about 40 minutes, while standing with my back against a wall between the two metal detectors and facing the front doors. Naturally, I was not in a position to take field notes during the weapons' search, nor did it seem prudent to do so. I tried to capture what I could remember later.

Early during the search, Jackie called to one of the officers to follow two boys whom she had seen "take off" out-

side rather than get into one of the two lines at the main door. I do not know what the outcome was of that action. I didn't see the officer report back to the principal, if he did. Jackie, who stationed herself by the front door, near the office, also reminded the students about the procedure. Furthermore, she kept encouraging students to make their lines tighter to help the students, who were waiting between the outside and inside doors, get out of the cold. Additionally, the principal was in contact by radio (walkie-talkie) with the school buses and city buses. This was a bitterly cold day and the bus drivers appeared to be cooperating in not allowing their students to disembark until the bottleneck at the front door had been removed.

Most of the students appeared to be remarkably compliant and really did not seem scared or even anxious. I believe that this was the first weapons search that the building had this year. What a different world it appears to be in urban schools! I cannot imagine how my own children who attended a suburban school, or my students when I was recently a principal of a rural school, would have reacted in a similar situation. Very few students were even mildly uncooperative, unless one counts the passive resistance of having to be reminded over and over again to open book bags, purses and empty pockets.

By 8:15 a.m. the weapons search had been completed and Jackie began her usual morning announcements on the public address system. "Good mor-r-r-ning. I'm so glad to be here today! And I'm glad that you are here, too ... The weapons search is over." Jackie proceeded with more announcements, including a reminder to students who were registered for the spelling bee to prepare to report to the cafeteria. Incidentally, Jackie was going to be the emcee of the spelling contest. After making the announcements, she quickly stopped in her own office to collect the spelling bee materials, and we started walking toward the cafeteria.

We met the police officers, who were packing up their equipment at about 8:30 a.m., and Jackie briefly discussed the outcome of the weapons search with them. Luckily, no guns or knives were found. However, one officer gave the principal a large spiky-looking necklace that he had confiscated from a student. Another officer gave her a long chain that one student had attached to his wallet. I assumed that possession of either of these items was in violation of the school's dress code. Jackie reported to the officers that during the search, she witnessed one girl rustling in a stack of newspapers near the front door, as if she were trying to hide something. Jackie did not find anything when she looked. Apparently, the principal's station by the door gave her the advantage of watching for this type of evasive behavior.

Once we reached the cafeteria, the spelling bee competitors, other classes (the "audience") and their teachers, were already waiting for the principal. Jackie took her place at the podium and the spelling bee began. Jackie encouraged the spellers ("give it a chance") and admonished the audi-

ence (“I want to remind you how hard it is for these students to be up here in front of their peers.”) Actually, from my perspective, I thought the audience was fairly quiet.

I watched the spelling bee until 9:00 a.m. and then left the building. I witnessed only ninety minutes in this junior high school principal’s day. Although I never experienced a weapons’ search, it certainly brought back memories of the busy life of a building principal, the “instructional leader.” Franklin (2002) questioned how principals are able to provide instructional leadership at a time “when so many other responsibilities are competing for their attention” (p.6). Moreover, “one can argue that we have reached the point where aggregate expectations for the principalship are so exorbitant that they exceed the limits of what might reasonably be expected from one person” (Copland, 2001, p. 529). Consequently, a number of authors have actually called for co- or multi-leadership of schools, dividing the roles and tasks of the principalship among several people (Alston, 2002; Drake and Roe, 1999; Kennedy, 2001).

Unfortunately with the current downturn in the state’s economy and the over-reliance on local property taxes to fund education, it is unlikely that school districts will have the resources to explore multi-leadership teams in their buildings. Therefore, this weapons search experience reinforced my belief that, as professors who prepare educational administrators, we should be mindful of the innumerable responsibilities and demands that are currently being placed on building principals. “Telling and understanding stories is an integral part of qualitative research” (Shank, 2002, p. 163). Hopefully this story of Jackie’s experiences should give readers an inside look at the real world of principals, especially those in urban settings.

