Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014

1-1-1996

Study of the achieving styles of Massachusetts middle and high school principals to determine which styles they are using to implement the mandates of the Massachusetts Education Reform Act.

Gabrielle Marya Charest
University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

STUDY OF THE ACHIEVING STYLES OF MASSACHUSETTS MIDDLE AND
HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO DETERMINE WHICH STYLES THEY ARE
USING TO IMPLEMENT THE MANDATES OF THE MASSACHUSETTS
EDUCATION REFORM ACT

A Dissertation Presented

by

GABRIELLE MARYA CHAREST

Submitted to the Graduate School of the University of
Massachusetts in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 1996

School of Education

STUDY OF THE ACHIEVING STYLES OF MASSACHUSETTS MIDDLE AND
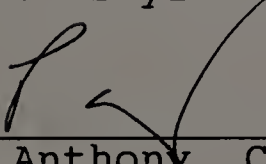HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO DETERMINE WHICH STYLES THEY ARE
USING TO IMPLEMENT THE MANDATES OF THE MASSACHUSETTS
EDUCATION REFORM ACT

A Dissertation Presented
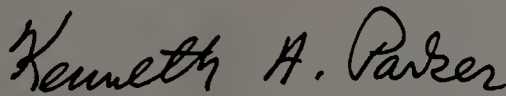
by

GABRIELLE MARYA CHAREST
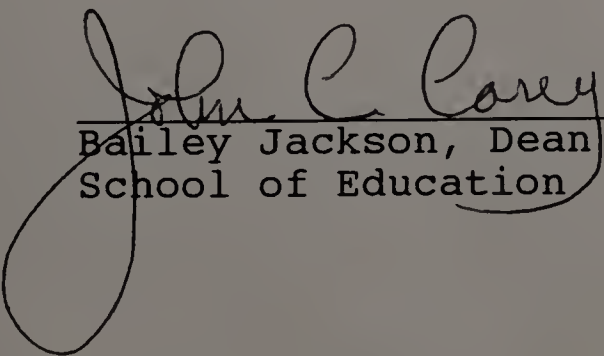

Approved as to style and content:

_____
Patricia G. Anthony, Chair

_____
Arlyn Diamond, Member

_____
Kenneth A. Parker, Member

_____
Bailey Jackson, Dean
School of Education

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The last seven and one half years of scholarly work at the University of Massachusetts has come to a close, culminating in the completion of my doctoral degree. One never accomplishes such a feat without the help, support, and encouragement of very special people.

First, everlasting gratitude to my chair, Dr. Patricia Anthony, advisor, mentor, and true friend, for her honest critiques of my work, for maintaining high expectations, and for getting me through some of the difficult situations I faced while pursuing the degree.

To Dr. Arlyn Diamond, committee member, for her efforts to stretch my thinking and writing skills, and for her belief in my ability to do more precise work.

To Dr. Kenneth Parker, committee member, for his reality-based suggestions, enthusiastic support, and appreciation of my administrative skills.

To the faculty of the University of Massachusetts School of Education for providing a challenging and exciting atmosphere for learning. Special thanks to Dr. Pat Griffin and Dr. Gretchen Rossman, who served as members of my Comprehensive Examination Committee.

To all my very special friends, especially Stephen Armstrong. I can never thank you enough for your support and encouragement, particularly during the past year.

To my dearest sister, Dode. You are wise beyond your years. Thank you for adding stability and understanding to my life and for always being there.

To my family. I have been blessed with the crowning achievements of my life: my sons, Len and Doug. Their strong faith in me has been a wonderful gift. And to my husband, Leonard, who can't wait for me to finally pick up the papers all over the house: everything happens in due time.

To the spirit and memory of my grandmother, Marya Becker Bannish, a self-taught immigrant, successful businesswoman, and working mother of fourteen, I dedicate this dissertation. Your unconditional love and belief in my abilities supports me still.

I miss you, Gram!

ABSTRACT

STUDY OF THE ACHIEVING STYLES OF MASSACHUSETTS MIDDLE AND
HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO DETERMINE WHICH STYLES
THEY ARE USING TO IMPLEMENT THE MANDATES OF THE
MASSACHUSETTS EDUCATION REFORM ACT

MAY 1996

GABRIELLE MARYA CHAREST, B.A., SAINT JOSEPH COLLEGE

M.Ed., WESTFIELD STATE COLLEGE

Ed.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor Patricia Anthony

The purpose of this study was to determine whether
current principals in the middle and high schools of
Massachusetts are using the achieving styles consistent
with the Massachusetts Education Reform Act mandate of
"participative decision-making."

The third wave of school reform has fostered the
development of new leadership models for principals,
reflecting a newer, more relational and connective
governance in schools. The Massachusetts Education Reform
Act of 1993 mandated participative governance to effect
radical changes in the schools.

An historical overview of educational administration
and the role of the principal culminates in the connective
leadership model developed by Jean Lipman-Blumen in 1992.
This model transcends the biases of traditional models and
stretches beyond transformational leadership to the
establishment of interdependent structures such as

alliances, networks, teams, and collaboratives involving all the stakeholders in the school community.

A study, using the L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory, was conducted with 42 Massachusetts middle and high school principals to determine the styles they are using to implement participative governance into their schools. SPSS was employed for a 2-tail t-test of Significance to assess whether there was a relationship between achieving style and gender, years of experience as a principal, or school level.

Results indicated no significant difference between the scores of males and females. A significant relationship was established between the competitive achieving style and school level at .030. High school principals were found to achieve significantly more competitively than middle school principals. A somewhat significant relationship of .062 was found between the collaborative achieving style and years of experience as a principal. Principals with fewer than three years of experience in the principalship have higher collaborative achieving scores.

All groups scored highest in the relational domain. Scores in the instrumental domain, representing the extended skills of connective leadership, were the lowest, indicating a need for awareness and educational programs to expand principals' achieving styles.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

As the education reform movement of the eighties becomes actualized in the nineties, it is clear that educational leaders must embrace new ways of thinking and doing for systemic change to occur in schools (Joyce, Wolf, & Calhoun, 1993). Massachusetts, one of many states to legislate school reform, passed the Massachusetts Education Reform Act (MERA) in 1993, mandating the institution- alization of radical changes in the management of schools, in the methods of teaching, in the tracking of students, and in the involvement of parents and community.

Situating this era of school reform against the background of its historical setting provides a clearer picture of how changes in society can be reflected in the schools. This is a time of challenges, both positive and negative; the former include increasing diversity, technological breakthroughs, the development of networks, local, national, and global, in person and on line, new social alliances connecting "minority groups", and international alliances to fight political tyranny and the scourge of disease; while the latter include social upheaval evidenced in violence, bigotry, the polarization of society, and the loss of faith in authority. This

rapid, multi-directional pace of change has become part of the baggage accompanying school reform.

Principals of Massachusetts schools must follow the mandate of the MERA to use "participatory decision-making". Traditional power-oriented leadership strategies are no longer appropriate. Therefore, principals must look to a new leadership model, one which incorporates the complexities of relationship, connection, and care (Lipman-Blumen, 1992, in press; Gilligan, 1982, 1986; Kanter, 1983, 1989) and which focuses on collaboratively accomplishing the changes specified in the Massachusetts Education Reform Act.

Implementation of change is a process which requires a new approach to leadership (Hughes, 1994). Lipman-Blumen delineates this new kind of leadership: one that will move from "independence to interdependence, from control to connection, from competition to collaboration, from individual to group, and from tightly-linked geopolitical alliances to loosely-coupled, global networks . . . " (in press, p. 3-1). This concept of leadership is inclusive; it is aimed at opening leadership opportunities to many who heretofore were excluded.

Background

The third wave of school reform is over a decade old. Implementation of reforms has been difficult and slow, however, in part because there are school needs pertaining

2

to leadership that still remain unaddressed. First, there is a need to provide administrators with the knowledge, skills, and techniques necessary to effect a more collaborative and participative approach to governing the school. To illustrate, at least seven citations in the Massachusetts Education Reform Act (Chapter 71) refer to the school principal's responsibility to practice shared leadership.

> In each school building containing the grades nine to twelve, inclusive, the principal, in consultation with the school council, shall prepare and distribute to each student a student handbook setting forth the rules pertaining to the conduct of students.(Sec. 37 H; ll 19-23)

> It shall be the responsibility of the principal in consultation with professional staff of the building to promote participatory decision making among all professional staff for the purpose of developing educational policy. (Sec. 59 B; ll 22-25)

> At each public elementary, secondary and independent vocational school in the commonwealth there shall be a school council consisting of the school principal, who shall co-chair the council; parents of students attending the school who shall be selected by the parents of students attending such school. . . . (Sec. 59 C; ll 1-3)

> The principal, except as otherwise provided herein, shall have the responsibility for defining the composition of and forming the group pursuant to a representative process approved by the superintendent and school committee. . . . (Sec. 59 C; ll 17-20)

> The school council shall meet regularly with the principal of the school and shall assist in the identification of the educational needs of the students attending the school, in the review of the annual school budget, and in the formulation of a school improvement plan. . . . (Sec. 59 C; ll 35-38)

> The principal of each school, in consultation
> with the school council established pursuant to
> this section shall adopt educational goals for
> the schools. . . (Sec. 59 C; ll 39-41)
>
> Superintendents and principals in every school
> district in the commonwealth shall pursue
> opportunities to establish school-community
> partnerships that may advance policy development,
> staff development, curriculum development,
> instructional enrichment, and may provide
> material and financial support. (Sec. 59 D; ll
> 1-5)

The principal's authority and responsibility have

expanded to include the planning and implementation of

reform programs in conjunction with stakeholders, i.e.,

those with vested interests in the schools. It is one

thing, however, to acknowledge that the principal's role

has changed dramatically and quite another to provide what

is necessary for this transition to take place. Experience

tells us that there is often little or no training

opportunity for the principal to learn to modify his/her

style. Therefore, in schools where autocratic principals

still hold the reins, they continue to lead in a direct,

top-down style reflecting the hierarchical behaviors that

emanate from the industrial model.

A typical scene illustrates the problem. As parents

become increasingly aware of the role in school governance

which MERA entitles them to serve, they may put pressure on

the principal to empower them as participants. A principal

following the industrial model finds it difficult to

relinquish total control even as he/she is under mandate to

do so. The frustration of both parties may lead to clashes

4

which further complicate progress toward change in governance.

The second need within current mandated educational reforms is the establishment of an environment of human connectedness and community building. This connectedness, the creation of bonds of caring between and among people, was defined by Gilligan (1982) as an ethic in which humans assume responsibility for one another and act responsibly toward one another. Many school-age children must cope on a daily basis with poverty, family breakups, and social illnesses (Mitchell, 1990a, 1990b). Their world may include changes in parental employment, violence, disease, and the social problems of alienation and separation. These conditions often result in their lack of personal security. To establish a sense of security Mitchell calls on school leaders to create school communities for the "consistent and continuous nurturance of belonging" (1990a, p. 39).

Beck further portrays what caring involves: "(1) receiving the other's perspective; (2) responding appropriately to the awareness that comes from this reception, and (3) remaining committed to others and to the relationship" (1994, p. 12-13). Care demands honest and open two-way communication. Sensitivity to the needs of all parties determines the behaviors which will be used to express care.

Noddings (1984, 1992) challenges educators to reclaim care as the basis for American schools so that students develop a sense of security in knowing that they are cared for by the adults in the school, and so that they may learn to care for others, for the earth, for ideas, for the environment, for all things living and human-made. This is community-building at its best.

Beck recommends a framework of care for administrators as they redefine their roles in the schools.

> First, a caring ethic would prompt leaders to assert that professional educators should take the lead in defining values and in ensuring that schools support and nurture the development of all persons. Second, it would encourage the development of nonbureaucratic decision-making school structures. Third, this ethic would emphasize skills and competencies rather than assigned titles as determinants of organizational roles, and it would encourage the separation of role and status. Fourth, caring would prompt leaders to support collaborative efforts among and between students, teachers, and administrators. Finally the ethic would call for structures conducive to honest, ongoing communication between persons within schools and between educators and those in the larger community. (1994, p.82-83)

The call for the inclusion of caring in the restructuring of schools has prompted the Phi Delta Kappan and Educational Leadership, two prominent voices in the world of public education, to devote recent issues to caring in schools. Newly formed partnerships among administrators, teachers, students, parents and townspeople in the school community look to connection and care as integral bases for school leadership.

The two basic needs waiting to be addressed within the changing role of an educational administrator--training for principals in new ways of leadership, and establishing a school environment of care and connectedness--have been established. Both are strongly related to women through a body of literature which has grown over the past two decades.

Gender studies of the early socialization of children appeared to portray a pattern of caring behavior among females. Chodorow (1974) noted that girls remained in an ongoing relationship with their mothers while boys separated and developed firm ego boundaries. Lever (1976) observed boys at play and noticed their competitiveness and tendency to be direct with friends while girls tended to subordinate game rules to maintaining relationships. Early socialization patterns appeared to carry through to adulthood, often resulting in distinctive gender-based styles of leadership and decision-making (Lipman-Blumen, 1984).

Psychiatrist Jean Baker Miller described women's sense of self as "organized around being able to make and then to maintain affiliations and relationships" (1976, p. 83). Viewed this way, women never fully reach the highest stage of moral development according to Kohlberg, Levine, and Hewer (1983), and Piaget (1948). Looking through another lens, Gilligan's research on moral development and decision-making (1982, 1986, 1988) incorporated both

genders. She concluded that early female socialization appears to result in more relational, nurturing, and caring responses on the part of women.

> When one begins with the study of women and derives developmental constructs from their lives, the outline of a moral conception different from that described by Freud, Piaget, or Kohlberg begins to emerge and informs a different description of development. In this conception, the moral problem arises from conflicting responsibilities rather than from competing rights and requires for its resolution a mode of thinking that is contextual and narrative rather than formal and abstract. (Gilligan, 1982, p. 19)

Since leadership style, moral development, and achieving style appear to be learned responses resulting from early socialization, and the early socialization appears to be gender-related--at least within the confines of race and class in the cited research--this study will examine middle and high school principals in Massachusetts to determine first, whether there is a relationship between their achieving styles and their gender. Second, it will consider whether length of administrative experience, i.e., less than three years (the time since the passage of the Massachusetts Education Reform Act), or more than three years as a principal may be related to principals' achieving styles. Acknowledging that the middle school philosophy supports collaboration, cooperation, and caring as part of the school's educational program, this study will also consider whether the school level, i.e., middle

or high school, is related to the principals' achieving
styles.

Statement of the Problem

The Massachusetts Education Reform Act directs
principals to recreate their roles and to adopt leadership
styles which are more participatory, connective, and
collaborative. Principals are working more directly than
ever before with diverse stakeholders. Through connective
efforts they must strive to provide a needy school
population the programs and skills that will foster
security, belonging, and commitment as well as a sense of
community and hope for the future.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether
current principals in the middle and high schools of
Massachusetts are using the achieving styles consistent
with the MERA mandate of "participative decision-making".
The ASI FORM-13 will be used in this study to discover
principals' achieving styles and to determine whether they
are utilizing a leadership model which forsakes the
hierarchical, authoritarian, top-down approach for one
which is more participatory, nurturing, and connected.

Definition of Terms

Achieving Style. "Achieving styles are the preferred strategies, or characteristic styles, individuals use to accomplish tasks (Lipman-Blumen, 1987, p. 1-1).

Caring. An ethic and an action which begins with an attitude of openness and receptivity, caring is a commitment to assume responsibility for others and to act responsibly toward others (Gilligan, 1982; Beck, 1994).

L-BL Individual Achievement Styles Inventory; ASI FORM-13. A Likert-type questionnaire developed by Jean Lipman-Blumen and Harold Leavitt, it consists of 45 statements designed to elicit a person's primary style or domain of achieving as well as his/her range of individual achieving styles. The configuration used to portray the achievement styles is circular, alluding to the fact that the range is often contiguous (Lipman-Blumen, 1987).

Likert questionnaire. This type of questionnaire uses a seven point rating scale for each question, ranging from "always" (7) to "never" (1).

MERA - Massachusetts Educational Reform Act (1993). This law expands the leadership role of teachers and requires principals to preside over school councils. It also views principals as change agents who will work collaboratively to incorporate the best new practices into their schools.

MSSAA - Massachusetts Secondary School Administrators Association. A statewide network of middle and secondary

10

school administrators, MSSAA is affiliated with the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

NASSP - National Association of Secondary School Principals. NASSP is a national and international professional group of middle and secondary school administrators which provides literature, workshops, a convention, and published materials for its members.

NEAS&C - New England Association of Schools and Colleges. Primarily an accrediting agency, NEAS&C provides materials for a self-study, an evaluation every ten years by a visiting committee, and other incentives for excellence.

Stakeholders. Stakeholders are those persons with a vested interest in the school. They include professional staff, students, parents, and community members.

Traditional. In this text, traditional refers to the pre-reform administrative literature and style in which the leader is described as "the boss". The traditional style is autocratic, linear, centralized, and top-down.

Delimitations

There are seven delimitations to this study:

1. This study will not concern itself with the principals of elementary schools.

2. This study will not concern itself with race or class.

3. The conclusions drawn from this study may not be able to be generalized to other states or regions of the country.

4. The responses to the L-BL Individual Achievement Styles Inventory are totally subjective, representative of those who respond.

5. The respondents may be influenced by what they perceive their role to be.

6. The respondents may spend too little or too much time on their responses.

7. Female respondents may feel it necessary to exercise more care in answering the questionnaire since they know that their roles as principals are being scrutinized.

Organization of the Thesis

The literary review presented in Chapter 2 weaves the fabric of current leadership theory out of strands representing disciplines and theories and includes ideas from women's developmental psychology as well as from the theory of multiple intelligences. Reflecting the vastness of research on leadership theory, historical, developmental, and contemporary thinking are all plaited into the warp and the woof of the leadership model. The textile is then embroidered with the essential requirements of the school principalship elucidated in the third wave of school reform.

Chapter 3 describes the L-BL Individual Achievement Styles Inventory, a questionnaire administered to N middle and N high school principals in Massachusetts. This inventory is a quantitative instrument which will be used to determine whether gender or years of experience as a principal have any relationship to an individual's achievement style.

Chapter 4 presents, analyzes, and discusses the results of the quantitative study, ASI FORM-13.

Chapter 5 summarizes the research project, draws conclusions, and makes recommendations. It includes suggested areas for improvement and further study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter contains a definition of leadership and gives an overview of the development of school administration. There is a review of the three most important descriptions of the principal as leader: the instructional leader, the transformational leader, and the connective leader.

A Definition of Leadership

A lifetime student of leadership, Rost (1991) bemoans the fact that ". . . as of 1990, scholars and practitioners do not know, with certainty, what leadership is" (p.6). He proceeds to analyze and critique the definitions and semi-definitions of "leadership" in hundreds of books and periodicals from 1900 to 1990 before establishing a need for and arriving at a definition which he considers appropriate and adequate to effect a paradigm shift: "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes" (p. 102).

In the domain of business the words and concepts of leadership and management are often intertwined. In education, there is certainly a need for principals to be managers, but the emphasis on principals as leaders,

beginning as far back as the effective schools research (Brookover, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Lezotte, 1980) has mushroomed to a full-fledged call for principals to be transformational, collaborative, and finally connective leaders.

Because much of the current literature on management also stresses leadership as necessary for moving ahead in an organization, the emphasis in this paper will be on leadership (Alves, 1993). References made to works on management will be considered only when their context coincides with the explanation of leadership which Rost makes when he distinguishes between leadership and management.

According to Rost (1991) leadership includes four essentials:

> (a) The relationship is based on influence. (b)
> Leaders and followers are the people in this
> relationship. (c) Leaders and followers intend
> real changes. (d) Leaders and followers develop
> mutual purposes. (p. 104)

Management, however,

> (a) . . . is an authority relationship. (b) The
> people in this relationship include at least one
> manager and one subordinate. (c) The manager(s)
> and subordinate(s) coordinate their activities.
> (d) The manager(s) and subordinate(s) produce and
> sell particular goods and/or services. (p. 145)

The early descriptions of school administration appear to have followed Rost's ideas about management, while newer descriptions are based on his ideas about leadership. There has been an infusion of different philosophies,

notions, theories, and concepts into the factory model of
school administration resulting in a shift which this
writer believes corresponds better to the current needs of
the school community.

Because leadership occurs every day and under myriad
circumstances and between all kinds of people, there
appears to be a process involved, and that process seems to
require some kind of trust. Chemers (1984), John Gardner
(1990), and Uhlir (1989) all view leadership as a process.
For Chemers, it is an internal process "of interpersonal
influence" (p. 91), it is situational, and it allows the
leader to choose from a broad range the most appropriate
behaviors consistent with the culture of the organization
and the style of the leader. For Uhlir, it is a "process
of causing action through the orchestration of human
talent" (p. 28).

John Gardner (1990) looks at leadership as a process
wherein an individual "induces a group to pursue objectives
held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her
followers" (p. 1). He points to a two-directional flow of
communication as an integral part of leadership. The
proper historical setting also contributes to the
effectiveness of the leader. A good example of the
importance of historical setting or situation is
Churchill's bold leadership of Britain through World War
II. After the war, the situation changed, and Churchill
lost his prime ministership.

Consider that: "Leadership is a process, defined by situation and culture, which involves the leader and followers in a trusting relationship to pursue, through communication and action, goals which are beneficial to the organization" (Charest, 1990). Leadership is not static; therefore it cannot be a condition or a state. The word "process", in its full Latin meaning, "going on", is used to describe this phenomenon. Because it is "going on", the leader and followers find themselves in different situations but also bound by the culture, the particular values and beliefs, of the organization. In order to work together successfully to achieve goals, trust is an essential component of the group dynamic. Communication is also essential for the group to arrive at shared goals and to establish which actions will complete the change process.