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How to Stop Dealing with the Same Types of Problems Day After Day, Part 2

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Gaining expertise in leadership requires time, commitment, an adequate knowledge base and a working plan for learning and growth. Without a plan for learning, only tacit or “how-to” expertise is developed. Leaders often know how to solve the problems facing them, but they fail to analyze and act on the underlying causes. This results in administrators dealing with the same types of problems day after day. The premise here is that most underlying causes are deficits in one or more of the essential skill areas of leadership. If the school leader begins to ask questions, reflect and take positive action to improve skills, similar problems will be less likely to occur. This article provides a format of questions for reflection and recommendations for action in the first five skill areas necessary for success and growth in leadership.

It is difficult to find consensus on what makes an effective leader. Sergiovanni (1992) believes that leaders must act from a sound moral base and heart, while Hoyle (2002) asserts that leadership should incorporate spirit and genuine love. Hunter (1998) lists patience, respectfulness, forgiveness, kindness, humility, commitment, selflessness and honesty. Others write about the need for passion, empathy, common sense, creativity and a host of other traits, abilities and principles. These attributes can have a profound effect on the success of the leader, but without developed skills of leadership, they are at best, the source of good intention.

Gaining expertise in leadership requires time, commitment, an adequate knowledge base and a working plan for learning and growth. Without a plan for learning, only tacit or “how-to” expertise is developed. Leaders often know how to solve the problems facing them, but fail to analyze and act on the underlying causes. This results in administrators dealing with the same types of problems day after day. The premise is that most underlying causes are deficits in one or more of the essential skill areas of leadership. If the school leader begins to ask, reflect and take positive action to improve skill, similar problems will be less likely to occur. This article provides a format of questions for reflection and recommendations for action in the second five skill areas necessary for success and growth in leadership.

As mentioned previously, these questions only include some of the basics of the research findings or a direction for where to begin your analysis, reflection and development of expertise. Since volumes have been written on each of the areas, the following portion can only give summary highlights or key findings and further thoughts and recommendations in each area. It is assumed that with the questions and following discussion, school leaders can begin forming the habit of assessing their leadership knowledge and skill and finding root causes for many of the problems they face daily.

Group Leadership

Are personnel working collaboratively and effectively in groups for the purpose of reaching the goals of the district/school?

Warren Bennis (2000) believes that our world is the product of “great groups,” teams of creative persons who, with facilitative leadership, banded together to achieve remarkable successes that would not have been possible through a traditional hierarchical approach to leadership. The research on group processes finds that leaders who trust and believe in others and model these traits will accomplish far more and develop devoted followers (Hoyle, et al., 1990; Kouzes and Posner, 2002; Drucker, 1995).

If success in leadership were measured by the ability of groups of people to work together to achieve the goals of the school, many school leaders would not be rated successful. This is due to the fact that most of the work in schools is done individually. Breaking with this tradition and reforming the culture where faculty and administrators collaboratively work toward school improvement requires commitment to empowerment, developing new leaders, cooperation and shared responsibility.

Much time, effort and expertise are needed to overcome past failures, and lack of trust, interest and expertise in faculty and administration working collaboratively together. Negative attitudes prevail in schools about meetings, committees and group work. For attitudes to change, the leader must be aware that it requires a change in belief, and a

change in belief requires a change in experience. It is the responsibility of the leader to ensure that new positive experiences occur in working collaboratively.

Since a substantial amount of time outside of the classroom is spent in meetings, the leader must ensure that the following rules are upheld:

- Schedule meetings only when necessary and there is a need “to meet”;
- Use meetings for discussion—put announcements in writing;
- Distribute an agenda prior to the meeting and have a process for others to place items on the agenda;
- Arrange the setting for participation and model listening skill;
- Stay on time and task and end early, if possible; and
- Summarize accomplishments of the meeting and follow through on decisions

Further Thought

Have formal and informal groups been identified and relationships built?