This last description of leadership will be used to define the principal's leadership role because it is consistent with the elements stipulated in the reform literature to effect a collaborative school (Smith & Scott, 1990). This description will also be addressed later in conjunction with the interpretation of the principal as connective leader.

An Overview of Leadership in Educational Administration

An historic examination of texts in educational administration reveals an evolution of thought/theory

consistent with what has developed in other disciplines. During the early years of this century, school leadership was a man's--a great man's--domain. Women, or rather, unmarried women, functioned well and were accepted as teachers, but as school administration began to develop as a separate function, it became clear that it was a man's world. Chancellor, nationally renowned school superintendent and later professor at Wooster College, claimed: "Theoretically, most men are far better administrators than women of equal education and experience. They deal with affairs more broadly and more rapidly, and are far less influenced by details and personalities" (1915, p. 181-182).

Reflecting the industrial model of the time, the school leader was an authority figure who carried out his duties with efficiency. The human factor was not being addressed.

In places where a teacher-principal was involved, as in some elementary schools, "Such is the man's superior executive gift, that he can do the administrator's work before and after school and between recitation periods. Cares of this sort worry most women" (Chancellor, 1915, p. 183). The teacher-principal would keep attendance records, smooth out relations between the school and home, and make sure that the teachers carried out their assignments.

Chancellor does concede that the supervising principal, one who did not teach, had a greater

responsibility: to organize the school efficiently, to help teachers, to sustain harmonious relations between the school and the home, to promote a favorable opinion of the school, and to maintain good relationships with teaches and with the board of education. He admits that there are great benefits for the supervising principal: (a) the line of duties is definite and the principal does not have to deal with disruption; (b) evenings and holidays are free; (c) there is plenty of time to supervise both the children and the teachers; (d) the career can last into old age since there is not much drain on the principal's strength and nervous system; and (e) the principal has a good social position in the community.

In considering the role of women, Chancellor (1915) does mention that the school board might consider for membership one well-educated woman of the upper class whose children are grown. He does not extend any other leadership possibilities to women of any other class, nor does he mention people of color.

Early trait theories (Stogdill, 1948) indicate that most, but certainly not all, men fit the mold of the early principal by virtue of their gender. Statistics show (Valverde & Brown, 1988) that few men of color held such a position, and certainly, the weaker sex just was not up to the burden (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988). Neither Cubberley (1916), nor Chancellor (1915), nor Strayer (1920), even mention people of color.

Cubberly states:

> The knowledge, insight, skill, and qualities for
> helpful leadership of the principal of the school
> practically determine the ideals and standards of
> achievements of both teachers and pupils within
> the school. The best of supervisory organization
> cannot make a strong school where the principal
> is weak and inefficient, while a strong and
> capable principal can develop a strong school
> even in cities where this general supervisory
> organization is notoriously weak and ineffective
> and the professional interest of the teachers is
> notoriously low. (1916, p. 191)

Cubberley's belief was that the educational leader had

superior knowledge and should, therefore, have superior

power. There is in his description a negative allusion to

the relationship between the principal and the teachers,

and to the relationship among the principal, the teachers,

and the students who are the what-for of the organization.

Today it is acknowledged that a school leader with a vision

can be an inspiration to a school, and that an efficient

leader is necessary to deal with the workload, but that

leader still has to interact with teachers, students,

parents, and community members who all have a voice in a

more participatory, democratic type of environment

(Massachusetts Education Reform Act, 1993; Smith & Scott,

1990).

The period from the mid-twenties into the thirties

witnessed the rise of the human relations and the Gestalt

psychology movements. The seeds of the focus on people and

relationships were planted during this time. Elton Mayo

(1933) conducted what came to be known as the Hawthorne

experiments. These experiments, which set out to find the relation of the quality and quantity of illumination to worker efficiency, inadvertently changed supervisory conditions in the factory to a more positive level. All workers increased in efficiency because of the more positive supervision. Consideration, the human factor, was recognized for the first time. In school administration, questions could now be raised about the relationship between the principal and staff members. Would the principal's positive supervision of staff result in a more productive school environment?

Mary Parker Follett (1926) incorporated psychology into her writing about working conditions. She advocated using some of this new psychology to change worker attitudes and foster not only increased responsibility but also a sense of pride in work. She considered organizational problems as fundamentally human relations problems. Follett's input foreshadows current research on the transformational leader and the connective leader which focuses on the importance of relationship in the leadership process.

After World War II, there was a move to track down those specific traits that would account for the leadership of the great administrator. If these traits were isolated, then it would be easy to identify the great man, the one best man, to lead. In 1948, Stogdill reviewed 120 traits and concluded that they failed to correlate in a strong

manner with effective leadership. This, however, was not
the end of trait theory.

Pierce and Merrill (1957) later re-considered
leadership traits. At the top of their list was
intelligence, particularly as demonstrated in verbal, math,
and reading areas, followed by knowledge, certain physical
characteristics (energy, possibly height), socio-
psychological characteristics (insight, originality and
adaptability, initiative, persistence, ambition, judgment
and decision, responsibility, integrity, conviction, self-
confidence, dominance, popularity and prestige,
disposition, introversion-extroversion, cooperation, social
activity and mobility, social and economic status, fluency
of speech). Their study found the highest correlations
with leader behavior to be popularity, originality, and
judgment, while insight, initiative, and cooperation showed
some significance. "Most of the traits and attributes
which are significantly related to leader behavior appear
to be those which are associated with the personality of
the leader as opposed to position" (p. 332). Pierce and
Merrill did acknowledge that personal characteristics
represented only one aspect of the study of leadership, and
that there was a need for further consideration of social
situation and of followers.

Before the fifties, literature on leadership in
educational administration was neither controversial nor
dynamic. Despite Dewey's abundant writings on education,

he did not concentrate on the concept of leadership. What
he did do, however, was to connect educational
administration to his democratic philosophy of education.
He argued for the inclusion of teachers into the power
structure of the school, even as he recognized three phases
of conflict in administering the school:

> There is, first, what may be called the
> intellectual-professional problem.
> Superintendents, principals, supervisors, etc.,
> are engaged in the direction of an educational
> enterprise . . . He--or she--not only
> participates in the development of minds and
> character, but participates in a way that imposes
> special intellectual responsibilities. (1958, p.
> 67)

Dewey, of course, recognized that the teachers would most
likely be excluded from tasks relating to planning and
implementing the curriculum.

> In the second place, administrators are
> particularly charged with problems arising from
> personal relations. . . . He has to maintain
> cooperative relations with members of a school
> board; to deal with taxpayers and politicians; to
> meet parents of varied views and ideals.
> Moreover, the problems of personal adjustment
> that offer themselves are often conflicting,
> because of the opposed demands of different
> groups. (1958, p. 67).

> In the third place, the administrator by the
> nature of his calling has a large amount of
> detail and routine to which he must attend.
> There is always the danger that he will become so
> immersed in this phase of his work that the other
> two phases of his activity are submerged. . . .
> The tendency in this direction is increased
> because the powerful influence of business
> standards and methods in the community affects
> the members of an educational system, and then
> teachers are regarded after the model of
> employees in a factory. (1958, p. 68)

The preceding statements from Dewey were actually written in 1937 and indicate how perceptive he was in mapping out some of the difficulties that administrative theory would attend to in subsequent years. Curiously, however, standard texts in school administration do not allude to Dewey as a major source in developing theory. Consider Walton's description:

> The subject matter of educational administration is not a thing of intellectual beauty. Borrowing fragments from several diverse disciplines -- law, political science, social psychology, sociology, architecture, and statistics -- it lacks a well-defined, highly organized body of subject matter; it has no elegant and simple theoretical structure; and as literature it is singularly devoid of aesthetic qualities. (1955, p. 169)

Educational leadership theory was reflective of the eclecticism in general leadership theory. Some notions of group involvement had come to be considered (Halpin, 1957), but basically,

> When all is said and done in group discussion, it is up to the boss to make the decision and accept responsibility for it. A skillful leader will seek to avoid decisions that will needlessly antagonize subordinates. He will weigh their ideas and advice most carefully. And, when necessary, after he has made the decision, he will seek for it the sort of support that comes from voluntary cooperation. (Whyte, in Campbell & Gregg [Eds.], 1957, p. 168)

This is still the factory model with little attention paid to the leader-follower relationship.

By the end of this decade, however, there had begun a major search for the substance and theory of educational

administration, reflecting perhaps the general enthusiasm for scientific investigation following the launch of Sputnik (Hagman & Schwartz, 1955; Griffiths, 1956; Sargent, & Belisle, 1955). Sears (1950) posited that "administrative function derives its nature from the nature of the services it directs" (p. 49). He sought to devise an administrative mechanism, then take it to a school and put it into practice. This represented another factor model attempt at attaining the one best answer. Just as the well-tooled part fit the machine perfectly, so would the well-designed mechanism fit the school.

Based on the early works of Cubberley (1916) and Strayer (1920), and in conjunction with their own experiences, Mort and Ross (1957) developed administrative principles which they divided into the following groups: (a) the purposes of education; (b) humanitarian principles--democracy, justice; (c) prudential principles--economy, checks and balances; and (d) tempo principles--adaptability, flexibility, stability. They reasoned that

> these principles are dimensions of goodness in
> action, these principles can be a series of tests
> to decide whether or not a proposed act will be a
> wise action, and that such principles can have
> specific application in illuminating and making
> rational the subject matter of professional
> training for school administration. (p. 48)

They saw administration as a service, and if one could set down the principles of this service, then one could learn the principles and be a good school leader/administrator. While a good beginning, this approach represents an

incomplete picture, lacking as it does any consideration for different situations, for different needs for leader and followers, and for the nature of the followers.

Gulick and Urwick (1937) codified Henry Fayol's concepts about the administrative process into the new famous POSDCRB: Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, and Budgeting. Once again, administration is seen as a service and this service is regulated through certain functions. There is little room here for cooperative decision making because it is the administrator who is responsible for carrying out the work. The nature and function of followers is not an issue.

Examining administration from the structure and function levels, Coladarci and Getzels (1955) described a hierarchy of personnel relationships within the educational system, centering in this hierarchy the responsibility for the allocation and integration of roles and facilities to attain the institutional goals. They set up the pyramid, another defined, factor model, so that the system would function, albeit in a top-down way. Curiously, the pyramid survives today, a configuration anomalous to current models of administration such as transformational leadership and connective leadership.

Leadership styles came into focus next. Defining three styles of leadership, autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic, a study was done with adult leaders of children's groups (Lewin, Lippett, & White, 1939). Results

26

indicated that, under autocratic leadership, the group's

reaction was discontent, submissiveness, dependence,

aggression; with laissez-faire leadership, the group showed

lack of purpose--a representation of the style--, less work

was accomplished and there was frustration. The group

demonstrated stronger work motivation, greater originality,

more sharing, and more group cohesiveness with a democratic

leader.

Theory X and Theory Y were developed by McGregor to

explain, in the case of the former, the supposed tradition

of the worker's dislike of work and his need to be coerced,

or at least directed to work, and his avoidance of

responsibility. In the case of the latter, Theory Y, the

worker was considered to like work, to have the capacity

for creativity, and even, under certain circumstances, the

interest in seeking responsibility. "Theory Y is an

invitation to innovation" (1960, p. 257).

Likert envisioned an organizational unit in which each

section was involved in group decision making and was

linked to the other sections both horizontally and

vertically so that an overlapping structure resulted.

> An organization meeting this requirement will
> have an effective interaction-influence system
> through which the relevant communications flow
> readily, the required influence is exerted
> laterally, upward, and downward, and the
> motivational forces needed for coordination are
> created. (1967, p. 167)

The situational aspect of leadership behavior was

addressed by Fiedler (1967) who believed that the leader's

27

style depends on the situation and on the leader's personality. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) expanded situational leadership into a model through which the leader can learn to modify his/her behavior in relation to the needs of followers. They focused on four combinations of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior which the leader could use to meet the needs of the group. Task behavior involves the leader specifying what the responsibilities of the group are, while relationship behavior involves communication: listening, facilitating, and supporting. The situational leadership grid follows:

Style 1   Telling   high task   low relationship
Style 2   Selling   high task   high relationship
Style 3   Participating   low task   high relationship
Style 4   Delegating   low task   low relationship

Figure 1. Situational Leadership Grid

The style of leadership behavior recommended for use is in direct relation to the readiness of the group. All leaders, however, probably do not use nor could they use all four styles (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Reddin, 1970).

Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand (1977) recognize the principal as organizer, communicator, instructional leader, and line officer. The teachers are seen as having some part in decision making as far as goals and objectives and general agreement on policies, but they do not want to do more. There is a presumption on the authors' part that the

teachers do not want a bigger share in what goes on in the school and that maybe they are not intelligent enough. Their list of functions for the principal (in today's school anyway) includes more than what one human being alone can accomplish.

As late as 1977, Erickson cautions administrators about overemphasis on human relations and group dynamics. The leader has the responsibility and contractual obligation to accomplish a specific mission. This is still a top-down model of leadership which still recommends against full inclusion of the staff.

Current Views of the Principalship

Introduction

Over the past forty years there has been an evolution in thinking about the principalship. This section will depict the principal first as instructional leader, then as transformational leader, and finally as connective leader.

A whole literature exists on the effective schools movement, including a codification of the role of the principal, i.e., that he (I use "he" because that is the word used in the literature, and the gender of the pronoun fits the prototype of the time) be an instructional leader. Although this role began with the effective schools movement, it remains popular today, particularly in

mainstay publications such as the <u>NASSP Journal</u> and <u>Educational Leadership</u>.

Following the school reform writings of the early eighties, there emerged a description of the principal as transformational leader, i.e., a super change agent. Stemming originally from the field of political science (Burns 1978; Bass, 1985), the transformational leader seeks to implement changes which, in this case, translates into the principal seeking to implement the recommendations of the reform literature.

Building on theory foundations of Gilligan (1982), Kanter (1977, 1983, 1989) and John Gardner (1983), leadership theory will be stretched and expanded to go beyond collaboration and participation. Jean Lipman-Blumen's concept of connective leadership (1992; in press) confronts the challenges and expectations of life in the twenty-first century, and translates them into a leadership theory which thrives on building connections with others. The connective school principal creates networks, alliances, and partnerships to transcend exclusion and the "us vs. them" mentality, resulting in strong coalitions for better schools.

The Principal as Instructional Leader

In 1966, Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, Partland, Mood, Weinfield, and York stated in their report: ". . . schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement

that is independent of his background and general social context. . . " (p. 325). Family background was the determiner of student achievement and schools were, in effect, passive institutions. Looking to challenge this report, Brookover (1979), Edmonds (1979) and Lezotte (1980) were among the early researchers to work in the field with school districts. The resulting literature has been termed the effective schools movement. Although some descriptors have been added over the years, those which Edmonds originally established are nearly always included among them: (a) strong instructional leadership by the principal; (b) high expectations and standards; (c) a safe and orderly environment; (d) clear instructional focus; and (e) frequent monitoring of student progress.

Nine recurrent themes regarding the effective principal have been highlighted in a review of the effective schools literature (Persell, Cookson, & Lyons, 1982). An elucidation of these themes follows.

The First Theme

There is a consensus on and commitment to academic goals in the schools. Principals frame and communicate goals (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). They have a sense of vision (Cawelti, 1987a). Goal-setting and articulation of vision are also recognized by Cohen (in Finn, 1983), and by Rutherford (1985). Conceived within this theme, the word

"vision" has been developed in a literature of its own which will be examined further into this chapter.

The Second Theme

The principal establishes a climate of high academic expectations and respect. Communicating and monitoring reasonable expectations is mentioned by Gibbs (1989) and Hallinger and Murphy, (1986); while McCurdy (1983) talks of emphasizing school priorities.

The Third Theme

Possibly the most powerful, and at the same time the most controversial and least well defined theme is that of instructional leadership. A Maryland study (Austin, 1978) found strong leadership in effective schools, while in Delaware (Spartz, Valdes, McCormick, Myers, & Geppert, 1977) effective schools were found to have principals who emphasized administrative activities. It is helpful to begin this examination by describing instructional leaders. They ". . . set an example for the students and staff, define scholastic goals for the school, and actively support the curriculum and teaching that promotes these goals (Finn, 1987, p. 22). The principals ". . . emphasize achievement, set instructional strategies, ensure an orderly atmosphere, frequently evaluate student progress, coordinate instructional programs, and support teachers" (Mace-Matluck, 1987, p. 13). Georgiades (1984) views the

principal as agent in charge of carrying out the steps of the change process: awareness, information, assessment, modification, pilot, monitoring, institutionalization.

Goodlad (1983) perceives the role of instructional leader to be so vast in and of itself that the principal would be much too busy to handle the administrative side of her/his position. The skills required are too diverse to merge both roles. According to Goodlad, the fact that most principals are trained as managers, and need to be available to put out the fires and keep things running smoothly, means they are not equipped or able to be change agents. Rather than recommend that principals acquire new skills and updated training, some (Rallis & Highsmith, 1986; Gersten, Carnine, & Green 1982) would suggest that teachers take on the function of change agents. Generally speaking, teachers already carry a heavy burden. Adding to that burden would not seem to be a reasonable way to accomplish the goals of instructional leadership.

In a school of any substantial size where the principal has assistants, it is appropriate that the principal share the duties of instructional leader with the assistants. Another factor to be considered is school reform. In Massachusetts, the Education Reform Act mandates the involvement not only of the principal, but also the teachers, students, parents, and community members, in school restructuring and other reform initiatives. Such initiatives currently place more

emphasis on time and learning (Canady & Rettig, 1995) and what is/will be going on in the classroom. This is a positive move which is geared to increase student achievement and involvement, and reduce the incidents of misbehavior. There should be a substantial savings in time spent on discipline, time which the instructional leader can spend on carrying out his/her duties.

Despite a few voices to the contrary, principals have been encouraged through articles in journals as <u>Educational Leadership</u>, <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u>, and the <u>NASSP Bulletin</u>, to take on the role of instructional leaders. Cawelti (1987b, p. 3), provided the formula for instructional leadership:

Clear goals + Strong incentives   =   Instructional
         + Appropriate Skills   Leadership

Distinguishing instructional leadership on two levels, general and specific, Newberg & Glatthorn (1982) recommend that principals can be effective on the general level by providing vision, direction, and coordination, while staff can assume the specific responsibilities. Well-coordinated administrative teams are mentioned by Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley and McCleary (1990), in their work for the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Indeed, the secondary principals may have more options, since it is likely that they have other administrators working with them to share the work.

The Fourth Theme

This theme is personality traits. It should be noted
that these traits are not throwbacks to the research of
Pierce & Merrill (1957) in the "trait era". Cohen, of the
National Institute of Education, describes the principal as
one who is proactive, deals with ambiguity and conflicting
demands, and has personal resourcefulness (in Finn, 1983).
Willingness to experiment, to tolerate messiness, having a
long-term view and a willingness to revise systems are
traits listed by Rallis and Highsmith (1986), while
Rosenblum and Jastrzab (1980) say principals take charge
and desire to make the school over in their own image.
This latter opinion may be one of the roots of the biggest
criticism of effective principals: that they are autocratic
and operate in a top-down, hierarchical style. If the
principal makes the school over in a self-image and in a
top-down way, then it would seem that the criticism is
valid. However, it is possible that the image of the
principal, and model for the make-over is an open,
inclusive, and collaborative one, so the entire process
could be considered progressive and in-tune with current
educational reforms.

The Fifth Theme

Interpersonal leadership is the fifth theme.
Principals are managers of attention, meaning, and trust
among all involved parties. In interpersonal leadership

35

situations, people feel they are important individually and as part of the community; learning and competence matter; and work is exciting. There is a shift from the traditional hierarchical system to a model that emphasizes the process and involvement of leader and followers. The leader sets the agenda collaboratively and all work together toward common objectives (Lawson, 1988). Herein lies the connection to all of the empowering literature that will be discussed later in this paper.

The Sixth Theme

Principals facilitate teachers' actions. They seek input from teachers and students with regard to policy (Foster, 1988). They are symbolic leaders who offer support to teachers (Deal & Celotti, 1980), particularly by maintaining order, minimizing class disruptions, and modeling the behavior they expect from staff (Taylor & Valentine, 1985; Daresh & Liu, 1985; Rutherford, 1985, Cawelti, 1987a). Their involvement as symbols will be discussed later in this chapter with relation to school culture.

The Seventh Theme

Organization is the seventh theme. While Finn (1983) sees the principal needing knowledge of organizational behavior, McCurdy (1983), the NEA (1986), and Cawelti (1987a) give the principal the task of developing,

organizing, and coordinating the organization of people and
resources. There appears to be little input from the staff
in this area. If the principal is working alone, then
organization would seem to be solely a managerial task, and
one more indication of the "strong" principal who knows
what is good for everyone else.

The Eighth Theme

Consider the principal as user of time. A protector
of instructional time (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986), the
principal uses it to evaluate and improve instructional
programs (Finn, 1983), provide a favorable climate for
learning (Taylor & Valentine, 1985), and conduct frequent
and substantive classroom observations to monitor learning
(Cawelti, 1987a; Gibbs, 1989). Anderson and Walberg verify
the importance of the principal's extending and enhancing
learning time by stating that ". . . the wise allocation
and productive use of time increases the chance that
learning will occur and influences both the extent and
quality of that learning" (1993, p. 41).

The Ninth Theme

The principal is an evaluator. Supervision and
evaluation of instruction involve intervening when
necessary in a supportive or corrective manner (Daresh &
Liu, 1985; Rutherford, 1985; NEA, 1986; Hallinger & Murphy,
1986). If the principal is defined as an instructional

37

leader, this theme must be an integral part of that function.

The nine themes represent the core of the role of principal as instructional leader. Admittedly there are problems with effective schools research. It is disproportionately slanted in the direction of elementary schools although there has been an effort recently to expand more on the secondary level. The research itself is inconsistent in quality; it varies from sound to vague. Most descriptions of the principal are based on the strong, centralized model of leadership, implying that the school is a tightly coupled organization, when, in fact, it has been described as loosely coupled (Norris, 1994). Other participants in the school are overlooked because the principal's way is the "one best way", but that way is never really made explicit (Persell, Cookson, & Lyons, 1982).

The Principal as Transformational Leader

Despite the criticisms, certain seeds, planted during the quarter century of effective schools research, have sprouted and flourished, growing into a rich literature of their own. Among these sprouts are vision, values, and culture, important separately, but together, critical in defining the transformational role of the principal as the new century looms.

Transformational leadership as originally posited by Burns (1978) involves two groups which unite in the pursuit of significant change that will benefit both groups. Bass (1985) expanded the idea, stating that there is in transformational leadership an elevating of morale which ". . . requires a leader with vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what he sees is right or good, not for what is popular or is acceptable according to the established wisdom of the time" (p. 17). How and why "he" should decide what is right and good is not explained. The inference, I believe, is that the leader, by virtue of "his" role, knows the "one best way".

During the late seventies and early eighties there was a proliferation of books on new theories of management, leadership, and education. Innovative theories and concepts of organization were the topics of seminars and workshops. Change was in the air and on people's lips. Isolation of employees from managers and leaders was attacked by those who believed that organizations needed to open up and begin including those who did the work. In education powerful criticism of American schools was unleashed in publications such as <u>A Nation at Risk</u> (1983), <u>Tomorrow's Teachers</u> (1986), and <u>A Nation Prepared</u> (1986). Professional organizations for teachers and college/university professors began to re-think the structure, functions, and personnel roles in the public schools. Almost overnight new strategies were developed to

involve teachers not only in curricular innovation, traditionally a "teacher" area, but also in the governance of the schools. Terms such as "teacher empowerment", "site-based management", "collaborative leadership", "detracking" were bandied about as theorists sought to redefine and practitioners stumbled to grasp the new essentials for the improvement of American schools.

Historically, there had been periodic critiques of American schools in general, e.g., Coleman et al. (1966), or of specific educational practices, e.g., Why Johnny Can't Read (Flesch,1955). A short period of debate would ensue, there might actually occur some temporary innovation which seldom became institutionalized. This time, however, it appears to be different. Simultaneous changes are occurring in nearly all types of organizations. Parents and community members have become much more vocal about their expectations of the schools. The media has exploded with written and visual descriptions of what is wrong with schools and examples of how some schools have already come to grips with problems and begun exciting new ways to educate America's children. Possibilities translated into actual images that are seen on television whet the appetite for educators and communities hungry for change. Politicians, government officials, and clergy have also climbed onto the bandwagon. It appears to be politically, socially, and morally correct to endorse school reforms.

The model of the principal as instructional leader had already begun to evolve. Principals could no longer follow the autocratic, top-down, traditional model because schools, like other organizations, were experiencing evolutionary social change. Some organizational change in schools occurred through legislation. In the Commonwealth of Massachusetts the legislature passed the Education Reform Act, mandating a shift in the role of principals to include participatory decision-making. To accommodate this requirement for participation, principals need schooling in the newer forms of governing; i.e., more cooperative, inclusive and collaborative approaches to leadership are required for successful principals of site-based managed schools and for supervisors of heterogeneously grouped, cooperative classrooms.

Developing relationships with staff and community is critical for principals who are change agents. They must call on all of their abilities to know, to coordinate, to reflect, to educate, to inform, and to share. The principals are at the center of the innovative school, so they must be aware of the community's needs and wants as the re-shaping of the school culture occurs.

Confronting dilemmas and facing problems may include dealing with increasing needs and dwindling resources and possible reductions in force, problems in implementing school reforms, and the inevitable conflict with teacher unions/associations. In order for progress to be made in

educational reform, teacher unions such as the Massachusetts Teachers Association, which was instrumental in orchestrating the language of the Massachusetts Education Reform Act, have come to recognize the necessity of relinquishing some long-held teacher "rights" (Johnson, 1984; McDonnell and Pascal, 1988) and so-called militant attitudes. Teachers understand that their sacrifices are for the greater good of education while they reap the gain of deeper involvement in the governance of the school. Kerchner and Koppick (1993, p. 10) illustrate this shift from the old industrial style teacher unionism to the emerging union of professionals. (See Table 1).

The model of the principal as instructional leader has evolved into the model of the transformational principal, a change agent involved in the values, beliefs, and practices of the school, who works with staff to develop a vision that empowers the group to transform the school culture.

Values

Awareness of values is critical. Values indicate worth, deep beliefs and basic feelings about the organization grounded in the reality of its existence. For the most part these values represent goodness, in particular, the organization's definition of goodness, because ". . . there appears to be no single set of criteria for goodness" (Blumberg, 1989, p. 211). Some

Table 1

Shift from Old Industrial Style to Emerging Professional Union

---

OLD INDUSTRIAL STYLE TEACHER UNIONISM	THE EMERGING UNION OF PROFESSIONALS
Emphasizes the separateness of labor and management:	Emphasizes the collective aspect of work in schools:
* Separation of managerial and teaching work	* Blurring the line between teaching and managerial work through joint committees and lead teacher positions
* Separation between job design and its execution	
* Strong hierarchical divisions	* Designing and carrying school programs in teams
	* Flattened hierarchies; decentralization
Motto: *Boards make policy, managers manage, teachers teach*	Motto: *All of us are smarter than any of us.*
Emphasizes adversarial relationships:	Emphasizes the interdependency of workers and managers:
* Organized around teacher discontent	* Organized around the need for educational improvement
* Mutual deprecation--lazy teachers, incompetent managers	* Mutual legitimation of the skill and capacity of management and union
* Win/Lose distributive bargaining	* Interest-based bargaining
* Limited scope contract	* Broad scope contracts and other agreements
Motto: *It's us versus them.*	Motto: *If you don't look good, we don't look good.*
Emphasizes protection of teachers:	Emphasizes protection of teaching:
* Self-interest	* Combination of self-interest and public interest
* External quality control	* Internal quality control
Motto: *Any grievant is right.*	Motto: *The purpose of the union is not to defend its least competent members.*

---

examples of these "core" values are that school should be a good place for children or that there should be a helping relationship between teacher and child.

Knowledge of values enables the principal to work toward the shared vision that will propel the school toward meaningful change. Vision defines the shared values of the organization. It requires the ability to think in terms of time periods, from one day to years (Sashkin, 1988). It is the roadmap, the ". . . development, transmission, and implementation of an image of a desirable future. . . " (Manasse, 1986, p. 150) that molds organizational meaning.

Vision

Vision can be considered from two perspectives: product and process. Product is concerned with the creation of the intended ends of education, while process is concerned with how those ends can be achieved. Since leaders do not and can not operate alone today (without returning to the autocratic, top-down model), they must develop a consensus of product and process vision through communication (Parks, 1986).

Sheive and Schoenheit (1987) examine vision from different perspectives: one that relates to organizational excellence, and the other, universal, which considers equity in education. Universal vision refers to such varied target groups as equality of education for underprivileged children or equal roles for women

44

administrators. Vision affects work life when the group reflects on its strongly held values, each individual becomes personally dedicated to the shared vision and is able to commit to planning and accomplishing the goals of the vision.

There is an intensity to vision. "Leaders are the most results-oriented individuals in the world, and results get attention. Their visions or intentions are compelling and pull people toward them. Intensity coupled with commitment is magnetic. . . . Vision grabs" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 28).

Vision may be divided into four categories: organizational, future, personal, and strategic (Manasse, 1986).

Organizational Vision. Organizational vision is a systems perspective which portrays a comprehensive picture of the system within its environment. For this type of vision the principal needs information processing skills - such as the ability to assess objectively, an awareness of personal biases, the ability to read non verbal cues in interpersonal reactions--and an active and positive attitude of learning. The principal sees the parts as well as the whole, and can identify and develop human resources. As a learner the principal attends professional meetings, reads, and gleans information that will help clarify the vision.

Future Vision. Future vision gives a picture of the school organization in the system at a future time. To attain future vision the principal must possess rational/analytical and intuitive processes, be able to imagine, to synthesize, to create, to implement, and to monitor. A moral dimension becomes part of future vision when the principal has to decide between competing standards of goodness. The principal influences the staff to decide what is good for children.

Personal Vision. The strategic development and positioning of personal and human resources is called personal vision. The principal must recognize his/her own limitations, focus on the positive, learn from experience, see change as opportunity, enjoy making things happen, and exhibit a sense of humor. The principal hires others to do what she/he cannot do well. If a decision does not work, the principal learns from the experience and reinterprets the failure so that there is something positive in the outcome.

Strategic Vision. Strategic vision is based on an understanding of the change process, so that vision is translated into action. The principal needs skill in managing the change process, consistency, setting priorities, use of slogans, rituals and images to link present and future vision. It may be helpful to talk of the future vision as though it already exists. Strategic vision demands prioritizing time and personal resources.

Deal (1987) speaks of implementing vision through personal practices - through effective communication, expressing vision in exciting ways, being consistent, exhibiting and expressing respect for self and others, and creating sensible risks that others can buy into and share.

Every interpretation of vision calls for a principal who is distinct from the hierarchical, autocratic leader of conservative schools. This principal is aware, feels, knows, intuits, learns, establishes connections to her/his staff (Champlin, 1987).

Culture

Discussions of values and vision naturally lead to a consideration of culture. School culture focuses on behavior patterns, values, beliefs and norms. ". . . culture is shared knowledge. It is carried in the minds of organizational members, learned by newcomers, and amenable to change" (Rossman, Corbett, & Firestone, 1988, p. 5). Because it is a reflection of values formed over years, culture is unique to the organization; it is the way things are done. Culture is expressed through symbols and symbolic activity that gives meaning to the organization (Deal, 1987; Deal & Peterson, 1991).

While culture gives meaning and provides stability, certainty, and predictability as well as control, change creates "existential havoc" (p. 7) and disequilibrium, threatening the members of the organization (Deal, 1987).

Since culture defines each school as unique, it is important that the transformational principal/change agent look inside the school itself to confront dilemmas and to change them into novel opportunities. This can be done only with a knowledge of the values and beliefs expressed in the culture of the school.

In shaping a school culture, Deal and Peterson (1991) describe the principal in five ways: as symbol, as potter, as poet, as actor, and as healer.

The Principal as Symbol. As symbol, Deal and Peterson refer to (a) the office: how it is arranged and decorated, how accessible it is; (b) the principal's demeanor: the clothing she/he wears, the car she/he drives, facial expressions and sense of humor; (c) use of time: what daily routines the principal adopts and what appointments are made; (d) appreciation: in the formal sense through awards and public recognition, and informally, through daily behavior patterns particularly in a crisis; and (e) writing: the form and volume of memos and letters.

Deal and Peterson do not mention gender, race, or class in their descriptions. However, there is room here for the principal to mold all of these descriptions not only around his/her own particular person, but also around the composition of the school population.

The Principal as Potter. The principal-potter shapes ceremonies and values as the potter shapes clay. There is an articulation of shared values, sometimes by use of

mottos or slogans; a celebration of school heroes and heroines, living or dead, with special ceremonies; an observation of rituals and ceremonies that celebrate values and make daily tasks significant through the telling of stories and recognition of individual accomplishments.

Principal as Poet. As poet, the principal's language provides not only words but also images. The principal refers to "our" school, uses acronyms and metaphors. She/he tells stories about school happenings that emphasize caring of and commitment to students.

Principal as Actor. The principal as actor, provides social drama at public ceremonies such as graduation or under unpredictable circumstances such as the death of a student.

The Principal as Healer. As healer, the principal notes changes in the school and provides closure. She/he celebrates beginnings, ends, transitions, seasonal holidays, retirements, calamitous events, and cultural diversity. The principal recognizes pain, and expresses comfort and hope.

Understanding values, vision, and culture, the transformational principal is ready to undertake his/her major role, that of change agent. The school organization, by virtue of its existence at the present time, has been subject to the criticisms of the eighties, the demand for action, and a multitude of suggestions and recommendations for accomplishing change. No longer the "boss" of the old

factory model, centralized, autocratic, rigidly controlled, and isolated school, the principal as change agent works with an empowered staff to transform the school organization.

The Principal as Connective Leader

Introduction

Over the years, the study of school administration has been carried on primarily by white men doing research on white male leaders. Since the overwhelming percentage of principals has been--and continues to be--white male (Shakeshaft, 1987, 1990; Montenegro, 1993; Kowalski & Reitzug, 1993), large groups of the population have been excluded. Despite increasing numbers of certified and degreed candidates of color and of the female gender, the percentage of principals in these categories is barely stable (Mertz & McNeely, 1988; Montenegro, 1993, Kowalski & Reitzug, 1993). As vacancies become available with retirements and resignations by disillusioned administrators, there is hope for interested and qualified candidates without regard to gender, race or ethnicity.

Keeping in mind the literature produced on school reform in the eighties, particularly by the Carnegie Foundation and the Holmes Group, it is apparent that, in many, if not most, cases, candidates will have to be schooled in the newer forms of governing, i.e., more

connective approaches to leadership will be required for
successful principals of site-based managed schools and for
supervisors of heterogeneously grouped, cooperative
classrooms (Paine, 1990; Smith and Scott, 1990). Involving
all stakeholders in alliances, networks, and partnerships
will be the focus of the principal's work.

Current management theory (Kanter, 1989) has alerted
the nation to the fact that these are new times demanding
new approaches to old and new problems. Stressing the need
to cope with a global economy as humankind approaches the
twenty-first century Kanter proposes a leadership model
which is synergistic and concentrates on a team approach.

One whole group of heretofore poorly represented
candidates will be women. It is important to address some
of the contributions that women can make to the newly
defined role of the principal and to the newly defined
organization.

While the literature of educational administration was
incorporating ideas of entrepreneurship into the role of
the transformational principal, other forces have been at
work. In organizational studies a post-entrepreneurial
climate has been identified in which managing change is
seen ". . . as a series of perennial balancing acts"
(Kanter, 1989, p. 13). What has come to be known as
women's development theory, rooted in Chodorow, Miller, and
Gilligan, has influenced leadership theory despite protests
of classism and essentialism. Howard Gardner's (1983)

theory of multiple intelligences has also made its presence known in the educational arena. These theories will be examined separately, and then incorporated into Lipman-Blumen's (1992; in press) concept of the connective leader.

It should be noted that, for the purposes of discussion, the words "sex" and "gender" will be used interchangeably in the text.

Post-Entrepreneurial Leadership Theory

In her trilogy of books on corporations, Kanter has examined the early era of traditional, bureaucratic organizations, or the "corpocracy" (1977), the ensuing period of entrepreneurship (1983), marked by innovation, spunkiness, restructuring, and new forms of competition, and finally the new era of post-entrepreneurship, ". . . a marriage between entrepreneurial creativity and corporate discipline, cooperation, and teamwork (1989, p. 10). Growing out of the rootstock of entrepreneurship, this new leadership concerns itself primarily with building alliances and synergies which will deal with human consequences such as: issues of security, impact on careers, risk, and uncertainty.

Post-entrepreneurial leaders or corporate athletes, as Kanter calls them, need to cultivate seven skills and sensibilities:

> (a) . . . learn to operate without the might of
> the hierarchy behind them; (b) . . . know how to

'compete in a way that enhances rather than
undercuts cooperation; (c) . . . operate with the
highest ethical standards; (d) . . . have a dose
of humility; (e) . . . develop a process focus;
(f) . . . be multifaceted and ambidextrous; (g) .
. . gain satisfaction from results. (1989, p.
361-364)

Kanter's prescription maintains the concept of the
entrepreneur who understands leadership as a process and
who combines it with human qualities and within ethical
boundaries in order to obtain satisfying results. The
individual skills necessary to maintain leadership in the
post-entrepreneurial environment include:

(a) a belief in self rather than in the power of
a position alone;
(b) the ability to collaborate and become
connected with new teams in various ways;
(c) a commitment to the intrinsic excitement of
achievement in a particular project that can show
results;
(d) the willingness to keep learning. (Kanter,
1989, p. 364-365)

Demands of work and of family continue to account for
the scarcity of women in leadership positions in the
corporate world. The high participation business
organizations were originally expected to attract more
women because of their diversity and flexibility. But a
slow-down economy and subsequent downsizing resulted in
leaner post-entrepreneurial organizations which now must
take a bigger chunk of the lives of workers. Longer work
hours, usually for the same or even less pay, leave less
time for leisure and for families. The proverbial
biological clock has presented potential female leaders

with a choice and many have opted to have and care for
children. Since there is little corporate support for
these women, they often have to decline top leadership
positions.

Unfortunately this deprivation of women's talents
strikes at a time when business athletes need to compete
through cooperation. Although Kanter does not base her
work on women's development theory, nor does she mention
Gilligan by name, she does recognize the connection between
cooperation and ". . . the new feminist view of morality as
encompassing not just analytic 'justice' or 'rightness' in
the abstract but also maintenance of relationships" (1989,
p. 389).

Kanter's description of the post-entrepreneurial
leader as one who will use the talents of both genders gets
hung up, by her own admission, with situations that women
generally face alone. It has long been acceptable for most
men to assume leadership roles without worrying about the
needs of family. Although this situation has been
changing, women with children face the greater challenge.
The question remains: How do we remove the barriers for
women who want a family life and the opportunity to reach
for the pinnacle of success as corporate leaders or as
school leaders?

Women's Development Theory

During the seventies women began challenging psychological theories based on single-sex, namely male, research subjects. As a result, women, traditionally responsible for child care, began to be viewed in a different light in the areas of personality development and identity formation. The feminine personality was described as being in relation and in connection to others. Mothers treated daughters different from the way they treated sons. Girls grew up in an ongoing relationship with their mothers while boys were seen as opposites and developed firm ego boundaries outside this relationship (Chodorow, 1974). From this early time girls developed empathy and grew up comfortable in a relationship, while boys, set apart and defined as opposite, did not have the same relationship access. Even in play, boys were observed to be competitive, quarreling with playmates over game rules while girls were more tolerant, subordinating the rules to the maintenance of relationships (Lever, 1976). If they are different as children, boys and girls will most probably grow up and act differently as adults. Different does not mean better or worse; it just means different.

In the career world women had been supplied with male models on which to base their actions. By following such models women often had to ignore their emotional sides, their penchant for nurturing, and their often instinctive

attention to detail. They were encouraged to be tough, demanding, even to dress like men.

Among the early writers who set out to provide a fuller explanation for the life and values of women was Jean Baker Miller (1976). As a psychiatrist, Miller was familiar with the conflicts that developed in women who, by seeking career advancement, were abandoning their traditional ways of interaction. Her stories of caring and nurturing and her explanations of domination, conflict, vulnerability, connection, creativity, and power provided a detailed base for being female in the career world. She found it necessary to rework the language of psychology to describe women's sense of self which is "organized around being able to make and then to maintain affiliations and relationships" (p. 83).

If women were brought up differently and reacted differently from men in situations, did this necessarily mean that their actions were better or worse that men's? Gilligan (1982) set out to better understand women's development. She claimed that girls were written off by both Piaget and Kohlberg because they equated "the child" with "the boy". According to their moral development stages, women never quite reach the highest stage that men do when they resolve moral issues purely on principle. Gilligan suggests that this does not mean that women are morally underdeveloped but that they view situations through another lens, one involving relationships, and this

in turn calls for another interpretation of moral development.

> When one begins with the study of women and
> derives developmental constructs from their
> lives, the outline of a moral conception
> different from that described by Freud, Piaget,
> or Kohlberg begins to emerge and informs a
> different description of development. In this
> conception, the moral problem arises from
> conflicting responsibilities rather than from
> competing rights and requires for its resolution
> a mode of thinking that is contextual and
> narrative rather than formal and abstract.
> (Gilligan, 1982, p. 19)

Gilligan's Research. The sample for Gilligan's research included 18 males and 18 females, ages 8 through 60. Another 108 subjects were interviewed as a data resource. Professional women were included to test Kohlberg and Kramer's hypothesis (in Gilligan, Langdale, & Lyons, 1982) that women working outside the home would have a higher sense of justice than women who did not. The small sample size is reflective of Piaget's work which studied 20 boys and Kohlberg's longitudinal study sample of 58 males.

Five sets of questions were asked of the respondents: (a) introductory questions; (b) two hypothetical moral dilemmas; (c) a real-life personal experience of moral conflict; (d) descriptions of self; and (e) general questions about morality, responsibility and conflict.

Results showed that in real-life moral conflict 75% of the female sample chose a caring response while 79% of the male sample chose a justice response. Gilligan concluded:

> . . . in real-life moral conflict individuals
> call upon and think about considerations
> predominantly within one mode which is related
> to, but not defined by, a person's gender, i.e.,
> in this sample, considerations in real moral
> choice are significantly related to gender, but
> not gender determined. (1982, p. 13)

Further, women beyond age 27 begin to consider

principle in responding to conflicts more often than at

earlier ages, which may indicate ". . . a potential

developmental shift for women" (Gilligan, Langdale, &

Lyons, 1982, p. 15). Musser (1990) tested 136 female and

69 male college students and concluded that affiliation

declined for women during two particular age periods: 20-28

and 40-55, while the findings for men remained constant.

Further research is required to confirm the existence of

the shift and to determine the reasons for it.

With regard to the question about the conception of

oneself, 63% of the females used descriptors of

"connectedness" while 79% of the males used those of

"separation/objectivity". Finally, individuals of both

sexes who are self-defined as "connected" more frequently

call on "caring" to resolve moral conflict while those who

describe themselves as "separate/objective" use "justice"

or "principle" (Gilligan et al., 1982, p. 18).

Since the initial purpose of Gilligan's research was

to examine how the inclusion of females in a sample might

reveal another way of defining the self as well as another

way of moral conflict resolution, it would appear that the

result of her inquiry is that there is a different way, not

better or worse, but different, a way which had not been previously considered.