Do group leaders and participants know their roles?

Are goals for the group honest, realistic, understood and accepted?

Recommendations

Build trusting relationships with individuals and groups.

Provide time and the means for group members to establish trust and know each other.

Work to empower others and develop leaders in the faculty.

Follow the rules of meetings and model an effective group leader and member.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be inability or lack of opportunity for collaborative work.

Leadership Style, Power and Ethics

Is the appropriate leadership style and power used in an effective and ethical manner?

In recent years, leadership theory moved from an individual identifying and predominately using a particular leadership style to using a variety of styles according to need. Although particular terms for various styles are used, Goleman (2002) asserts that six styles are most common. He found that leaders most often display commanding, pace-setting, affiliative, coaching, democratic and/or visionary.

Commanding (often termed authoritarian or directive) is used when followers have little or no knowledge or skill, or an emergency arises. Pace-setting is used for meeting deadlines and No Child Left Behind pressures many leaders in schools today to adopt this style. Goleman found both these models negative and only recommended a limited use.

Affiliative (people over task) is used mainly for building personal relationships or helping with personal concerns of staff. Visionary is the leader’s responsibility to guide the district or school in meeting educational goals. Both affiliative and visionary are positive and essential but are generally needed a small percentage of time.

The two styles recommended for maximum use are coaching and democratic. Coaching shows high respect and concern for others as the leader teaches, models, observes practice and gives constructive feedback. This style is essential in developing future leaders and better educators. The democratic style involves others and builds trusting relationships. A democratic style can be either participative (followers provide input and the leader makes the final decision) or collaborative (group consensus is found for final decision). Either form allows those affected by decisions to take an active part and allows for the highest degree of buy-in.

Superintendents often need the buy-in of principals and faculty members to implement and attain the goals of the decision. Factors that must be addressed are time, interest and expertise. These factors are essential for democratic leadership and if amount of time and/or levels of interest and expertise are low, the leader must provide adequate time and take steps to raise levels of interest and/or expertise. The style used by the leader will vary as circumstances and people change. It is essential that leaders assess the needs of all constituencies and adopt the appropriate style for particular persons and times.

Effective leaders need power to accomplish great things. French and Raven (1959) identified five types of power—reward, coercive, legitimate, expert and referent. Rewards are tempting, but often do more harm than good. The use of coercion is deemed an abuse of power and breeds resentment. Legitimate (your title) power gives some authority but may or may not be accepted by others. Expert power can be a great source of power, but only in the areas of true expertise. The best power to attain is referent power. This is the power that comes from others that believe in the leader and the goals, principles and vision that he or she supports. This comes from collaboration, empowerment, trusting relationships, ethical behavior and shared decision making and responsibility.

Further Thought

Which style do you use most often? How can you use democratic/coaching more often?

What are the ways you seek appropriate power? How much power is given to you?

Can you list your key ethical beliefs and principles and have you shared them?

Recommendations

Develop and use democratic and coaching styles as much

as possible.

Train and develop the faculty where coaching/democratic is effective.

Seek referent power to do great things.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be an inappropriate leadership style, abuse of power or unethical practice.

Culture and Climate

Is the culture and climate conducive to student learning, faculty problem solving and a high degree of morale?

Schein (1992) believes that the only thing of real importance leaders do is to create and manage culture. People form attitudes about the values, norms, expectations and practices (culture) that set their school apart from others (Greenberg and Baron, 1997). Culture not only includes the history, traditions and values of the school, but the habits leaders use for decision making, communication and the rest of the leadership skills.

The leader is responsible for knowing and understanding the culture and his or her impact on the culture. They must be aware that culture develops and changes over long periods of time and subcultures exist. The leader must assess the current culture and seek consensus on improvements and the means for developing a more positive culture.

Studies indicate that the most effective schools are distinguished by outstanding social climate (Erickson, 1981). Climate is typically defined as the feelings or atmosphere of the school but can change quickly and often. Leaders should be proactive by fostering trusting relationships, communicating with faculty and students on a daily basis, and formally and informally assessing the climate. The leader should be sensitive to the level of morale and take steps to improve low levels of morale. Culture and climate have a profound impact on the quality of life in a school and should be a high priority for the expert leader.

Further Thought

Do you know the history and sacred traditions of your school and community?

What are the core beliefs and values behind the actions of the faculty and students?

What actions can be taken to improve culture and climate?

Recommendations

Find consensus on describing the current culture.

Conduct a climate survey and use the data for improvement.

Take responsibility for the morale of faculty and students.

Evaluate your policies and practices and their impact on climate and culture.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may need changes in the culture and/or climate of the school.

Leading Change

Does the current situation require a change, and if so, are there a moral purpose and established trusting relationships among employees, and is the process of change understood?

It has been said that change is the only constant in life. It has also been said that everyone wants improvement, but no one wants change. Of all the 10 leadership skills, leading change is the most difficult. Fullan (2001) asserts that there are two main aspects in educational change: what changes to implement (theories of education) and how to implement change (theories of change). They interact and shape each other, but the critical factor is the distinctiveness of the individual setting. What works in one setting may not work in another.

The following lists are compiled from the research by Robert Evans (1996); Gay Hendricks and Kate Ludeman (1996); Peter Senge, et al., (1996); Tony Wagner (1994); Gene Hall and Shirley Hord (2001); and Michael Fullan (2002). What we know about change:

- It is a process with stages and takes place over time (2-3 years);
- It must begin with the individual and spread out to the organization;
- It requires a change in belief and a real need or pressure is required;
- It is difficult and seldom worth the effort and most change efforts fail;
- Not everyone will change and there will always be conflict;
- No amount of information will make the change totally clear;
- The leader has a key role in facilitating, monitoring and evaluating;
- Those affected by the change must be involved in the process; and
- Improvement cannot occur without it.

Change causes disequilibrium in people and they naturally seek the balance and comfort of the past. Most people fear or resist change. Factors of resistance to change are:

- Some never grasp the new vision;
- Some need more time or lack the skill to make the change;
- Some are against any change mandate from the state or national level;
- Some are unwilling to commit extra time or effort;
- Some are currently successful and only want incremental change; and
- Some have an honest difference of opinion.

Actions to reduce resistance to change are:

- Involve those with an interest and allow them to take ownership of the change;
- Show how the change reduces their burdens;
- Reach consensus on the value of the change;
- Validate and recognize objections and be open to revision;
- Develop trusting relationships with those involved; and
- Set attainable goals and give feedback and clarification.

Successful change efforts have the following common factors:

- Broad-based ownership and support from administration;
- Positive relationships with those designing and implementing;
- Community awareness and adequate resources;
- Moral purpose aligned with philosophy, mission and culture of the school;
- A planning and evaluation stage monitored and adjusted during the process;
- More training during implementation than at the beginning; and
- Few, if any, other big changes occurring at the same time.

Due to the fact that change is a difficult task and improvement cannot occur without it, developing expertise in leading change is vital. Despite the hurdles, if one is to lead, one must lead change.

Further Thought

What changes are needed to realize the vision?

What changes are vital and have the best possibility of support and success?

Recommendations

Seek training and education in the change process.

Choose wisely on the few changes you need to implement.

Go the distance (2-3 years) to secure the change.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be resistance to change, the inability to change or too much attempted change.

Evaluation

If the current concern involves an important policy, program or practice, is it formatively and summatively evaluated and is the data used in planning and decision making?

One of the new trends in educational leadership is data-driven decision making. The collection of evaluative data is essential in giving leaders accurate information to define needs or problems and evaluate progress and results of actions taken. Only through meaningful evaluation can

strengths, weaknesses, conflicting or wasteful efforts emerge and allow leaders to analyze and take appropriate action.

Schools spend a substantial amount of time and resources on student and teacher evaluation. There are, however, many other important aspects of our schools, such as parent involvement, safety, morale, use of technology, disciplinary practices, legal compliance, staff development and a host of others. In short, if something is important and/or you want improvement, it should be evaluated.