Critiques of Gilligan's Work. As a groundbreaker in this area of research, Gilligan has come under intense scrutiny, particularly in that she challenged Kohlberg, the pioneer in the field of moral development. Three areas of Gilligan's work will be reviewed here: (a) the appropriateness and significance of including females in the research sample; (b) the methodology used to interpret the data; and (c) the validity and significance of the conclusions, including charges of classism and essentialism.

Kohlberg described his research work as ". . . an effort to replicate Piaget's description of moral judgment stages, to extend them to adolescence, and to examine the relation of stage growth to opportunities to take the role of others in the social environment" (1984, p. xix). His research revised and expanded Piaget's (1948) model from two to six stages and was expanded in a twenty year longitudinal study to examine his own theory.

The critique of Kohlberg on a gender issue has generated a political controversy as Gilligan admits: "The stark fact of the all-male research sample, accepted for years as representative by psychologists studying human development, in one sense speaks for itself" (1988, p. v). For years, review boards concurred that the omission of half of the population from research studies was not

significant enough to do anything about. For some, the situation was embarrassing, but for others, outrageous. Gilligan and her colleagues took it upon themselves to investigate and fill in the gap. However, being called to task about so obvious an omission is not taken lightly, particularly by established researchers, and a storm of controversy has raged from many different directions.

Responding to Gilligan, Kohlberg et al. reasoned that her research is not conclusive and that he had already admitted that:

> . . . if women were not provided with the experience of participation in society's complex, secondary institutions through education and complex work responsibility, then they were not likely to acquire those societal role-taking abilities necessary for the development of Stage 4 and 5 justice reasoning. (1983, p. 122)

The nature of Kohlberg's statement reinforces the idea that men's work is important and that women's work, i.e., helping human beings develop, is less so. Insofar as it is not self-enhancing, women's work is not real, not valuable (Miller, 1976). How then can women who do not participate in man's world possibly reach the higher stages of moral development? Rather than admit the denigration of women's work, Kohlberg says give them a chance to jump into the man's world and everything will turn out the same. If they do not go into man's world, this must mean that they will remain at a lower stage of moral development.

Gilligan makes her belief in women's work clear when she states:

> The tendency for women to assume responsibility
> for the care and nurture of young children, is
> not, in our opinion, a sign of deficiency -
> although the assumption of this responsibility
> often places women in a situation of economic
> dependency and social disadvantage. (Gilligan,
> Ward, & Taylor, 1988, p. 455)

It should be pointed out that, under Kohlberg's

hypothesis, men who do not work in complex social

organizations would also not be as highly morally

developed. Their choice also lies in keeping their status

quo or joining the "real world."

There is some controversy as to whether the care

response is given only to personal problems or whether it

also exists in responding to hypothetical situations.

> Dilemmas located within a 'community' or 'family'
> context are likely to invoke caring and response
> considerations; so too do . . . dilemmas of
> specific obligation to friends and kin. In
> brief, choice of orientation seems to be
> primarily a function of setting and dilemmas, not
> sex. (Kohlberg et al., 1983, p. 12)

The same criticism of the care orientation comes from

Kerber (1986) who states that this would be the women's

theme from any abortion study such as the one on which

Gilligan's book is based. She relates Gilligan's ethic of

care directly to the topic studied. However, hypothetical

situations allow "greater analysis of how individuals

reason while personal stories may be so closely linked to

moral action that the reasoning process is made less

explicit" (Dickey, Kroll, & Jenkins, 1987, p. 15).

61

Since abortion is biologically specific to women, Code (1988) argues that

> the abortion study could only work to generate a universally relevant new perspective on moral maturity if one could assume, with respect to the questions that arise within it, that women and men count as a group who have to make this decision as equals. (p. 199)

Deciding this issue as equals is not possible for men and women.

Challenging Code's reasoning, Pitt (1991) believes that Gilligan's theory needs to be looked at by ". . . paying more attention to analysis of positions made available through language and social practices with which women engage in order to construct their understandings of not only their experiences but also their identities" (p. 179). Using first, Duchen's (1986) argument about patriarchy locking men and women into constructed gender roles, and second, Volosinov's theory of language (1973) which posits that the meaning of a word is not in verbal consciousness but rather is created in a process, Pitt proceeds to recognize abortion as a socially constructed experience. This experience, and not moral reasoning in terms of difference, Pitt claims, makes Gilligan's abortion study appropriate.

What all of this means for the reader is that there is some fuzziness on the use of hypothetical versus real-life dilemmas and how both of these are related to women's

"different voice". Ongoing research will help to clarify

exactly where and when and how this voice is heard.

Although acknowledging the usefulness of Gilligan's

perspective of care as an expansion of moral theory,

Kohlberg et al. (1983) disagree with her methodology, the

reliability of her data, and her making "justice" and

"care" two separate ways of thinking.

Walker (1984) reviewed 54 studies employing Moral

Judgment Interview and 24 studies employing Defining Issues

Test to investigate sex differences in moral reasoning.

His findings suggest that charges of sex bias in Kohlberg's

theory cannot be substantiated and that differences are due

to background limitations. Socoski says of Walker: "None

of his conclusions has been critically challenged" (1984,

p. 11).

Gilligan (1986) however, does challenge Walker. She

explains that Walker found no sex differences in his review

because there are no sex differences on Kohlberg's scale.

Walker misses the point. Her work focuses on the

difference between two moral orientations rather than the

question of whether men and women differ on Kohlberg's

stages. "My interest in the way people define moral

problems is reflected in my research methods which have

centered on first-person accounts of moral conflict" (p.

328). She adds that Walker's conclusions and use of

statistics have been seriously challenged by Haan (1985a,

1985b) and Baumrind (1986).

In their 1987 study of 80 family triads Walker, de Vries, and Trevethan found that the relation between sex and moral orientation was inconsistent and that the sexes did not differ in stage of moral development although there were moral stage differences as a function of moral orientation. "It is important to note that Gilligan believes these orientations to be sex-related, but not sex-specific. She has not yet posited the origins of these orientations in either biology or social experience" (1987, p. 844) There are studies (Lyons, 1983; Noddings, 1984, 1992; Langdale, 1986; Keefer, 1993) which support gender/sex-related moral orientation. However, Pratt (1985) replicated Lyons' study and indicated that both sexes use both orientations with no clear preferences or focus.

Another study by Dickey et al. raised methodological issues on Gilligan's work, i.e., that she does not reveal her rating scales, how they were used, and how data was coded. Dickey's study concluded that women place far more emphasis on the ethic of care rather than of justice, and that the ethic of justice is used by males and females with the same emphasis. However, gender-specific differences were not supported. The question arises as to why both genders use both considerations, but women more often use care. "One answer may be that the ethic of care, labeled by Gilligan a mode of moral reasoning, is, perhaps,

characteristic of personality and culture, rather than a corollary of justice reasoning" (1987, p. 17).

The theme of personality and culture is also picked up by Kerber:

> Much, perhaps most, of it may well be rooted in the distinctive socialization of young girls in a culture which has always rested on the sexual division of labor, which has long ascribed some social tasks to men and others to women, and which has served as a mechanism by which a patriarchal society excludes one segment of the population from certain roles and therefore makes easier the task of producing hegemonic consensus. (1986, p. 310)

While it is true that there are two genders/sexes, and that one of these has an orientation that is very different from the other, Gilligan has not at this time excluded culture and socialization from being a factor in the ethic of care. Neither has she excluded men from being part of this ethic. It would appear that her work marks a beginning in the long trek to discover what is missing. A concern, however, is that there are some things missing in her work that are affecting how it is accepted. She does not reveal her rating scales, how they were used, how data was coded (Luria, 1986; Vasudev, 1988). Such omissions impede proper scrutiny of her work and limit the replication of it.

Stressing the need for quantitative research methodology and quantitative data, Greeno and Maccoby state:

> The fact remains, however, that Gilligan claims that the views expressed by women in her book

represent a different voice--different, that is,
from men. This assertion demands quantitative,
as well as qualitative, research. There is no
sphere of human thought, action, or feeling in
which the two sexes are entirely distinct.
(1986, p. 315)

Rather than consider the research for what it says, there

appears to be some remnant of skepticism unless number

crunching is involved in the research methodology.

In response to her critics Gilligan claims that her

book sought to clarify problems in psychological theory and

problems in women's development.

The argument was not statistical--that is, not
based on the representativeness of the women
studied or on the generality of the data
presented to a larger population of women or men.
Rather, the argument was interpretive and hinged
on the demonstration that the examples presented
illustrated a different way of seeing. (1986, p.
326)

The care perspective is

. . . neither biologically determined nor unique
to women. It is however, a moral perspective
different from that currently embedded in
psychological theories and measures, and it is a
perspective that was defined by listening to both
women and men describe their own experience.
(1986, p. 327)

In Gilligan's own words lies the key to understanding

the importance of her theory. It represents an alternative

response to consider in resolving moral dilemmas and an

acknowledgement of relational rather than separational

views. She suggests that women tend to be cooperative more

than competitive, contextual rather than hierarchical in

making decisions. They value inclusion, fairness,

responsibility, intimacy, affiliation, in short, those

qualities which express the essence of participatory

leadership.

Gilligan's theory fits the definition for constructed

knowledge: "A position in which women view all knowledge as

contextual, experience themselves as creators of knowledge,

and value both subjective and objective strategies for

knowing" (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986, p.

15). Descriptions of constructed knowers include

"articulate", "reflective", "self-conscious, in the best

sense of the word", "aware of their own thought, their

judgments, their moods and desires", "ambitious and

fighting to find" their own voices (p. 133). The authors

also state:

> Women constructivists show a high tolerance for
> internal contradiction and ambiguity. They
> abandon completely the either/or thinking . . . .
> They recognize the inevitability of conflict and
> stress and . . . 'learn to live with conflict
> rather than talking or acting it away' (p. 137).

The arguments that Gilligan's research tends toward

classism and essentialism must be considered here. One of

the most intriguing results of Gilligan's prolific writings

has been that they have touched the hearts of so many

women, and helped them to understand themselves. Musser

(1990) believes that ". . . Gilligan has been largely a

philosopher, striking a responsive chord but teaming with

various other colleagues for research corroboration of

ideas" (p. 12). Mednick (1989) sees Gilligan's work as a "conceptual bandwagon" which actually hurts the cause of women.

Admittedly, Gilligan's original research dealt with college level subjects, and then professional persons. She has continued her work, however, with young women representing other classes and races. Whether this fact allows her to escape the charge of classism is yet to be decided.

Essentialism, however, is a more serious issue. If in fact Gilligan has posited two separate gender-based ethics, pitting male against female, or making women appear the disadvantaged sex, then the interests of neither gender are served. But Gilligan never claimed that men were excluded from the ethic of care, nor did she deny the possibility that affiliation was a constant throughout women's lives.

Cherry argues that Gilligan represents work in progress. Her work has certainly evolved and <u>Meeting at</u> <u>the Crossroads</u>

> . . . most explicitly addresses and illustrates the role that race, ethnicity, class, and family play not only in the psychological development of girls under study, but also in their relationships with each other, their teachers, and the researchers. (1994, p. 7).

On August 1, 1994, Gilligan spoke at Smith College. She emphasized that her research was both novel and controversial when she included women in her samples. The answers she was able to discover about women's moral

68

development have been helpful to counselors and psychotherapists who are now able to understand their female clients better. Her goal is to continue to work to explain the connectedness and relationship which she believes is heard in women's voices. Listening to her speak, one gets the impression that she knows she has discovered something worthwhile, and she appears to be content to let others debate and expand upon her findings while she continues proudly to study the voice of women which for too long was silent.

Women's ethic of care is a quintessential fit with the themes of the effective principalship. Shakeshaft states:

> . . . for a number of reasons, women possess characteristics that are conducive to good schooling. Women enter teaching with clear educational goals supported by a value system that stresses service, caring, and relationships. Women are focused upon instructional and educational issues and have demonstrated that, when in charge, they are likely to build a school community that stresses achievement within a supportive atmosphere. Women's communication and decision-making styles stress cooperation and help to facilitate a translation of their educational visions into student progress more often, and they manage more orderly schools. Women demonstrate, more often than men, the kinds of behavior that promote achievement and learning as well as high morale and commitment by staffs. (1987, p. 11)

If the values that women hold are different, then their leadership styles may also tend to be different. The emphasis on intimacy as opposed to distance, on the real and immediate as opposed to the abstract, and the concern for relationship requires a change in the organizational

69

structure of the school to a more democratic model (Gips, 1989). This new "feminine" style of leadership, which can be learned and used by both sexes (Korabik, 1981), appears to be much more compatible with the needs of the restructured school. It also provides a foundation for the connective leadership model which will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Most educators who have been in the field for a number of years are familiar with the idea of measuring intelligence. Some have given or even taken intelligence tests that assigned an IQ number. The assumption is that intelligence can be measured and that the " . . .IQ test gives an adequate approximation of a person's intelligence" (Gardner, H., 1983, p. 78). Many educational decisions, such as course placement and college admission, were predicated on this ethereal number.

After a period of debunking, the IQ was replaced in popularity by Piaget's stages of "operations". These stages marked the development of the child from baby to adolescent, from the sensori-motor to the concrete and finally formal set of operations. Children were judged according to how well they fit the stages. There was no stage beyond the formal operations which a person reached at adolescence.

Today "information processing psychology" or
"cognitive science" is in vogue. It is concerned with
constructing the microsteps involved in each stage of
growth. The IQ, the Piagetian model, and the information
processing psychology model

> . . . all focus on a certain kind of logical or
> linguistic problem solving; all ignore biology;
> all fail to come to grips with the higher levels
> of creativity; and all are insensitive to the
> range of roles highlighted in human society.
> (Gardner, H., 1983, p. 24)

Looking at intelligence and considering biology,
creativity, and understanding human symbols, Howard Gardner
argues for a theory of multiple intelligences. "In its
strong form, multiple intelligences theory posits a small
set of human intellectual potentials, perhaps as few as
seven in number, of which all individuals are capable by
virtue of their membership in the human species" (p. 278).
The seven intelligences are: linguistic, musical,
logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, and
personal which includes intrapersonal and inter-personal.

Each of the seven has met the eight criteria
established by Gardner: (a) potential isolation by brain
damage; (b) isolation as seen in the existence of idiots
savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals; (c)
an identifiable core operation or set of operations; (d) a
distinctive developmental history; (e) an evolutional
history and evolutionary plausibility; (f) support from

71

experimental psychological tasks; (g) support from psychometric findings; and (h) susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system.

As each separate, but interconnected intelligence is presented, a link will be established with the model of the principal as connective leader.

Linguistic Intelligence. Of all the intelligences linguistic is most often thought of in relation to IQ tests (logical-mathematical is the second). Traditionally it is believed to indicate how smart a person is. According to multiple intelligences theory, however, linguistics intelligence is much broader and includes a sensitivity to the meaning of words; a sensitivity to the order among words; a sensitivity to the sounds, rhythms, inflections, and meters of words; and a sensitivity to the different functions of language.

For the principal, the school leader, linguistic intelligence is vital in elucidating the vision of the school, delineating its mission, and communicating the vision to and with the school and community both orally and in written form, sometimes even in several languages. The principal, therefore, must be sensitive to words and their effect on listeners and readers. A well developed linguistic intelligence gives her/him opportunities to inform and involve everyone from students to teachers to parents and community members to school board members. The connective principal uses linguistic intelligence in

72

writing, in shaping celebrations through poetic language and stories, and in ceremonies that mark all of the public events of the school.

Musical Intelligence. The second intelligence to be considered is musical. Three elements are involved: pitch or melody, rhythm or the grouping of sounds, and timbre, the characteristic qualities of a tone. Musical genius is apparent very early in life, showing itself earlier than any other intelligence. Few people will ever reach the point of being capable of musical composition, but most recognize the power of music in life. Radios, televisions, records, cassettes, compact discs, and live concert performances are all part of the world of music which provides relaxation, excitement, worship, celebration of the great moments in life, and a good time. There is a particular connection between music and how people feel, and between music and its effect on bodily movement. Feelings and emotions are often translated into hand-clapping and toe-tapping.

The principal is constantly involved in communicating in different ways to different groups. The following is an example of powerful communication sans words.

> At the teachers' meeting to open the school year,
> he [the principal] wanted to get across to the
> teachers and staff how important it would be in
> the coming year for all of them to be committed
> to the pursuit of excellence. Instead of giving
> a pep talk or a fervorino, he simply dimmed the
> lights and had the theme from Chariots of Fire
> played over the amplifying system. Everyone in
> the room sat and listened intently. As the final

73

notes died out, not one person had missed the message. (McCall, 1986, p. 41)

This use of the power of music to express thoughts and ideas goes far beyond what mere words could do. It suggests that the leader incorporate music in some fashion when giving messages. The method is commonly used--with and/or without words--in movies and on television. Feelings are tied to the message in a way that words alone could never convey. The principal as actor and healer uses musical intelligence to advantage by incorporating it into public ceremonies and celebrations.

Logical-Mathematical Intelligence. Along with linguistic intelligence, this intelligence is also commonly thought about in relation to IQ. In this realm, Piaget developed his stages of "operations"--beginning in infancy and ending in adolescence. Logical-mathematical intelligence involves humans confronting with the world of objects and results in ordering--counting, adding, subtracting, multiplying, dividing. Logic and math are intertwined through ordering, re-ordering, and assessing their quality. This intelligence is highly prized in our technologically-driven society. Salaries for engineers, for example, are much higher than for most musicians.

Mathematical intelligence deals with the abstract, orderliness, patterns, and ". . . the ability to handle skillfully long chains of reasoning" (Gardner, H., 1983, p. 139). The connective principal uses logic, orderliness and

reasoning in the abstract in order to create the vision of the school.

Although the principal may have no need to attend to higher math, the basic operations of ordering and reasoning are essential for the her/him to create and manage budgets, to schedule classes and activities, to organize committees, to delegate, to solve problems, and to communicate with others about solving problems. Order and logic are clearly part of the administrative world.

Spatial Intelligence. This intelligence involves ". . . capacities to perceive the visual world accurately, to perform transformations and modifications upon one's initial perceptions, and to be able to re-create aspects of one's visual experience, even in the absence of relevant physical stimuli" (Gardner, H., 1983, p. 173). This intelligence is tied to the concrete world, objects, and their location in the world. It is used by the sculptor as well as the surveyor.

The world uses linguistic code--language--and spatial code images. Principals must be able to extract the essence of their vision, problems and situations, to transform that essence into other forms which ". . . can be remapped and fine-tuned to fit the exigencies of the moment" (McCall, 1986, p. 47). Exposure to the arts is almost a pre-requisite for developing this intelligence.

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence. To illustrate this intelligence, Gardner calls to the reader's attention the

use of mime particularly by the master, Marcel Marceau.
Dancers, swimmers, ballplayers and pianists are all able to
use the body with finesse in their respective work. From
the ancient Greeks there arises a reverence for the human
body and its development for and through athletics and art.
A sense of timing, smoothness, fine motor movements, and
precise control are all expressions of this intelligence.

Although American culture still suffers twinges of
Victorian propriety, or religious remnants of the
sinfulness of the body, or embarrassment at seeing the
physically challenged, most people, nevertheless, use some
kind of body language in everyday communication. The
placement of hands, arms, legs, feet, shoulders, the turn
of the torso or head, the subtle facial expressions, all
contribute to our communication. These movements may vary
according to age, sex, background, ethnic origin,
handicapping condition, and emotion.

The way that principals carry themselves when they
walk or when they address a group has to do with
bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. Projecting an image of
confidence but not arrogance, intelligence but not elitism,
caring and compassion but not mawkishness are all part of
bodily-kinesthetic intelligence. In her/his role as
symbol, poet, actor, and healer, the principal incorporates
those movements which will convey the appropriate message.

Personal Intelligences. These intelligences have to
do with what takes place within (intrapersonal) as well as

outside (interpersonal) the self. They are separate but interdependent, one needing the other to develop. These intelligences are influenced by culture which provides the symbolic codes, such as rituals, religious codes, mythic and totemic systems, that organize feelings. An easy way to understand how culture encodes feelings is to consider reactions to jokes. A joke delivered in English in Britain may be wildly funny, but it may get only a weak smile in the United States.

Intrapersonal intelligence involves self-knowledge, access inward to one's own feelings. "Quiet time" allows a person the opportunity to get in touch with inner feelings, to reflect, to meditate, to focus. Knowing oneself allows one to look for the same things in others. The connective principal looks inward to determine the ethical paths for personal decision making and to self-evaluate before proceeding in collaborative efforts.

Interpersonal intelligence looks outward. It is the ability to look at others and distinguish their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions, and be able to act on this knowledge. It demands keen powers of observation and interpretation.

These intelligences are necessary for the principal to be able to access a broad range of knowledge in psychology, sociology, philosophy, theology, history, and organizational studies for a greater understanding of self and of others. Such a knowledge base facilitates the

principal's work with groups of all types of individuals, to educate them, to help them understand themselves, to reflect on their own needs and wants and to focus on working together.

The personal intelligences, particularly interpersonal intelligence, are connected to Gilligan's ethic of care, resulting in new avenues of approach for the school administrator. Caring and compassion as well as principle are suggested for problem solving. The connective principal uses interpersonal intelligence to empower teachers and to work collaboratively with them in the governance of the school. The caring and connective principal also seeks to " . . . protect young people and invest in their ongoing development" (Chaskin & Rauner, 1995, p. 671), so that they in turn will develop into caring and productive citizens.

Connective Leadership Theory

The integrative leadership model known as connective leadership was developed by Lipman-Blumen (1992; in press). " 'Connective leadership' derives its label from its character of connecting individuals not only to their own tasks and ego-drives, but also to those of the group and community that depend upon the accomplishments of mutual goals." It " . . . not only encompasses both transactional and transformational behaviors, . . . but also stretches its practitioners beyond individualism and charisma, . . .

even beyond competition and collaboration" (Lipman-Blumen, 1992, p. 184).

Supporting the model of connective leadership are themes discussed previously in this paper, themes

(a) from post-entrepreneurial leadership:

* realities of the Stage 3 world;

* emphasis on collaborating and connecting with new teams in new ways;

* building alliances and synergies;

* dealing with human consequences--security, impact on careers, risk, and uncertainty;

(b) from women's development theory:

* caring;

* connection/affiliation;

* collaborative decision making;

* promoting commitment;

* building and maintaining relationships;

* cooperation;

(c) from the theory of multiple intelligences:

* multi-dimensional approach to leadership;

* maximizing individual and group potential;

* recognizing and embracing diversity;

* establishing interpersonal relationships.

The caring principal is depicted as having three role labels: "(1) values-driven organizer; (2) capable and creative pedagogue; and (3) cultivator of a nurturing culture" (Beck, 1994, p. 78). These roles are a good fit

with Lipman-Blumen's (in press) descriptions of connective leader behaviors. Consider her descriptions of those behaviors as they are connected to the principalship. Bold typeface has been added for emphasis.

"Connective leaders **work with others** through a broad band of behavioral strategies. . ." (p. 3-5), as guides, contributors, collaborators, brokers, entrusters, mentors, magnets, and even when necessary as outright chiefs. The increased responsibilities placed on the shoulders of the principal require her/him to use multifaceted strategies because everyday interactions take place with so many different groups and in such varied situations.

"Connective leaders **connect others to their vision** by bringing them into the leadership process. . . "(p. 3-5). In order to establish and maintain a participative atmosphere in the school, the principal shares "both glory and responsibility," p. 3-5) with all groups in the school community, from staff and students, to parents and citizens.

"Connective leaders **connect themselves to the visions of others**, respecting and integrating all parties' deeply-felt needs and convictions without losing their own purpose and their own integrity." (p. 3-6) Interpersonal intelligence and the ethic of caring prepare the principal to be sensitive to the needs of others while maintaining the perspective necessary to balance those needs with her/his own and with the mission of the school.

"Connective leaders **link themselves to other leaders**, often creating networks of leaders to address common problems" (p. 3-6). Principals use formal or informal connections with other principals and school leaders, including their own superintendents, to gain perspective in solving problems. The importance of attending local, regional, and national meetings is emphasized here first, as a connection to new approaches and ideas, and second, as a way to deal with the stress often associated with facing the problems of today's schools.

"Connective leaders **envision totally new possibilities**, new ways of doing things and confidently invite others to participate in developing and implementing these innovations" (p. 3-6). The principal uses as many intelligences as possible to share leadership and empower all members of the school community to build the best possible school environment.

"Connective leaders **reach out instrumentally to nontraditional supporters**--often to those previously defined as "the opposition" (p. 3-6). Principals have often labeled enemies, from the superintendent and school committee to parents and even "the bad kids" in an attempt to motivate teachers to accomplish a goal. Now principals appeal to former "opponents" so that they, too, will have ownership in the restructuring of the school.

"Connective leaders **use mutual problems and goals**--not mutual enemies and fear--**to create group cohesion and high**

purpose" (p. 3-7). Fear is another tactic previously used by administrators to entice people to work toward a goal. The connective principal recognizes that group consensus on describing problems and goals will empower the group to proactively work toward solutions and implementations.

"Connective leaders **establish and maintain personal relationships** throughout their lives with people from wide-ranging fields and from many places around the globe" (p. 3-7). Principals are people-oriented. They travel and seek out new friendships with people representing a broad spectrum of education, interests, and backgrounds.

"Connective leaders **develop and sustain a vast mosaic of other relationships**, above and beyond personal friendships. They establish joint ventures, partnerships, mergers, collaborations, teams, projects, networks and other types of temporary and long-term alliances" (p. 3-7). Principals use their creativity in establishing links, alliances, and collaboratives with other school districts and with other professional personnel. They value these relationships as ways to discuss and resolve problems connected to increasing demands and diminishing resources.

"Connective leaders **seek and utilize the advice of trusted counselors**, valuing their input, rather than using them as rubber stamps to legitimate the leader's agenda" (p. 3-7). Principals value those trusted persons in their buildings, in their districts, and even in the school

hierarchy, who are thoughtful, unbiased, honest, and willing to help resolve issues and dilemmas in the school.

"Connective leaders **promote positive, community- or system-embracing values**, preserving the best of traditional values and integrating them with other values that emerge from new conditions" (p. 3-8). The principal does not hesitate to involve all members of the school community in a discussion of values, for the purpose of reaching a consensus of "core values". Interpersonal skill is needed to encourage others to be integrative when relating the core values to new situations faced in restructuring the school.

"Connective leaders **transcend personal needs for control** by negotiating, mediating and persuading, while rarely shrinking from exercising direct power when necessary" (p. 3-8). Abandoning the autocratic approach to leadership, the principal, nevertheless, does have to make some decisions by virtue of her/his position. However, control is not the modus operandi. The principal uses the more collaborative and cooperative forms of leadership in conducting school business.

"Connective leaders **implement their policies in flexible ways . . .** " (p. 3-8). In a school where hundreds or even thousands of people work and learn, flexibility is a virtue. Contingencies and situations demand a principal who is accomplished in parallel thinking, and who has formed the habits of planning and anticipating.

"Connective leaders **act as mentors**, taking special pride in the accomplishments of others, from colleagues to proteges . . ." (p. 3-8). Principals see to it that credit is accorded to those students, faculty, staff members, parents, and citizens who have performed well. Public relations are necessary to advance the image and vision of the school.

"Connective leaders **focus on long-term goals**, so that whatever short-term solutions they craft do not preclude other long-term choices" (p. 3-9). The "big picture", the "global view" are part of the vision of the school, and as such are kept in the forefront by the principal. All other solutions, activities, goals are formulated with the big picture in mind.

". . . connective leaders **do not feel compelled to outdo others in order to succeed**; do not need to overwhelm traditional adversaries: do not need to be perceived as the supreme leader, always out in front of and above their constituents and other leaders; do not need to control all aspects of the enterprise; do not need to make all decisions independently and single-handedly" (p. 3-9).

Connective principals are able to forsake the title "boss" and its accompanying factory model agenda for a positive and proactive role which seeks to make friends and allies, to develop win-win situations, and to include a broad representation of people in school governance and decision making.

A word of caution here, so that connective principals are not seen as impossible god-like beings.

> Lest this description of connective leaders set
> them up as paragons of purity, sweetness and
> light, let me quickly dispel that misconception.
> Connective leaders can be as pig-headed and
> stubborn about their dreams as any other leaders.
> Their tempers can flare. They don't necessarily
> have smaller egos than traditional leaders. Yet,
> connective leaders seem much better at harnessing
> their egos to the chariot of monumental,
> communal, supra-egoistic causes, rather than
> simply dragging followers in the wake of their
> own narrow, highly-personalized and consuming
> passions. (Lipman- Blumen, in press, p. 3-10,11)

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to take a critical look at leadership theory from its beginnings in the factory model and in the androcentric world. Androcentrism is the elevation of the masculine to the

> level of the universal and the ideal; it is an
> honoring of men and the male principal above
> women and the female. This perception creates a
> belief in male superiority and a value system in
> which female values, experiences, and behaviors
> are viewed as inferior. (Shakeshaft & Nowell,
> 1984, p. 187-188)

The unfortunate result of androcentric leadership theory in education, a creation attributed primarily to white males, is that it supported, almost exclusively, the selection of white male principals in American schools. Other groups representing diversity in gender or race were generally not part of the mainstream.

Androcentric leadership also supported the selection of "strong", "one best way", leaders, reflecting the

hierarchical views of organizations. Recent theory of leadership which posits the leader as a change agent, one who transforms, and ultimately one who connects, has shifted into a more inclusive mode concurrent with the blossoming of new organizational theory and research on women's development. The seven intelligences support the concept of a multi-dimensional leader, one who uses every advantage in proclaiming vision and influencing school culture. The Stage 3 post-entrepreneurial world also supports leadership through the dynamic themes of alliances, synergies, and networks. There appears to be a match between what is required of the principal of the collaborative school and the community- building, personal orientation more commonly attributed to the "feminine" leadership style. The focus of connective leadership avoids dwelling on the impedimenta of gender or other biases and proactively advocates attention to the needs of both the school community and the school organization.

The reconstruction of the androcentric framework of the principalship attempts to fulfill the more global needs of twenty-first century schools, to create expanded leadership opportunities in those schools, and most of all to serve as a model for Massachusetts principals implementing participative governance.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

When the Massachusetts legislature passed the landmark
Education Reform Act in 1993, it set the stage for radical
changes in the state's schools. Among these changes was a
redirection of the principal's leadership role. Up to this
time any change in the principal's role resulted from
personal or district initiative. The Chapter 71 reforms
officially and specifically held for more "participative
decision making". Teachers, parents, and even students
were targeted for inclusion in governance. Nearly three
years later, it is appropriate to ask how the
Commonwealth's principals are achieving the goals of
reform. How do these principals do what they do?

Historically, achievement research had been done by
McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953), and Maslow
(1954). Their research, however, excluded the female
population and focused almost exclusively on motive.
Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (1938) was a projective
instrument based on the concept of achieving as "mastering,
manipulating, organizing, and overcoming obstacles in order
to obtain a high standard; advancing one's self and
surpassing and rivaling others" (p. 164).

More appropriate for this study is an instrument based
on the achieving process itself. Lipman-Blumen and Leavitt

(1983) developed a theory of achieving styles which differs from Murray's in the following ways: a) the concept of achievement is expanded and includes multiple styles of achieving; b) individuals differ in their preferred styles; c) the particular achieving style used is dependent upon the situation; and d) achieving styles are learned and can be modified by the learner (Beardsley, Stewart, & Wilmes, 1987, p. 412-413).

According to Lipman-Blumen: "The styles that people use in their efforts to achieve whatever they want, we propose, are reasonably stable descriptors of those individuals" (1987, p. 151) The L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory, ASI Form-13, (Lipman-Blumen, 1987), a quantitative survey, was, therefore, used for this study. The objective of the inventory was to determine the achieving styles of the principals, and further, whether there was any relation between styles of achieving, gender, length of administrative experience, and school level.

Guidelines for using the L-Bl Individual Achieving Styles Inventory are available in Appendix F. Due to copyright restrictions, ASI Form-13 does not appear in this dissertation. Interested parties may obtain more information by contacting Dr. Jean Lipman-Blumen, Achieving Styles Institute, The Claremont Graduate School, 205 Jaegels, 165 E. 10th Street, Claremont, CA 91711-6186.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether current principals in the middle and high schools of Massachusetts are using the achieving styles consistent with the MERA mandate of "participation in decision-making." The study attempted to determine whether there is a relationship between achieving styles and the following factors:

1) gender of the principal: male, female

2) years of administrative experience as a principal: less than 3 years, more than 3 years

3) school level: middle, high school

Research Questions

ASI FORM 13, a quantitative, self-administered inventory was used to address the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and his/her gender?

2. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and the years of experience he/she has had as principal?

3. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and the school level at which he/she works?

Information Gathering

To determine the most appropriate assessment tool for

this study, the researcher referred to Stufflebeam and his

associates. They consider several criteria:

> 1. Technical adequacy: reliability, validity,
> freedom from bias. . . . 2. Practicality: cost,
> political consequences, duration, personnel
> needs. . . . 3. Ethics: protection of human
> rights, privacy, legality. . . . (1985, p. 89)

More specifically, there are five factors to look at in

more detail (see Figure 2).

Characteristics of the information source

Situational characteristics

INFORMATION GATHERING
PROCESS

Type of information needed

Technical measurement criteria

Level of accuracy desired
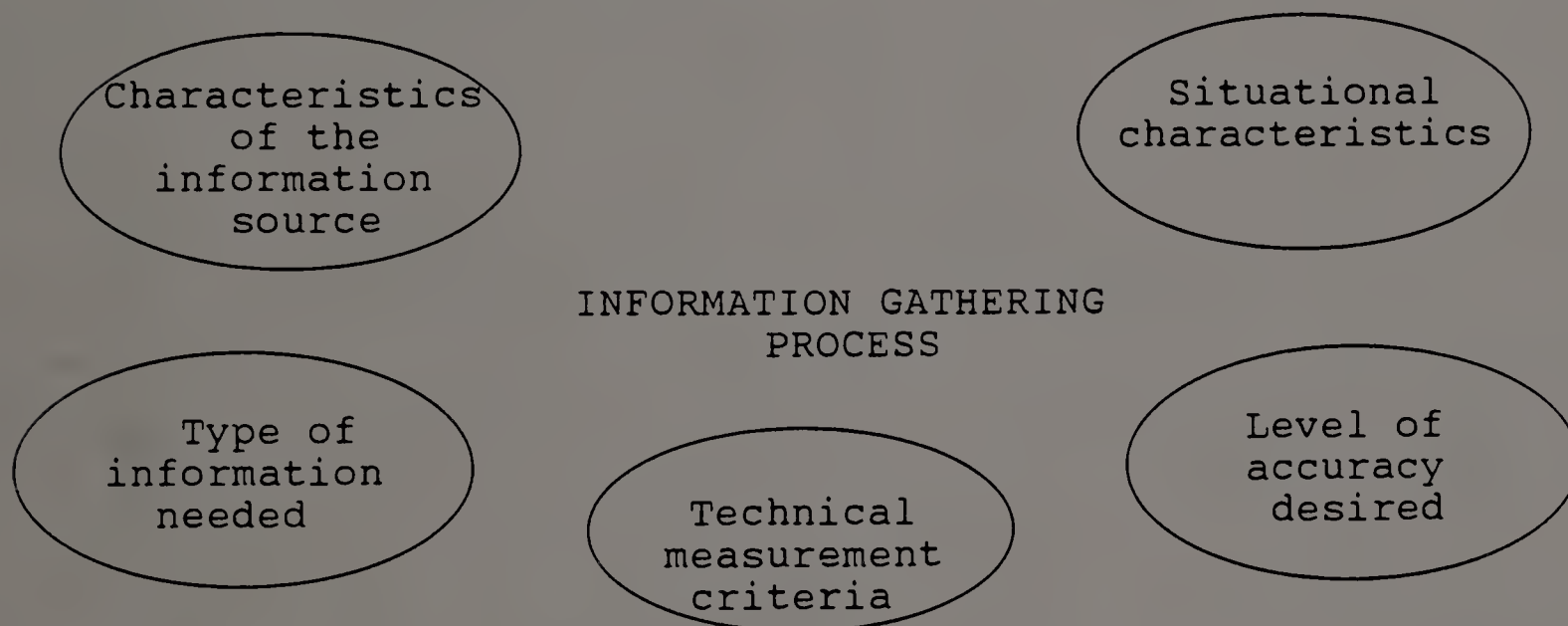
Figure 2.   Factors that impinge on Information-
Gathering Procedures (1985, p. 90)

Characteristics of the Information Source

Since the population targeted for the study consisted

of principals, a group of people who work under the

constraints of stress, deadlines and multiple commitments,

it was determined that the assessment tool would have to be

self-administered and require only a brief time to

complete. In terms of flexibility, a self-administered
inventory would afford the subject the opportunity for
response at his/her own time and place. Finally, the
instrument would require a proven test record on persons of
similar background and of both genders.

Type of Information

For this study it was important to be able to
determine how principals were responding to the mandate of
the Massachusetts Education Reform Act to practice
"participative decision-making". An instrument yielding
achieving styles would satisfy this requirement.

Technical Measurement Criteria

The instrument selected had to be valid, reliable, and
free of confounding bias. Such an instrument would have a
developmental history based on the accumulation of many
respondents in different categories, of both genders, and
have been tested for validity, reliability and
predictability.

Accuracy of Information

Since the information gleaned from the instrument was
determined to be of some importance, particularly to the
researcher, the instrument would have to have been
carefully developed. Documentation of a significant number
of respondents in the data pool would be necessary.

Situational Characteristics

Situational considerations include setting and timing. For this study the setting was determined by the respondent-principals. The timing of the beginning of the study coincided with the period immediately following the start of the second semester, traditionally a "down" time in middle and high schools. This time was selected in order to elicit the maximum number of responses possible.

After determining the criteria, the researcher selected the L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory, ASI FORM-13. as the preferred assessment tool. Telephone conversations with Jean Lipman-Blumen, the primary creator of the tool, reinforced the appropriateness of this inventory for the study.

Sample Population

The subjects of this study were middle and high school principals in Massachusetts. An attempt was made to target subjects from all areas of the Commonwealth. The Massachusetts Secondary School Administrators Association was consulted and agreed to identify recent appointees to the principalship. Their listing eventually included subjects suitable for each category, i.e., gender, length of experience, and school level, providing the researcher with the majority of the subjects needed. Additional subjects were later referred by another member of MSSAA, by study participants and by school secretaries. Local

administrators who are acquaintances of the researcher also
volunteered to participate in the study. There was no
attempt made by the researcher to locate subjects by race
or by class.

Seventy principals were targeted by the researcher.
It was decided that forty responses would be appropriate
for this study, given the difficulty of using a
self-administered test by mail, and the work obligations of
respondents. Subjects were identified from the
aforementioned sources, the number equally divided between
male and female, between high school and middle school, and
between experienced (3+ years) and less experienced (0-3
years). Since the Massachusetts Education Reform Act is in
its third year of implementation, it was deemed fitting to
distinguish between those principals who had been appointed
before and those appointed after 1993.

Distribution and Data Collection
Procedures

The L-BL Individual Achieving Styles Inventory was
mailed on January 25, 1996, to seventy middle and high
school principals based equally on gender, number of years
as principal (0-3, or 3+), and school level. The mailing
consisted of a cover letter (see Appendix A) explaining the
study, a consent form (see Appendix B), and directions for
early response to the L-BL Individual Achieving Styles
Inventory as well as an incentive coupon for early response
by February 9. A self-addressed stamped envelope was

included for the return of the inventory, signed consent form, and incentive coupon.

The cover letter indicated the purpose of the study, the time required to complete the questionnaire, the preferred return date, a statement insuring anonymity for the respondent, and information about the dissemination of the study results. A personal achieving styles profile and a brief summary of the results of the study will be mailed to each participant upon completion of the dissertation defense (see Appendices C and D).

By February 9, 29 envelopes containing inventories, consent forms and incentive coupons had been returned. The only group to respond unanimously at this time were experienced male high school principals.

In order to reach the sample size of 40, reminders, printed on colored paper, were sent to the 41 remaining subjects on February 10, 1996. The response remained weak. On February 20, the researcher mailed 46 packets consisting of a hand-written note, personally requesting a response, another cover letter, consent form, and self-addressed stamped return envelope. ASI Inventories were included in the packets of the 5 new subjects who had been suggested by respondents or their secretaries. The new subjects were also contacted by phone and most verbally committed to taking part in the study.

Data collection continued until March 5. At that time 42 responses had been received. A slightly smaller number

of responses came from more experienced female middle
school principals and from less experienced female high
school principals. It was decided to proceed with coding
the demographics for the sample (see Appendix E) and the
information was mailed to the Achieving Styles Institute in
Claremont, California, for processing.

Methodology

Description of the Instrument

The instrument used for this study to measure
principals' individual achieving styles was the L-BL
Individual Achievement Styles Inventory, ASI FORM-13. The
instrument originated in 1973 when Jean Lipman-Blumen and
Harold Leavitt developed a projective test, the preliminary
model of the individual achieving styles inventory. From
the beginning, the sample pool included persons of both
genders who were generally well educated and had a higher
socio-economic status.

The inventory itself is a 45 item Likert scale
questionnaire. There are five items for each of the nine
achieving styles scales. These items are descriptive
statements of behavior used in accomplishing tasks.
Respondents check from one "never", to seven "always".

By 1976 Lipman-Blumen and Leavitt had refined their
test and were able to identify three main styles of
achievement with each having three sub-styles. Scoring was

95

set by summing responses over each set of five items and dividing by the numbers of items answered. The result is a score on each of the nine achieving styles. Scoring for each domain was accomplished by averaging the scores of its three sub-sets.

Since subjects tended to respond significantly to three or more contiguous styles, the configuration used to represent the achieving styles is circular (see Figure 3, page 97).

Justification for the Use of ASI FORM-13

ASI FORM-13, used for this study, was tested for reliability ". . . using pooled data on 3,758 subjects from 114 individual exploratory samples." (Lipman-Blumen, 1987, p. 6-3) The L-BL Inventory has been found to be in the excellent range for reliability, validity and predictive ability.