There are a host of formal and informal instruments to use in evaluation. The expert leader will seek appropriate evaluative instruments and use both formatively and summatively. The administrator desiring expertise in leadership will evaluate progress toward the vision, decisions, communications, motivation strategies, conflict and issue resolution efforts, group collaboration, culture and climate, use of leadership style and power, change efforts, and the quantity and quality of data derived from evaluation. If expertise in leadership skill is important—evaluate it!

Further Thought

Are all teacher tests valid and useful for learning?

Are teacher evaluations constructive and do they lead to improvement?

How often are programs, policies and practices evaluated and is the data useful?

Recommendations

Compile a list of what is important in school and assess the quantity/quality of data and evaluative practices of each.

Evaluate all ten of the leadership skill areas.

Form the habit of viewing daily problems with the perspective that a root cause may be the lack of relevant data and/or meaningful evaluative efforts.

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Making the Most of College

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In 1986, the then President of Harvard University Derek Bok was looking for ways to judge what exactly students at Harvard were learning, and how better to assess both programs and faculty to determine the degree of success of student programs and student learning.

Professor Richard J. Light was invited to lead a study of student progress, which became known as the “Harvard assessment seminars.” Light soon expanded the project to involve 25 different colleges and universities and a group of 75 people over a ten-year period.

Early on, the group unanimously agreed that the study would be, first and foremost, a scientific study. They knew that the student interviews would take up precious student time and therefore would require rigor and care, as was expected by the students. Another area of agreement was that of policy. It was determined that the information gathered during the student interviews should help guide future educational policy at the university level. Light and colleagues wanted to be sure that an interview process to collect data would result in findings that would be a catalyst to action.

At first, Light met in “assessment seminars” with only the faculty participants. They realized early on, however, that they needed student participation throughout the planning and execution of the project. The students did the hands-on work of interviewing (after receiving training), data collection and various kinds of analyses of data by utilizing computers.

As the study was in progress Light received seed money for the project from President Bok, which thus emphasized the commitment for the research at the highest administrative level. Bok’s successor as president, Neil Rudenstein continued that leadership support during the course of the study.

Although Light is primarily a statistician he became impressed with the stories students had to tell throughout the interviews. Some students encouraged him to use their stories from the study because they believed their experiences in college life could benefit future students.

Over 1,600 student were interviewed, some more than once, by faculty members. Other interviews were conducted by undergraduates who were trained and supervised by faculty members. In one engaging situation, Professor

David Riesman invited 10 students to his home along with several faculty members to develop with them how to interview students in a positive and productive way.

After completing the segment of research upon which this book is based, Light suggests that some of what was learned was expected. But he also cites a number of findings and insights which he terms “surprising.”

First, learning and other critical incidents which took place in the classroom were seen as the most important by four-fifths of those interviewed. Next, a large majority of the students preferred highly structured courses with many quizzes and short assignments. Students also indicated the belief that it was critical to receive immediate feedback from the professor.

Another surprising finding was that students prefer to do homework in small cooperative study groups, rather than working alone. This perhaps indicates a cultural change that is occurring on campuses across the country. Additionally, students in the study indicated support for frequent short papers where they can receive continual feedback about their work, rather than one long paper at the end of the term.

Still another finding Light did not expect was that undergraduates spoke enthusiastically about foreign language programs. The students were pleased with the way the courses were organized in a more formal learning situation. Again, receiving feedback in these courses was important to students.

Finally, the survey found that religion and race were two powerful learning areas. Student interaction both in and outside the classroom helped to change not only themselves, but also their perspective of others’ views on these two matters.

There are many students’ stories in the book which may surprise some faculty members. Different concepts on improving teaching can be useful to professors in a number of subject areas ... the “one-minute paper” at the end of a lecture, is just one example. Of course, you will need to read the book to get a better idea of how that and other creative notions favored by students actually work.

Light, Richard J. (2001). *Making the Most of College*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 242 pp. with index, \$24.95.