Statistical Treatment of Data

The scan sheets were processed by the Achieving Styles Institute. Information was returned to the researcher in the form of polar graphs for each subject. Under the polar graphs were the mean scores for each respondent on each of the nine achieving styles. Individuals' main styles were identified and information was provided on the pros and cons of these styles. This information will be mailed to
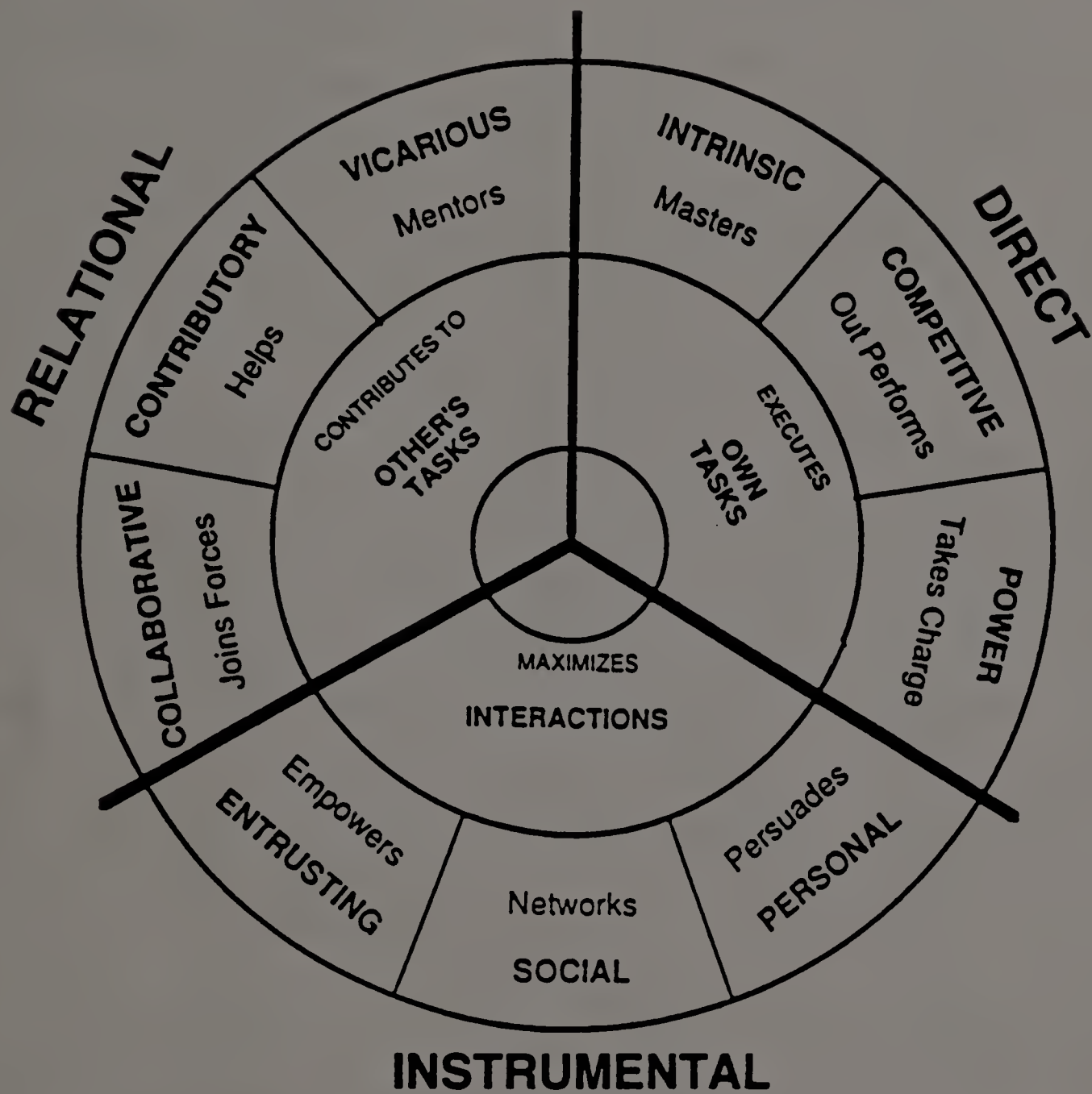
Figure 3.   L-BL Achieving Styles Model

the respondents upon completion of the dissertation
defense.

Raw data, i.e., each respondent's gender, experience,
school level, and mean scores for each style was processed
in the Data Analysis Laboratory at the University of
Massachusetts in collaboration with staff members. The
2-tail test for Significance was run using the SPSS
program. Results were reported by gender, experience, and
school level. Descriptive and inferential results were
then formulated into tables.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory, ASI-FORM 13, was
sent to Massachusetts middle and high school principals to
discern the achieving styles they were using as school
leaders implementing the Massachusetts Education Reform
Act. Of the seventy-five principals targeted, forty
responses were expected; forty-two responses were received.

Generally the results indicate no significant
relationship between achieving styles and gender. There
was a somewhat significant relationship between the
collaborative relational achieving style and experience,
and a significant relationship between the competitive
direct achieving style and school level. However, the
scores in the latter style were among the lowest for all
participants.

Limitations of the Study

It is important to consider the limitations of this
study before drawing conclusions and making
generalizations.

1. This study did not concern itself with the
    principals of elementary schools.

2. This study did not concern itself with the race
    or class of principals.

3. The conclusions drawn from this study may not be able to be generalized to other states or regions of the country.

4. The responses to the L-BL Individual Achieving Styles Inventory are totally subjective, representative of those who respond.

5. The respondents may have been influenced by what they perceived their roles to be.

6. The respondents may have spent too little or too much time on their responses.

7. Female respondents were slightly less represented in the study than were males.

8. The study was limited to the availability of respondents.

Results of the Study

Forty responses were sought for the study, and forty-two responses were actually received. The respondents were distributed among the following categories:

GENDER		EXPERIENCE		SCHOOL LEVEL	
male	female	less than three years	more than three years	Middle	High
N = 22	20	22	20	20	22

Figure 4. Number of Responses by Category

The Lipman-Blumen Individual Achieving
Styles Instrument

The L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory is an instrument
for discovering one's achieving styles--the characteristic
ways one uses to get things done. There are three major
sets, called domains, each with three sub-sets.
Representation of the styles is circular, indicating that
people frequently achieve in contiguous styles (Figure 3,
p. 99). The three primary sets or domains of achieving are
direct, instrumental, and relational.

The Direct Domain

The direct domain consists of the intrinsic,
competitive, and power styles. These styles indicate that
the achiever executes his/her own tasks. This domain
represents the American ideal of rugged individualism and
self-reliance, and as such is an established part of
American culture. Direct achievers work alone. These
styles are traditional, hierarchical, and when used
exclusively, generally represent the "old school".

Intrinsic Style. This style documents achieving that
is self-reliant and creative. The achiever demands
excellence and believes that he/she can rely only on
himself/herself to accomplish the task.

Competitive Style. This style describes the achiever
who beats out the opposition and overcomes all odds to get
the job done. This achiever is in a race with other
achievers to see who gets to the finish line first.

101

Power Style. The take-charge hero is represented in this style. The achiever attempts to control the entire scenario. The notion of control lies behind figures of legend who apparently single-handedly accomplish great feats.

The Instrumental Domain

This domain includes the personal, social and entrusting styles. In this domain the achiever relies on self, the system, and others. Many have considered this set of styles manipulative and self-serving; however, according to Lipman-Blumen (1992; in press), connective leaders use instrumental styles to push beyond the boundaries of bias to new limits of collaboration and cooperation.

Personal Instrumental Style. This style is used by charismatic people who form emotional connections with others through the use of ritual, costume, timing, and drama. These achievers appeal directly to people and are skilled in negotiation and persuasion.

Social Instrumental Style. Persons in this category appreciate process and are skilled at forming networks and alliances through which they achieve their goals. These networks and alliances, often temporary, are formed with people without regard to congeniality.

Entrusting Instrumental Style. Those who use this style rely on everyone. Without using formal authority,

they entrust their visions to others, and expect that others will implement these visions. The confidence they express in others results in empowerment.

The Relational Domain

The collaborative, contributory, and vicarious styles are sub-sets of the relational domain. Achievers using this set of styles are oriented toward teamwork. They are comfortable with helping others, with joining forces with others, and they often derive satisfaction from the work of others. Relational styles are part of the connective leadership model.

Collaborative Relational Style. Those who fit this style are happy and willing to work together with others. They enjoy being part of the team.

Contributory Relational Style. This style indicates a person who is willing to help others reach their goals. Usually the parties have something in common, but the contributory relational achiever is acting out of interest for others rather than out of self-aggrandizement.

Vicarious Relational Style. This achiever enjoys the accomplishments of others as though they were his/her own. There is an identification between this achiever and others on which the satisfaction is based. This type of achiever is a mentor.

ASI Demographics

Respondents using ASI FORM-13 bubbled in the
Institute's required demographic information on the scan
sheet. The information requested went beyond the variables
of gender, experience, and school level considered in this
study (see Appendix C). No attempt was made by this
researcher to relate other data on the ASI demographic
survey to the results of this study.

Analysis of Data

Mean scores on each achieving style were computed for
gender, years of experience, and school level (See Table
2).

Table 2

Average Mean Scores of Respondents to Each Achieving Style

STYLE	GENDER		EXPERIENCE		LEVEL	
	Male	Female	3 -	3+	Middle	High
Intrinsic	5.5727	5.9300	5.7909	5.6900	5.8600	5.6364
Competitive	4.3841	3.8350	4.0409	4.2125	3.7350	4.4750
Power	5.4932	5.4200	5.4364	5.4825	5.4400	5.4750
Personal	4.8295	4.4400	4.7091	4.5275	4.7800	4.5205
Social	3.8682	3.8200	3.9727	3.7050	3.8400	3.8500
Entrusting	5.2545	5.0400	5.3273	4.9600	5.1800	5.1273
Collaborative	5.5909	5.6900	5.8636	5.3900	5.6900	5.5909
Contributory	5.5909	5.5600	5.5636	5.5900	5.7400	5.4273
Vicarious	5.4455	5.2300	5.3000	5.3900	5.3100	5.3727

The SPSS program was used to determine the standard
deviation and the standard error for each achieving style.
2-tail t tests of Significance were run to determine
whether there was a significant relationship between

achieving styles and gender, between achieving styles and experience, or between achieving style and school level.

Significance testing was used to learn whether mean differences could be explained by chance fluctuation about a common population mean. Since the means are normally distributed, about ninety-five percent of the means would be within two standard errors of the population mean.

When there is a comparison of two means, the t test may be used to be certain that the population mean has been captured. For the t test, the standard deviation is multiplied by a special value (t) which is dependent upon sample size and the desired probability of capturing the population mean. (Brown, Amos, & Mink, 1965) Significant difference at the .05 level was used to indicate that the two samples were not drawn from the common population.

Research Question 1. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and his/her gender?

The 2 tail Significance levels do not indicate significant difference at the .05 level for any of the achieving styles. Therefore, the data do not support any significant relationship between achieving style and gender (See Table 3). This result coincides with the data from Counts' study (1988) on gender using the L-BL Achieving Styles Inventory. Principals' scores on each achieving style do not differ significantly according to gender.

Table 3

t Tests of Significance Between Achieving Style and Gender

STYLE	MALE		FEMALE				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value	df	2 tail Sig
Intrinsic	5.5727	.654	5.9300	.738	1.66	40	.104
Competitive	4.3841	1.036	3.8350	1.155	1.62	40	.112
Power	5.4932	.845	5.4200	.863	.28	40	.783
Personal	4.8295	1.215	4.4400	1.664	.87	40	.388
Social	3.8682	1.218	3.8200	1.228	.13	40	.899
Entrusting	5.2545	.791	5.0400	.809	.87	40	.390
Collaborative	5.5909	.834	5.6900	.832	-.39	40	.702
Contributory	5.5909	.675	5.5600	.783	.14	40	.891
Vicarious	5.4455	.785	5.2300	1.149	.72	40	.479

These results are in contrast to Lipman-Blumen's own

research (1992) and that of Axline, Billings, and

VanderHorst (1991) which support a gender-linked

significant relationship between women and a lower

competitive style score.

Research Question 2. Is there a relationship between

the achieving styles of the principal and the years of

experience he/she has had as principal?

The t test indicates a level of .062 between years of

experience and the collaborative achieving style. (See

Table 4.) This score is close to .05, indicating a

somewhat significant difference. Principals with fewer

years of experience have higher collaborative achieving

scores. These are the principals appointed since the

passage of the Massachusetts Education reform Act, and they

may be more aware of the mandate to practice participative

management. Their scores may also be the result of more

recent education, of more exposure to conferences and

106

Table 4

t Tests of Significance Between Achieving Style and
Experience

STYLE	LESS THAN 3 YEARS		MORE THAN 3 YEARS				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t value	df	2 tail Sig
Intrinsic	5.7909	.660	5.6900	.775	.46	40	.651
Competitive	4.0409	1.211	4.2125	1.025	-.49	40	.625
Power	5.4364	.809	5.4825	.902	-.17	40	.862
Personal	4.7091	1.635	4.5725	1.233	.30	40	.763
Social	3.9727	1.367	3.7050	1.022	.71	40	.480
Entrusting	5.3273	.597	4.9600	.951	1.51	40	.138
Collaborative	5.8636	.723	5.3900	.874	1.92	40	.062
Contributory	5.5636	.714	5.5900	.744	-.12	40	.907
Vicarious	5.3000	1.093	5.3900	.837	-.30	40	.768

meetings on the collaborative approach for newer

principals, or perhaps to personal initiative, i.e.,

graduate study, professional

 reading, by concerned principals dedicated to meeting the

leadership needs of their schools. The results may also be

indicative of the learned styles that experienced

principals in this study (20 total, evenly split by gender)

brought with them to the principalship. Experienced

principals came into their positions trained to exercise

power and authority and have established school

environments where these styles are accepted, leaving them

with little incentive to shift styles, regardless of

mandate.

Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between

the achieving styles of the principal and the school level

at which he/she works?

Table 5

t Tests of Significance Between Achieving Style
and School Level

STYLE	MIDDLE		HIGH				
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t value	df	2 tail Sig
Intrinsic	5.8600	.749	5.6364	.672	1.02	40	.314
Competitive	3.7350	1.141	4.4750	.990	-2.25	40	.030
Power	5.4400	.848	5.4750	.860	-.13	40	.895
Personal	4.7800	1.276	4.5205	1.597	.58	40	.567
Social	3.8400	1.237	3.8500	1.209	-.03	40	.979
Entrusting	5.1800	.689	5.1273	.900	.21	40	.834
Collaborative	5.6900	.937	5.5909	.726	.39	40	.702
Contributory	5.7400	.714	5.4273	.707	1.42	40	.162
Vicarious	5.3100	1.071	5.3727	.891	-.21	40	.837

The t test result of .030 for the competitive style indicates a significant relationship between the competitive achieving style and school level (See Table 5). Although the competitive scores are among the lowest scores for any style, high school principals achieve significantly more competitively than do middle school principals.

In a given school system elementary schools are generally smaller than schools at other levels. The atmosphere in elementary schools, where most principals are women, is generally viewed as more nurturing and collaborative. Moving up a level, the middle school philosophy has fostered a tradition of participation, collaboration and cooperation which may account for the middle principals' lower scores on the competitive style. Their scores are appropriately reflective of the philosophy on which they base their achievement. In the interest of fairness however, it should be pointed out that there was

only one middle and one high school in the districts of most respondents. It is possible that the lack of any opportunity for comparison with another district principal at the same level is the reason these middle school principals are not more concerned with competition.

Competition appears to play a greater role as one reaches the high school level. Populations in high schools tend to be larger than in other district schools and there is more fragmentation of scheduling, curriculum and staff; therefore, it is not surprising that high school principals are more competitive. The study sample of high school principals, 22 in number, 10 female and 12 male, suggests no apparent difference in the scoring by gender. This result is in contrast to the findings of Lipman-Blumen (1992) and Axline, Billings, and VanderHorst (1991). Principals as a group may differ from the general middle management population in terms of reliance on the competitive style because their work in the school necessarily relies on at least a minimum of collaboration and cooperation.

Data in Table 6 provide the mean scores in each domain by gender, experience, and school level.

According to the table, scores for each domain may be described as consistent. All groups scored highest in the relational domain, with scores ranging from 5.5800 to 5.4566. Middle level principals and principals with fewer than three years of experience, however, had the highest,

109

Table 6

Mean Scores of Respondents to Each Achieving Domain

DOMAIN	GENDER		EXPERIENCE		SCHOOL LEVEL	
	Male	Female	Less 3 than 3	More than 3	Middle	High
Direct	5.1500	5.0616	5.0894	5.1283	5.0116	5.1954
Instrumental	4.6507	4.4333	4.6697	4.4125	4.6000	4.4992
Relational	5.5424	5.4933	5.5757	5.4566	5.5800	5.4636

albeit not statistically significant, scores on this style,
attaining 5.5800 and 5.5757 respectively. Experienced
principals (nine females and eleven males) and high school
principals (ten males and twelve females) scored lowest in
this domain with respective scores of 5.4566 and 5.4636.
The low scores suggest that these principals may be relying
on the styles they learned originally and have not updated
their leadership education, or that they may be beginners
in this domain. Lipman-Blumen (1992) points out that
relational styles are often interpreted by others as weak;
many principals would want to avoid the stigma of weakness
by avoiding the relational styles.

The direct domain is the location of the second
highest scores for all groups. Those groups who scored
highest in the direct domain were male principals, 5.1500,
and high school level principals, 5.1954. High school
principals, working with larger populations, may use this
domain either because it is easier and faster to accomplish
tasks when one takes charge or because they have always
operated this way. Although the high score of male

principals is not statistically significant, it suggests a lesser regard for relationship and connection and an emphasis on strength, independence, power, and dominance, often linked to the traditional styles of males.

All the groups scored lowest in the instrumental domain, from 4.6697 to 4.4125, where the styles for connective leadership are ultimately defined. These emerging styles involve persuasion, negotiation, and empowerment. Principals whose ultimate goal is advanced collaborative leadership must learn and maximize these styles. Professional developers and college/university professors would do well to note this result and to incorporate the learning of instrumental skills into workshops and courses.

Looking at the rank order of the four highest scores on individual styles for each group, it becomes apparent that all groups, with the exception of experienced principals, employed the same four achieving styles (see Table 7). There is a concentration of preference among the intrinsic, collaborative, contributory, and power styles, in rank order.

Principals scored highest on the intrinsic achieving style, from 5.9300 to 5.6364, suggesting their enjoyment of challenges, their desire for mastery, and their dedication to excellence. It is entirely appropriate that principals feel comfortable shifting to a direct style when a situation warrants it. A reliance on this style, however,

Table 7

Rank Order of Highest Scores by Category

Male

Intrinsic	5.5727
Contributory	5.5090
Collaborative	5.5090
Power	5.4932

Female

Intrinsic	5.9300
Collaborative	5.6900
Contributory	5.5600
Power	5.4200

Less Than 3

Collaborative	5.8636
Intrinsic	5.7909
Contributory	5.5636
Power	5.4364

More Than 3

Intrinsic	5.6900
Contributory	5.5900
Power	5.4825
Vicarious	5.3900

Middle

Intrinsic	5.8600
Contributory	5.7400
Collaborative	5.6900
Power	5.4400

High

Intrinsic	5.6364
Collaborative	5.5905
Power	5.4750
Contributory	5.4273

might suggest a lack of faith in the potential of others and result in the loss of valuable contributions from others.

High scores on the collaborative style suggest that principals are adhering to a tradition of caring and connection in school administration, that they are willing to join forces and work as part of the team. Principals with fewer than three years of experience scored highest on this style--5.8636, while female principals and middle school principals both scored 5.6900. Principals who use the collaborative style must be cautious, nevertheless, about underestimating their own abilities and about appearing unassertive.

Principals with the highest scores on the contributory style belong to the following groups: male, middle school, and more than three years of experience. They help others

by working behind the scenes. Although the use of this style may indicate a willingness to put others in charge, an overemphasis on this style may suggest a fear of failure or avoidance of responsibility.

Principals generally scored fourth highest on the power style. Experienced principals and high school principals scored third highest, indicating their use of. a more authoritative approach to leadership. Scores may be interpreted to mean that principals use some control in their achieving, but it does not appear that they are take-charge heroes who wish to control their schools. Power achieving principals are cautioned about being viewed as dominating or lacking in ability to see other styles.

Further observations may be noted by comparing the lowest ranked scores of each group (see Table 8).

Table 8

Rank Order of Lowest Scores by Category

Male			Female	
Social	3.8682		Social	3.8200
Competitive	4.3841		Competitive	3.8350
Personal	4.8295		Personal	4.4400
Entrusting	5.2545		Entrusting	5.0400

Less Than 3			More Than 3	
Social	3.9727		Social	3.8200
Competitive	4.0409		Competitive	4.2125
Personal	4.7091		Personal	4.5275
Vicarious	5.3000		Entrusting	4.9600

Middle			High	
Competitive	3.7350		Social	3.8500
Social	3.8400		Personal	4.5205
Personal	4.7800		Competitive	4.4750
Entrusting	5.1800		Entrusting	5.1273

Low scores for all groups were located in the social, personal, competitive, and entrusting styles. The scores range from 5.3000 to 3.7350. Women consistently scored lower than men. Three of these styles--social, personal, and entrusting belong to the instrumental domain. In this domain lie the expanded skills required for connective leadership. Principals may not yet understand the importance of developing these achieving styles or may be hesitant to use them for fear of being viewed as manipulative and self-serving. This reluctance, however, must be overcome,--indeed words such as "empower" and "network" have recently been used more positively--in order that a full measure of empowerment be achieved in the schools.

All but middle level principals scored lowest on the social style, suggesting a lack of skill in networking. It is possible that the middle school atmosphere is more conducive to this style. Social achievers may appear to be overly political and it is understandable that most principals would prefer to avoid this description. Perhaps another reason for the low use of this achieving style is that schools often tend to operate in an us v. them atmosphere, making a shift to using networks difficult. A program of establishing readiness for change would be helpful before introducing this style.

Principals, except for those in the high school category, scored third lowest on the personal style, from

4.8295 to 4.4400. There is, perhaps, for most principals, a lack of understanding of the need for this extroverted style as well as a time constraint against its regular use. The personal style relies on charisma, drama, costume, and ritual. It is safe to say that many principals would be timid about using this style for fear of being seen as con-artists or egotistical. The skills of negotiation and persuasion inherent in this style, however, are essential components of collaborative schools.

The low scores on the entrusting style, ranging from 5.2545 down to 4.9600, indicate that principals are not yet using an empowering approach to leadership. It is interesting to note, however, that less experienced principals actually scored higher than all other principals on the entrusting style. Entrusting brings out the best in others and shows respect for their abilities. Without empowering others, participative decision-making cannot occur. A balanced use of this achieving style will offset any semblance of dependency on the part of the principal.

The competitive style accounts for some of the lowest scores on the inventory, with middle level principals scoring lowest, 3.7350. This style is noted, however, for producing the only significant difference in scores for this study. High school principals (10 females, 12 males) are reported to be more competitive than middle school principals (10 females, 10 males). Competition appears to play a greater role as one moves up from one school level

to the next. The middle school philosophy fosters a
tradition of participation, collaboration and cooperation
which may account for the middle principals' lower scores.
It seems appropriate that the respondents paid little heed
to competition in carrying out their duties since
competition would interfere with the principals' focus on
their schools.

At the high school level where populations tend to be
larger and where there is more fragmentation of scheduling,
curriculum and staff, it is not surprising that principals
would be more competitive. The study sample of high school
principals, 22 in number, 10 female and 12 male, suggests
no apparent difference in the scoring by gender. Again,
this finding is in contrast with Lipman-Blumen's statement:
"Across virtually all age, occupational, and cultural
groups, women consistently are less likely than men of
their own group to report that they use competitive
strategies to accomplish their goals" (1992, p. 188).

Principals, with the exception of the inexperienced
group, consistently scored lowest on the vicarious style.
The vicarious style describes its users as mentors and
guides. The score of 5.3000 for inexperienced principals
suggests that they feel a greater obligation to help
others. Generally it is the more experienced principals
who are comfortable with this style. The incorporation of
mentoring in school supervision and evaluation marks this
style as essential for principals to learn.

Summary of Results

This study of principals' achieving styles according to gender, years of experience, and school level, was undertaken to determine the achieving styles of Massachusetts principals since MERA mandated changes in school governance. Results indicate that principals have shifted from the traditional direct styles to relational styles which include stakeholders in governance. Further education and awareness is needed, however, for principals to incorporate the instrumental styles as they move toward empowerment and connective leadership.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

The Massachusetts Education Reform Act was passed in
1993, mandating a change in the role of the school
principal to include "participative decision-making" and to
involve all stakeholders in the governance of the school.
The research study was conducted with a sample from
Massachusetts middle and high school principals to
determine the achieving styles, ". . . the preferred
strategies, or characteristic styles . . . "
(Lipman-Blumen, 1987, p. 1-1) they are using to implement
the mandates of reform.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine the
achieving styles of Massachusetts middle and high school
principals as they implement the mandate of the MERA to
practice participative decision-making. The L-Bl ASI Form-
13 was used to measure the achieving styles of the
principals. Findings indicate that Massachusetts middle
and high school principals are using the collaborative and
contributory achieving styles in the relational domain,
consistent with fulfilling the MERA mandate to practice
participative decision-making.

118

Mean scores were computed for gender, experience, and school level. These scores were analyzed using the 2-tail t test for Significance in order to determine whether a significant relationship existed between individual achieving styles and gender, experience, or school level.

Research Question 1. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and his/her gender? Data did not support any significant relationship between achieving style and gender.

Research Question 2. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and the years of experience he/she has had as principal? A rather significant relationship, at .062, was determined to exist between the collaborative achieving style and years of experience as a principal. Principals with fewer years of experience attained higher scores on the collaborative style. These principals were appointed after the passage of the Massachusetts Education Reform Act and they may be more aware of the mandate to practice participative management. They may also have had access to more recent training in collaborative and relational styles of leadership.

Research Question 3. Is there a relationship between the achieving styles of the principal and the school level at which he/she works? A significant relationship at .030 was established between the competitive achieving style and school level. High school principals achieve significantly

more competitively than do middle school principals. Some

possible explanations for this finding are: the larger

school size, the learning atmosphere, and the fragmentation

of scheduling, curriculum, and staff at the high school

level foster a more competitive environment which is then

reflected in the principal's style. Most high school

principals have been in theirpositions for a long period of

time. Their traditional background and training,

representative of the direct achieving style, have

established a more competitive culture at the high school

level. Even newer high school principals would be

acculturated into the established competitive style.

Recommendations and Policy Implications

In order to move toward the "participative

decision-making" mandated by the Education Reform Act,

several recommendations must be considered.

First, legislating change does not make change happen.

Other steps must be taken to interpret the legislation to

educate professionals about what is expected of them.

Participative decision-making could mean many things to

many people. Principals who tend to be controlling and

resistant to change will rationalize that one need only

have an occasional meeting where hands are raised for and

against a proposal. The appearance of participation will

be adequate for them. Principals who do not understand the

concept of participative decision-making may carry it to

the extreme, bogging down the system, and creating a situation where a huge process must be undertaken to answer a simple question. The Department of Education has traditionally acted as interpreter for legislation. Assuming it will remain in existence and will be appropriately staffed, this Department would be responsible for interpreting the legislation into policy.

Second, when legislation mandates a drastic change in the way principals carries out their duties, then training and opportunities for practice must be provided. It is recommended that the Department of Education work with professional administrative organizations at the state level to provide such training programs in leadership. These programs would stress an understanding of participative governance, the importance of achieving styles, and the acquisition of skills appropriate to each style. Interactive presentations, time for practice in the district, and reconvening over the course of a school year would ensure implementation and institutionalization of shared governance.

Third, principals must consider their strengths and weaknesses in achieving styles and make a strong commitment to self-improvement. They may use their ASI results to tailor their own professional development programs, simultaneously earning professional development points toward re-certification.

Fourth, it is suggested that the principal have access to funds and personnel for educating all stakeholders in the change process, site-based management, and decision-making by consensus.

Fifth, procedures for open and honest multi-directional communication and for continuing evaluation must be established in order to accommodate the change in leadership. Principals have the responsibility for keeping all parties informed so that petty jealousies and enmities will not cloud the decision-making process. Principals must assure that continuing evaluation keeps the governing process on track.

Sixth, central office administrators, particularly superintendents, have the responsibility for providing funding and a supportive environment where mandated changes can occur. Particularly to be avoided are power struggles between principals and superintendents which have the potential for destroying or seriously maiming changes in leadership and achieving styles.

Seventh, it is recommended that professional organizations and schools of education be aware of the needs of building principals so that they may incorporate appropriate leadership information into courses and workshops.

Future Research Directions

Looking back to the study and the conclusions drawn from the data, the researcher proposes that:

1. the study be replicated with a larger sample population in order to arrive at more distinct conclusions.

2. a study be conducted using ASI Form-13 to determine whether a social shift in institutional structure rather than gender has influenced principals' achieving styles.

3. a study be conducted with principals using the ASI Form-13, and staff members using the organizational form of the instrument. The purpose would be to determine the styles used by both the principal and the organization. Since achieving styles can be learned, the principal would have the option of changing his/her styles to better accommodate the needs of the school.

4. a study using the L-BL Organizational Achieving Styles Inventory be administered to staffs in schools which have principal vacancies. The results could prove helpful in two ways: informing a new principal of the environment of the school and whether he/she were willing to take a leadership position there; and enlightening the staff on its own strengths and

weaknesses as they engage in community building
with the new school leader.

5. college and university education departments use
   the ASI FORM-13 to assess incoming degree
   candidates. The results of such studies could be
   used to modify and expand courses in educational
   leadership.

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER

241 Valley View Circle
West Springfield, MA 01089
_____, 1996

Dear Principal:

    As a doctoral candidate in Educational Policy and
Administration at the University of Massachusetts at
Amherst, I am studying the achieving styles of middle and
high school principals in Massachusetts. The instrument
which I am using is the L-BL Individual Achieving Styles
Inventory, a 45 item Likert-style questionnaire developed
by Jean Lipman-Blumen and Harold Leavitt. The purpose of
this study is to determine the achieving styles of
principals as they relate to gender, length of experience
<3, 3>), and school level (middle or high). Comparisons
may be made with studies of managers currently in the data
bank at the Achieving Styles Institute in Claremont, CA.

    The survey will require 10 to 15 minutes of your time
to complete. Your answers will be bubbled in with No. 2
pencil on the scan response sheet. This sheet will then be
returned to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope
provided. Complete anonymity will be maintained both by me
and by the Achieving Styles Institute which will process
the scan sheets.

    It is essential that I have the completed surveys no
later than _____ so that the processing may be
completed on time. In appreciation of your cooperation and
participation in this study, the attached raffle ticket may
be returned for a chance to win a fifty dollar gift
certificate to L.L. Bean. A drawing will take place on
_____ and the winner will receive the gift
certificate at her/his school address.

    The results of this study will be used in the
completion of my dissertation. A summary of the completed
results of the study and of your personal range of
achieving styles will be mailed to you.

    Thank you for participating in this survey. I will
welcome any questions or comments you may have concerning
this topic.

Sincerely,

Gabrielle Marya Charest

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM

STUDY OF THE ACHIEVING STYLES OF MASSACHUSETTS MIDDLE AND HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO DETERMINE WHICH STYLES THEY ARE USING TO IMPLEMENT THE MANDATES OF THE MASSACHUSETTS EDUCATION REFORM ACT

Consent for Voluntary Participation

I volunteer to participate in this qualitative study and understand that:

1. I will be completing the L-BL Achievement Styles Inventory, a 45 item Likert scale instrument. (Estimated time for completion is 10 to 15 minutes.) I will also be completing a short background questionnaire.

2. The questions I will be answering address my achievement styles as a principal. I understand that the primary purpose of this research is to identify the range of styles I am using to implement the mandates of the Massachusetts Education Reform Act.

3. The questionnaire will be answered on a scan sheet which will be processed by the Achievement Styles Institute at the Claremont Graduate School in California.

4. My name will not be used, nor will I be identified personally in any way or at any time. I understand it may be necessary to identify participants in the dissertation by school level, gender, and length of administrative experience (e.g., a male middle school principal with two years experience).

5. I may withdraw from part or all of this study at any time.

6. I have the right to review material prior to the final oral exam or other publication.

7. I understand that results from this inventory will be included in Gabrielle Charest's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals for publication.

8. I am free to participate or not to participate without prejudice.

9. Because of the small number of participants, approximately 40 (20 middle and 20 high school principals, 10 of each gender at each level, 5 of each gender with fewer than three years as a principal, and 5 of each gender with more than three years as a principal), readers may be able to identify me as a participant in this study.

_____
date

Researcher signature

_____
date

Participant signature

128

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF ACHIEVING STYLES

ACHIEVER TYPE	POSITIVE ASPECTS	NEGATIVE ASPECTS
INTRINSIC	masters; enjoys challenges	may be unrealistically perfectionist; may lose out on what others could contribute
COMPETITIVE	outperforms; puts winning ahead of all other goals	may not pay adequate attention to task; may not be good mentor
POWER	takes charge; in control	may be seen as dominating; may find it difficult to see other styles
PERSONAL	persuades; charismatic	may be viewed as con artist or egotistical
SOCIAL	networks; seeks help of others with special skills	may be seen as overly political; may neglect own abilities for lesser abilities of others
ENTRUSTING	empowers; brings out the best in others; has high expectations of others	may be seen as dependent and unassertive; may underestimate own abilities
COLLABORATIVE	joins forces; prefers teamwork	may be reluctant to work alone; may spend too much time on process rather than on task
CONTRIBUTORY	helps; prefers being behind the scenes	may be avoiding responsibility; may fear failure
VICARIOUS	mentors; encourages; guides	may appear to lack self-confidence or initiative; in the extreme, may be seen as "groupie"

APPENDIX D

ANALYSIS OF ACHIEVING STYLES PROFILES BY
THE ACHIEVING STYLES INSTITUTE

After processing by the Achieving Styles Institute, each respondent to this study will receive a polar graph of his/her styles (see sample on next page) and an explanation of the positive and negative aspects of each style. All of the following information was provided by the Achieving Styles Institute.

INTRINSIC DIRECT
    People who use this style tend to be self-motivated. They do not wait for others to help them. They look within themselves both for motivation and for standards of excellence. Even when others assure them that their performance is good enough, they often are dissatisfied, particularly if they do not feel they have given it their best shot. They enjoy the sense of autonomy that comes from not having to rely on others. Being in control of themselves and how they do the task affords them a sense of intellectual and creative freedom. They look within themselves for the resources to perform any given task. Tasks that represent a real challenge interest them regardless of whether or not they will receive any external reward. Doing a task, particularly a challenging one, well is reward enough for them. They feel they know what needs to be done, and they usually can articulate this vision for others.

Limitations:
    People who prefer this style often push themselves to unrealistic or unnecessary standards of perfection. As a result, they may spend more time and energy on a task than it is worth. Because they like to do things their own way, people who use this style prefer not to ask for help. As a result, they often take the full brunt of the responsibility and resist delegating parts of the task that others could do equally well or better. People who use this style may cut themselves off from the ideas and other kinds of help and support that others might contribute.

COMPETITIVE DIRECT
    People who use this style derive satisfaction from performing a task better than anyone else. They get an enormous thrill from winning. When they don't come in ahead of the pack, they are disappointed, but not discouraged. Competition motivates them to persist at a task until they succeed. People who use this style are less driven by internal standards of exquisite perfection than by comparisons with the performance of others. They judge themselves by more external and less personal standards.

132

Group: 266
Indiv: 4
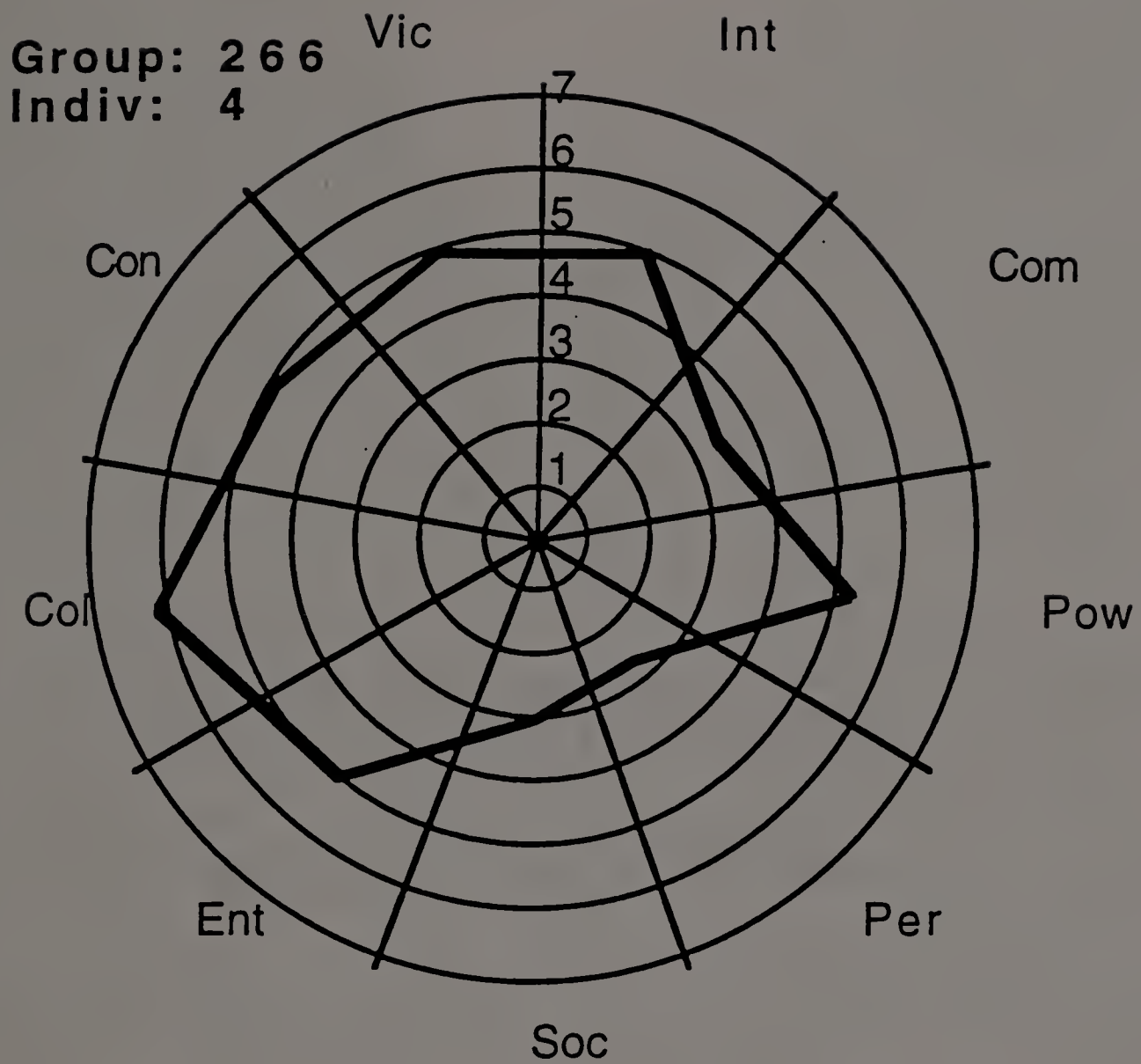
L-BL Achieving Styles Model

Col - 6.00   Con - 4.80   Com - 3.20
Pow - 5.00   Ent - 4.80   Soc - 2.80
Vic - 4.80   Int - 4.80   Per - 2.40
Cumulative Mean   4.29

Copyright 1992 J. Lipman-Blumen

Figure 5.   Achieving Styles Model

133

Limitations

People who prefer this style tend to define situations as competitions and other individuals as competitors, whether working alone or in a group. They often have difficulty directing their competitive efforts toward the external "opponent", rather than toward their own team members. They put winning ahead of most other goals, including outstanding performance. They tend to see achievement primarily in relative terms, that is, how much better one person's performance is than another's. By focusing only on these external, comparative standards, they may put less emphasis on their own internal standards. Also, by pitting themselves against others, they may lose out on the support and assistance that are common in more collaborative or team-oriented efforts. Because it is difficult for competitive people to see others win, they may have difficulty being good mentors to others.

POWER DIRECT

People who prefer this style like to be in charge of everything: the agenda, the task, events, people and resources. They like to be in leadership positions and have little interest in being followers. They feel very comfortable taking control. They coordinate and organize people and events. Most of the time, they understand and act upon the need for delegating tasks to others. When they do delegate, however, they tend to continue to monitor the activity very closely. People who use this style are good at commandeering the resources.

Limitations

People who prefer this style enjoy taking charge and organizing. Others may perceive them as dominating and using personal control or power over others to achieve their own ends. When they delegate tasks to others, they tend to monitor very closely how the task is being done. This tends to make those to whom the task is delegated look more to the power achiever/leader than to themselves for direction and inspiration. As a result, their delegatees rarely feel empowered. Sometimes, people who prefer this style do not recognize when a contributory or collaborative style would be more appropriate.

PERSONAL INSTRUMENTAL

People who prefer this style tend to rely on themselves, using their personality, intelligence, wit, humor, family background and previous achievements as instruments for new success. They are good public speakers and usually can convince others to help in their task. They have a flair for dramatic gestures and symbolism, selecting just the right symbol to convey the core meaning and importance of their task. Their knack for taking counter-intuitive, or unexpected, actions takes supporters

134

and opponents, alike, by surprise. This behavior often captivates their audience's imagination, as well. They have a highly- developed sense of timing and know how to use ritual and costume to communicate their message. They are very persuasive and use well-honed negotiating skills to resolve conflicts.

Limitations
        People who prefer this style use aspects of the self, such as their accomplishments and personal attributes. They tend to evaluate their achievements in terms of recognition, relationships or other accomplishments such achievements bring. They often rely too heavily on personal charisma, wit or intellect to persuade or influence others to become involved in their tasks. Their use of dramatic action or symbolic gestures to attract the attention and commitment of others may not always be appropriate or effective. Their charisma may be mistaken for "con artistry." Others may misinterpret their actions and consider them to be egotistical or overly self-assured.

SOCIAL INSTRUMENTAL
        People who prefer this style accomplish things by seeking the help of other people whose special skills or background are relevant to the task at hand. They like to do things through other people, and they quickly recognize the connections between people and tasks. They keep good mental notes about the specific talents, knowledge and contacts of their associates and easily link them to appropriate tasks. People who use this style have strong political and networking skills, which they call upon comfortably. They keep in touch with a large network of people who feel remembered, liked and ready to help. They put associates who need assistance in touch with just the right helper. They are more likely to puck up the telephone and call someone for information than to go to the library or database to dig it out for themselves. Their network is their database.

Limitations
        People who prefer this style are adept at developing informal networks and receiving help from its members. A potential limitation is that they may look more to others than to themselves when they could do the task themselves. Social achievers/leaders may perceive others as more expert than themselves, even when that is not the case. Others may perceive the social achievement/leader as overly political or more concerned with process than substance. People who prefer this style may be perceived as "movers and shakers" who take undue delight in wielding influence.

ENTRUSTING INSTRUMENTAL
        People who prefer this style know how to make other people feel that they are counting on them. They entrust

their goals and tasks to others with the belief that others can accomplish the task as well as, or even better than, they could. Entrusting achievers/leaders inspire others to try new things. When they give a task to an associate, they generally expect that person to come through with minimal supervision. Their entrusting style usually has the effect of empowering those on whom they rely, although, at the outset, some people may quietly wish for more explicit directions and advice. Nonetheless, they are very good at bringing out the best in others. In most cases, they simply expect everyone around them to help with their tasks. In fact, they tend to use leadership through expectation. People who use this style are less concerned than the social achiever/leader about selecting just the right person for a specific task, because they simply believe that people will reach within themselves to live up to their flattering expectations.

Limitations

People who prefer this style may rely too much upon others to assume responsibility for tasks. They may depend too much on others when it would be better, faster, safer and more appropriate to do it themselves or to delegate it with more detailed guidelines. Others may misinterpret their behavior as not sufficiently assertive or directive, or even as dependent. Since people who prefer this style do not select helpers on the basis of task-specific experience, they may have unwarranted confidence in other people's abilities. They may need to consider when it would be better to depend upon someone with more task-relevant skill. They may overestimate others' interest and commitment, as well. Entrusting achievers/leaders may seek excessive encouragement and affirmation from others before moving forward as they may underestimate their own judgment or abilities to accomplish a task. This may take too much time and slow the progress of a task.