Introduction to Educational Leadership and Organizational Behavior: Theory Into Practice

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The use of part-time and non-tenured faculty has dramatically increased over the past 25 years and even a decade ago, they accounted for about half of all faculty appointments in American higher education (Gappa and Leslie, 1993). The reasons given by those who employ these types of faculty are usually associated with financial concerns as colleges and universities attempt to cope with issues related to increasing tuition costs and in some cases, declining enrollment. As the trend continues to accelerate in the use of part-time faculty at the college and university level (Leslie, 1998), the texts that they use are becoming increasingly important in facilitating the connection between practitioner and the requirements of quality in academic instruction and discourse. One might argue also that quality texts provide a connection to the more research orientation of the full-time faculty. Quality texts, therefore, become increasingly important in the delivery of quality instruction in the education administration field. The recent publication by Chance and Chance (2002) is one example of a text that raises the potential for high quality delivery in the field of educational leadership by its judicious blend of research, theory and practice.

In the pantheon of leadership research and the texts that attempt to summarize and apply the research, several themes and approaches emerge. First is the dominance of leadership typologies in contextually formatting the presentation. Although the typologies may vary, they usually attempt to discuss leadership within a conceptual and theoretical framework (Northouse, 2001). While such an approach provides an element of conceptual clarity, practical limitations are often omitted in the discussion and analysis. Many theoretical frameworks lack a sound research base (Northouse, 2001). Several of the approaches, e.g., trait theory (Stodgill, 1948), style theory (Stodgill,

1974), contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967) and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978), that do advance a solid foundation of research to support their utility still suffer from conceptual limitations (Heck and Hallinger, 1999) and thus make education administrators reluctant to adapt the research for education improvement.

Second is the preference and bias toward transformational leadership (Calabrese, 2002; Green, 2001; and Snowden and Gorton, 2002). Wilmore (2002) advances the notion of the school leader as the “main facilitator of a learning community” (p. 5) and couples this facilitation within the framework of the Educational Leadership Constituent Council Standards (ELCC). The transformational process is also a recurring theme in the tests that purportedly measure leadership ability (Praxis) and the several assessment centers that evaluate leadership competency (Skette, 2002).

Third is the focus on the position of the principal (Heck and Hallinger, 1999) within both an historical and thematic context. This focus usually excludes other leadership positions (superintendent, central office, etc.) that might benefit from analysis.

Chance and Chance’s *Introduction to Educational Leadership and Organizational Behavior: Theory Into Practice* attempts to break away from the constraints of the previous thematic tendencies. Where it does continue the trend, it improves on and expands the contextual dynamics. The authors begin their presentation with the notation that there tends to be a chasm between leadership research and practice; they then present their ideas on closing the gap. Few have been as successful as they have with the integration of theory and practice.

One notable illustration of the authors’ success in blending theory and practice is their section on social systems theory, specifically the Getzels-Guba Model (pp. 69-80). After a succinct, cogent analysis, strengthened by associated graphic representations, the authors transition skillfully into a realistic application, “The Case of No Band Marching” (p. 77). The application is clearly related to the theories presented and the overall analysis facilitated by several focus questions. This very effective approach is followed at the end of each of the ten chapters related to leadership application. They also present each leadership theory from the perspective of a “menu” that the student may choose from, with no apparent preference or bias evident. Unfortunately, although well referenced, they offer little insight into the research supporting the effectiveness of the leadership theory being discussed and as a result, limit the otherwise overall utility of the analysis.

Their text is strategically divided into conceptual segments that incrementally apply theory to practice. They begin their focus with an introduction to school organizations within a historical context and then segue into how structure influences the behavior of those working in the

schools. The selection of classical bureaucratic theory, social systems theory, contingency theory and motivational theory as topics for detailed exploration, serve to facilitate a deeper understanding of these major influences and not bog down the student practitioner with a multitude of theoretical designs and the confusion that often results from such a scatter-gun approach. An excellent framework is also presented in their two chapters dealing with the decision making and change process. Their concluding chapter is equally impressive with a recommendation to the practitioner to consider a holistic approach in the application of organizational theory to educational leadership. Chance and Chance's decision to analyze educational leadership contextually within the dynamic of organizational behavior provides an opportunity to operationalize each leadership approach and realize their objective of student-practitioner orientation. It also allows other leadership positions in addition to the principal to be included in the analysis. This is in keeping with the constructivist approach to analysis and its emphasis on context in deriving meaning and influencing behavior (Donmoyer, 1999). It also reflects their emphasis on the importance of practice in the development of effective leadership, an approach championed by national groups such as the University Council for Educational Administration, the Council of Chief State School Officers and the National Council of Professors of Educational Administrators (Hoy and Tarter, 2004). In chapter 10, they are particularly successful with this approach by relating leadership and organizational behavior to the dynamics of reform and the change process. Research on the change process (e.g., Fullan, 2002) often includes the importance of leadership in promoting and implementing new ideas and concepts, but few make the connection so clearly and with such precise application.

One omission (but one easily addressed by users of the text) is the lack of mention and inclusion of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards dealing with leadership and organizational behavior (Green, 2001). Given the increased emphasis by school administrator preparation programs on complying with these standards and the emphasis by other text-oriented writers, this is an area that without the overall strength of the text might have been a problem for those choosing to use the Chance and Chance (2002) work. It is, however, easily overcome with judicious use of anecdotes that can be provided by capable adjuncts living the research and theory in their daily jobs.

Overall, this highly readable and well-researched text is a useful addition to the leadership studies field and accomplishes its mission of applying research to the "world" of practice. As with all texts, there are compromises and shortcomings, but none seriously affects the overall excellence of the work. The Chance and Chance text is well timed to take advantage of the current press to make more

effective use of the practical expertise of adjuncts and thus add balance to education administration preparation.

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Journal of Scholarship & Practice

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The *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* is a refereed, blind-reviewed, quarterly journal with a focus on research and best practices that advance the profession of educational administration. Articles that express a point of view, shed light on a contemporary issue or report findings and conclusions from a field of interest to educational administration professors will be given preference. AASA members are also invited to submit news, notices, and announcements relevant to administrators and faculty in higher education. Reactions to previously published articles are also welcome.

Length of manuscripts should be as follows: Research and best practice articles between 1,200 and 1,800 words; columns and book and media reviews between 600 and 1,000 words; and commentaries between 400 and 500 words. Citations and references are to follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, latest edition. Permission to use previously copyrighted materials is the responsibility of the author, not the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*. For review purposes, the title of the article, contributor's name, address, title, affiliation (for inclusion on the title page and in the author note), telephone and fax number, and e-mail address should appear on a *detachable* cover page. The contributor must indicate whether the submission is to be considered as a research or best practice article, book or media review or commentary. The type of submission must be indicated on the cover sheet in order to be considered. Four paper copies and one electronic version written in Microsoft Word are required. All figures and diagrams must be printed with 300 dpi or greater.

Submissions should be mailed to: Dr. Frederick L. Dembowski, Editor, *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*, Department of Educational Leadership and Technology, Southeastern Louisiana University, 1300 North General Pershing, Suite 1004, Hammond, LA 70402.

Contributors will be notified of board decisions within 90 days of receipt of their papers at the editorial office. Articles to be returned must be accompanied by a postage-paid, self-addressed envelope.

Book Review Guidelines

Book review guidelines should adhere to the Author Guidelines as found above and on the *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice* website at www.aasa.org/publications.

The format of the book review is to include the following:

- Full title of book
- Author
- City, state: publisher, year; page; price
- Name and affiliation of reviewer
- Contact information for reviewer: address, country, zip or postal code, e-mail address, telephone and fax numbers
- Date of submission

Book reviews may be submitted by e-mail as an electronic attachment to Fred Dembowski, Editor, *AASA Journal of Scholarship and Practice*, at fdembowski@lynn.edu.

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