COLLABORATIVE RELATIONAL

People who favor this style prefer to work at a task with others, from a single collaborator to a team. Faced with a task, their first response is to call on one or several others to participate in the project. They feel an added surge of enthusiasm and creativity when they do things with others. Working in isolation rarely turns them on, and they ordinarily try to avoid it. They like the camaraderie of working with others and feel devoted to the group and its goals. They are willing to do their portion of the work, but they also expect to receive their fair share of the prize. If the team does not succeed, they accept their proper measure of responsibility. They know how to promote a sense of teamwork.

Limitations

        People who prefer this style may be reluctant either
to work alone or to take the initiative when solitary work
is necessary. Their desire for camaraderie may make it
difficult for them to work competitively when required.
Because they like the egalitarian spirit of a team, they
may be reluctant to take charge of the task and delegate
responsibilities to others. On the other hand, they may
want to participate as much as others when it may be more
appropriate to simply be a secondary contributor to process
someone else's tasks. People who prefer this style can get
caught up in the intricacies of group process and group
dynamics, spending more time and effort on analysis of the
group's interaction than on the task itself.

CONTRIBUTORY RELATIONAL

        People who favor this style prefer to work behind the
scenes to help others accomplish their tasks. They take
satisfaction from doing their part well so that the other
person or group is successful. They know that their
contribution has made a difference to the other party's
success, and this gives them a satisfying sense of
accomplishment. They see themselves as partners in the
other person's task, but they also understand that the
major accomplishment belongs to the other person. They are
pleased to participate in important undertakings and often
volunteer to help others whose goals they respect.

Limitations

        People who prefer to use this style may tend to take a
back seat when they really need to take the initiative, do
it as an equal or do it alone. They may be too diffident
to put forth a new idea or project as their own. They may
wait for others to take the first step. They may
undervalue their own talents and skills, as well as their
own tasks or goals, compared to those of others. They may
take on too much of another's task and not delegate or
entrust enough of the task to others. Sometimes, their
behavior is motivated by an unwillingness to take primary
responsibility for failure. In such cases, they prefer to
attach themselves to another who assumes the major
accountability for failure, as well as for success. As a
result, people who prefer this style may be willing to
forego the excitement of success in or der to avoid the
despair of failure. Because they are so oriented toward
helping others, they may not ask enough of others who may
be able to help them accomplish their goals.

VICARIOUS RELATIONAL

        People who prefer this style derive a real sense of
accomplishment when the people with whom they identify
succeed. They know how to be good mentors, offering
encouragement and guidance to others. They are happy to
support other individuals and groups with reassurance,

direction and praise, but they do not get into the act themselves. They feel very comfortable as spectators or supporters of someone else who is the main achiever, rather than as direct participants in the task. Their sense of pride in the success of others is sufficient reward; they do not need to take credit for the accomplishments of others whom they have encouraged.

Limitations
        People who prefer this style may remain behind the scenes or on the sidelines, not actively involved in tasks. They may put others' goals ahead of their own. They may be overly self-sacrificing and feel uncomfortable about putting their own goals or tasks ahead of others'. They may be unwilling to devote the psychic and physical energy or other resources that are necessary to get directly involved in their own, a group's or another's task. Others may perceive them as lacking the self confidence or initiative to do it alone. In extreme cases, when they seem overly supportive, others may see them as groupies.

APPENDIX E

ASI DEMOGRAPHICS

The demographics page on the ASI seeks information on the following:

1. sex   __m   __f
2. age
3. citizenship (country)   USA default
                                      designation

4. race/ethnicity   Am Indian, Alaskan
                                      native, Black not
                                      Hispanic, Asian or
                                      Pacific Islander,
                                      Hispanic/Spanish,
                                      White not Hispanic

5. current marital status   Never married
                                      Married
                                      Remarried
                                      Separated
                                      Divorced
                                      Widowed

6. number of children you   0 1 2 3 4 5 or more
   have

7. completed years of education   6-21+:   coded
                                      18 = master's;
                                      20 = 2 master's or
                                           CAGS;
                                      21+ = Ed.D.

8. highest degree you currently   coded master's, PHD,
   hold   or other: CAGS

9. field in which highest   coded 85 - education;
   degree was earned   01 - administration;
                                      - counseling;
                                      - math; - English

10. current student status   full-time; part-time;
                                      not a student

11. work history   employed outside the
                                      home? yes   no
                                             years part-time
                                             years full-time

140

12. current occupational status   employed full-time
    (check all that apply)   employed part time
                                    unemployed
                                    retired
                                    homemaker part-time
                                    homemaker full-time
                                    volunteer

13. level within work   coded middle
    organization   management;
                                   other options: upper
                                   management; first-line
                                   supervisory;
                                   professional
                                   nonsupervisory;
                                   sec/clerical;
                                   other_____

14. years at present
    organizational level   _____

15. current occupation \
16. current job title   /   coded 1282

17. type of employer   coded educational
                                   institution; (other
                                   alternatives:
                                   government, large
                                   corporation;
                                   medium/small business;
                                   non profit
                                   organization;
                                   self-employed; other)

18. employer's field or business   coded 94

APPENDIX F

GUIDELINES FOR USING THE L-BL INDIVIDUAL
ACHIEVING STYLES INVENTORY

Guidelines for Using the L-BL Individual
Achieving Styles Inventory

The Conceptual Handbook (Lipman-Blumen, 1987) indicates the following rules and procedures for using the L-BL Individual Achieving Styles Inventory:

1) All materials are copyrighted and the researcher needs permission to use them.

2) All materials may be purchased from the Achieving Styles Institute, 1520 E. California Blvd., Pasadena, CA 91106.

3) Non-funded researchers may use the L-BL instrument without licensing or paying royalty fees.

4) The researcher must submit a one page typed description of the research indicating its purpose, hypotheses and methodology, sample composition and size, type and dates of administration, type of analyses to be conducted, and expected completion date. Graduate students send a copy of their research proposal.

5) The original completed scan sheets must be returned for processing.

6) One copy of all additional instruments to be used in the research and a narrative description of them must be submitted.

7) A copy of the completed dissertation and a short abstract of it must be submitted to the Institute.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alves, P. J. (1993). Taking the lead. <u>Business West</u>, <u>10</u>(4), 32-34.

<u>A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform</u>. (1983). Washington: National Commission on Excellence in Education.

Anderson, L. W., & Walberg, H. J. (1993). Summary and Conclusions. In L. W. Anderson & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), <u>Extending and enhancing learning time</u> (pp. 41-44). Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Austin, G. R. (1978). <u>Process evaluation: A comprehensive study of outliers</u>. Baltimore: Maryland State Department of Education.

Axline, S., Billings, J. & VanderHorst, N. (1991). <u>A review of gender-linked findings in the achieving styles literature</u>. Claremont, CA: Claremont Graduate School. Photocopy.

Bass, B. M. (1985). <u>Leadership and performance beyond expectations</u>. New York: The Free Press.

Baumrind, D. (1986). Sex differences in moral reasoning: Response to Walker's (1984) conclusion that there are none. <u>Child Development</u>, <u>57</u>(2), 511-521.

Beardsley, K., Stewart, G. M. & Wilmes, M. B. (1987). Achieving Styles of Students and Student Affairs Professionals. <u>Journal of College Student Personnel</u>, <u>28</u>(5), 412-419.

Beck, L. G. (1994). <u>Reclaiming educational administration as a caring profession</u>. New York: Teachers College Press.

Belenky, M. F., Clinchy, B. M., Goldberger, N. R., & Tarule, J. M. (1986). <u>Women's ways of knowing: The development of self, voice, and mind</u>. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). <u>Leaders: The strategies for taking charge</u>. New York: Harper & Row.

Blumberg, A. (1989). <u>School administration as a craft: Foundations of practice</u>. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

144

Brookover, W. B., Beady, C., Flood, P., Schweitzer, J., & Wisenbaker, J. (1979). School social systems and student achievement: Schools can make a difference. New York: Praeger.

Brown, F. L., Amos, J. R., & Mink, O. G. (1975). Statistical concepts. New York: Harper & Row.

Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

Campbell, R. F., Bridges, E. M., & Nystrand, R. O. (1977). Introduction to educational administration (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Campbell, R. F., & Gregg, R. T. (Eds.). (1957). Administrative behavior in education. New York: Harper.

Canady, R. L., & Rettig, M. D. (1995). Block scheduling: A catalyst for change in high schools. Princeton, NJ: Eye on Education.

Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy's Report of the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession. (1986). A nation prepared: Teachers for the 21st century. (Report No. SP 027 598). New York: Carnegie Corporation. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 268 120).

Cawelti, G. (1987a, February). How effective instructional leaders get results (Report No. EA 019 380). Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association of School Administrators, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 372 406).

Cawelti, G. (1987b). Why instructional leaders are so scarce. Educational Leadership, 45(1), 3.

Champlin, J. (1987). A change agent's view. In L. T. Sheive & M. B. Schoenheit (Eds.), Leadership: examining the elusive (pp. 49-63). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Chancellor, W. E. (1915). Our schools: their administration and supervision (rev. ed.). Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Charest, G. M. (1990). A personal definition of leadership. Amherst: University of Massachusetts. Unpublished paper.

Chaskin, R. J., & Rauner, D. M. (1995). Youth and caring: an introduction. Phi Delta Kappan, 76(9), 667-674.

Chemers, M. M. (1984). The social, organizational, and cultural context of effective leadership. In B. Kellerman (Ed.), Leadership: multidisciplinary perspectives (pp. 91-112). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Cherry, M. J. (1994, March). Gilligan's "Different Voice" theory: A just cause for composition inquiry or just another conceptual bandwagon? (Report No. CS 214 434). Paper presented at the 45th Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Nashville, TN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 372 406)

Chodorow, N. (1974). Family structure and feminine personality. In M. Rosaldo & L. Lamphere (Eds.), Woman, culture, and society (pp. 43-66). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Code, L. (1988). Experience, knowledge and responsibility. In M. Griffiths & M. Whiteford (Eds.), Feminist perspectives in philosophy (pp. 187-204). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Coladarci, A. P., & Getzels, J. W. (1955). The use of theory in educational administration (Educational Administration Monograph No. 5). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Coleman, J., Campbell, E., Hobson, C., Partland, J., Mood, A., Weinfield, F., & York, R. (1966). Equality of educational opportunity. Washington, D. C. : United States Government Printing Office.

Counts, C. D. (1987). Toward a relational managerial model for schools: A study of women and men as superintendents and principals. (Doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1987). Dissertation Abstracts International, (Counts, 1987/1988).

Cubberley, E. P. (1916). Public school administration. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Daresh, J. C. & Liu, C. J. (1985, March-April). High school principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership behavior (Report No. EA 019 857). Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 291 138).

Deal, T. E. (1987). The culture of schools. In L. T.
      Sheive & M. B. Schoenheit (Eds.), Leadership:
      Examining the elusive (pp.3-15). Alexandria VA:
      Association for Supervision and Curriculum
      Development.

Deal, T. E., & Celotti, L. D. (1980). How much influence
      do (and can) educational administrators have on
      classrooms? Phi Delta Kappan, 61(7), pp. 471-473.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1991). The principal's
      role in shaping school culture. Washington, D. C.:
      United States Department of Education.

Dewey, J. (1958). Philosophy of education (Problems of
      men). Patterson, NJ: Littlefield, Adams & Co.

Dickey, B., Kroll, B. S., & Jenkins, L. (1987, November).
      Gilligan revisited: methodological issues in the study
      of gender and moral development (Report No. CS 506
      229). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the
      Speech Communication Association, Boston. (ERIC
      Document Reproduction Service No. ED 295 275)

Duchen, C. (1986). Feminism in France from May '68 to
      Mitterand. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor.
      Educational Leadership, 37(1), 20-24.

Erickson, D. A. (Ed.). (1977). Educational organization
      and administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutcheon
      Publishing.

Fiedler, F. D. (1967). A theory of leadership
      effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Finn, C. E., Jr. (1983, April). A principal's leadership
      in developing the characteristics of excellent schools
      (Report No. EA 015 868). Paper presented at the
      National Meeting of the Catholic Educational
      Association, Washington, D. C. (ERIC Document
      Reproduction Service No. ED 233 446).

Finn, C. E., Jr. (1987). How to spot an effective
      principal. Principal, 67(1), 20-22.

Flesch, R. F. (1955). Why Johnny can't read - and what
      you can do about it. New York: Harper.

Follett, M. P. (1926). The giving of orders. In H. C.
      Metcalf (Ed.), Scientific foundations of business
      administration (pp. 43-51). Baltimore: Williams &
      Wilkins Co.

Foster, W. A. (1988). The principal as key: Steps to success. In G. T. Houlihan, (Ed.), <u>School effectiveness: The key ingredients of schools with heart</u> (pp. 44-55). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas Publisher.

Gardner, H. (1983). <u>Frames of mind: the theory of multiple intelligences</u>. New York: Basic Books.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). <u>On leadership</u>. New York: The Free Press.

Georgiades, W. D. H. (1984, February). <u>Excellence in schooling: Effective styles for effective schools</u>. (Report No. EA 016 995). Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, Las Vegas, NV. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 246 543).

Gersten, R., Carnine, D., & Green, S. (1982). The principal as instructional leader: A second look. <u>Educational Leadership</u>, <u>40</u>(3), 47-50.

Gibbs, G. K. (1989). <u>Effective schools research: The principal as instructional leader</u> (Report No. EA 021 075). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 308 587).

Gilligan, C. (1982). <u>In a different voice</u>. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gilligan, C. (1986). On "In a different voice": an interdisciplinary forum. <u>Signs</u>, <u>11</u>(2), 304-333.

Gilligan, C., & Attanucci, J. (1988). Much ado about . . . Knowing? Noting? Nothing? A reply to Vasudev concerning sex differences and moral development. <u>Merrill-Palmer Quarterly</u>, <u>34</u>(3), 451-456.

Gilligan, C., Langdale, S., & Lyons, N. (1982). <u>The contribution of women's thought to developmental theory: The elimination of sex bias in moral development research and education</u> (Report No. CG 016 494). Final report to the National Institute of Education, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 226 301).

Gilligan, C., Ward, J. V., & Taylor, J. M. (Eds.). (1988). <u>Mapping the moral domain: A contribution of women's thinking to psychological theory and education</u>. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gips, C. J. (1989, November). <u>Women's ways: a model for leadership in democratic schools</u>. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of States on Inservice Education, San Antonio TX.

Goodlad, J. J. (1983). <u>A place called school</u>. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Greeno, C. G., & Maccoby, E. F. (1986). On "In a different voice": An interdisciplinary forum. <u>Signs</u>, <u>11</u>(2), 304-333.

Griffiths, D. E. (1956). <u>Human relations in school administration</u>. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Gulick, L., & Urwick, L. (Eds.) (1937). <u>Papers on the science of administration</u>. New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University.

Haan, N. (1985a). <u>Gender differences in moral development</u>. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association meetings, Los Angeles.

Haan, N. (1985b). <u>With regard to Walker (1984) on sex differences in moral reasoning</u>. Unpublished manuscript. University of California, Berkeley: Institute of Human Development.

Hagman, H. L., & Schwartz, A. (1955). <u>Administration in profile for school executives</u>. New York: Harper.

Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1986). <u>Instructional leadership in effective schools</u>. (Report No. EA 021 153). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 309 535).

Halpin, A. W. (1957). A paradigm for research on administrative behavior. In R. F. Campbell & R. T. Gregg (Eds.), <u>Administrative behavior in education</u> (pp. 155-199). New York: Harper & Row.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1969). <u>Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources</u>. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Hughes, L. W. (1994). The leader: artist? archietct? Commissar? In L. W. Hughes (Ed.), <u>The principal as leader</u> (pp. 5-27). New York: Merrill.

Johnson, S. M. (1984). <u>Teacher unions in schools</u>. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Joyce, B., Wolf, J., & Calhoun, E. (1993). <u>The self-renewing school</u>. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). <u>Men and women of the corporation</u>. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Kanter, R. M. (1983). <u>The change masters: Innovation and entrepreneurship in the American corporation</u>. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Kanter, R. M. (1989). <u>When giants learn to dance: Mastering the challenge of strategy, management, and careers in the 1990s</u>. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Keefer, M. W. (1993, March). <u>Gilligan's moral orientation hypothesis: Strategies of justification and practical deliberation</u> (Report No. CE 063 640). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development, New Orleans, LA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 357 236).

Kerber, L. K. (1986). On "In a different voice": An interdisciplinary forum. <u>Signs</u>, <u>11</u>(2), 304-333.

Kerchner, C. T., & Koppich, J. E. (1993). <u>A union of professionals: Labor relations and educational reform</u>. New York: Teachers College Press.

Kohlberg, L. (1984). <u>The psychology of moral development: The nature and validity of moral stages</u> (Vol. 2). San Francisco: Harper & Row.

Kohlberg, L., Levine, C., & Hewer, A. (1983). Moral stages: A current formulation and a response to critics. In J. Meacham (Ed.), <u>Contributions to human development monograph series</u>, <u>10</u>. Basil, Switzerland: S. Karger.

Korabik, K. (1981, March). <u>Androgyny and leadership: an integration</u>. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Association of Women in Psychology, Boston, MA.

Kowalski, T. J., & Reitzug, U. C. (1993). <u>Contemporary school administration</u>. New York: Longman.

Langdale, S. (1986). A re-vision of structural-developmental theory. In G. Sapp (Ed.), <u>Handbook of moral development</u>. Birmingham, AL: Religious Education Press.

Lawson, J. (1988, July). <u>Managing vs. leading our schools</u> (Report No. EA 020 316). Keynote speech given before the Leadership Development Institute, Waterville Valley, NH. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 298 642).

Lever, J. (1976). Sex differences in the games children play. <u>Social Problems</u>, <u>23</u>(4), 479-488.

Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created 'social climates'. <u>Journal of Social Psychology</u>, 271-199.

Lezotte, L. W. (1980, July). <u>Documenting successful schools: Is there a better way?</u> (Report No. EA 012 990). Paper presented at the annual summer conference of the American Association of School Administrators, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 193 762).

Likert, R. (1967). <u>The human organization</u>. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lipman-Blumen, J. (1984). <u>Gender roles and power</u>. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Lipman-Blumen, J. (1987). <u>Individual and organizational achieving styles: A conceptual handbook for researchers and human resource professionals</u>. Claremont, CA: The Achieving Styles Institute.

Lipman-Blumen, J. (1992). Connective leadership: Female leadership styles in the 21st century workplace. <u>Sociological Perspectives</u>, <u>35</u>(1) 183-203).

Lipman-Blumen, J. (in press). <u>Connective leadership: Beyond competition and collaboration</u>. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lipman-Blumen, J., Handley-Isaksen, A., & Leavitt, H. J. (1983). Achieving styles in men and women: A model, an instrument, and some findings. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), <u>Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological and sociological approaches</u> (pp. 147-204). San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Co.

Luria, Z. (1986). On "In a different voice": An interdisciplinary forum. <u>Signs</u>, <u>11</u>(2), 304-333.

Lyons, N. (1983). Two perspectives: On self, relationships and morality. <u>Harvard Educational Review</u>, <u>53</u>(2), 125-145.

Mace-Matluck, B. (1987). The effective schools movement: its history and context (Report No. EA 020 803). Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Lab. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 304 781).

Manasse, A. L. (1986). Vision and leadership: Paying attention to intention. Peabody Journal of Education, 63(1), 150-173.

Maslow, A. H. (1954). Motivation and personality. New York: Harper.

Massachusetts Education Reform Act (MERA). (1993). Massachusetts General Laws Annotated, ss 71, 37H, 59B, 59C, 59D.

Mayo, E. (1933). The human problems of an industrialized civilization. New York: The Macmillan Co.

McCall, J. R. (1986). The provident principal (Report No. EA 019 149). Chapel Hill, NC: North Carolina University, Institute of Government. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 278 150).

McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1953). The achievement motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

McCurdy, J. (1983). The role of the principal in effective schools: problems & solutions. Sacramento, CA: American Association of School Administrators.

McDonnell, L. M., & Pascal, A. (1988). Teacher unions and educational reforms. New Brunswick, NJ: Center for Policy Research in Education, Rutgers University.

McGregor, D. M. (1960). The human side of enterprise. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mednick, M. T. (1989). On the politics of psychological constructs: Stop the bandwagon, I want to get off. American Psychologist, 44(8) 1118-1123.

Mertz, N. T., & McNeely, S. R. (1987, November). Secondary schools in transition: a study of the emerging female administrator (Report No. EA 019 763). Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration. Gatlinburg, TN. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 289 239).

Miller, J. B. (1976). Toward a new psychology of women (2nd ed.). Boston: Beacon Press.

Mitchell, B. (1990 a). Loss, belonging, and becoming: Social policy themes for children and schools. In B. Mitchell & L. Cunningham (Eds.), _Educational leadership and changing contexts of families, communities, and schools: eightly-ninth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education_ (pp. 19-51). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Mitchell, B. (1990 b). Children, youth, and restructured schools: Views from the field. In B. Mitchell & L. Cunningham (Eds.), _Educational leadership and changing contexts of families, communities, and schools: eighty-ninth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education_ (pp. 52-68). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Montenegro, X. (1993). _Women and racial minority representation in school administration_ (Report No. EA 025 492). Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 364 959).

Mort, P. R., & Ross, D. H. (1957). _Principles of school administration_. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Murray, H. A. (1938). _Explorations in personality_. New York: Oxford University Press.

Musser, C. S. (Jan. 9, 1990). _Affiliation related to age, gender, identity, and marital status: A confirmatory study of C. Gilligan's postulate_ (Report No. CG 023 828). M. S. Thesis, Fort Hays State University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 339 927).

National Education Association. (1986). _The role of the principal in effective schools_. (What research says about series, No. 4). Washington, DC: Author.

Newberg, N. A., & Glatthorn, A. A. (1982). _Instructional leadership: Four ethnographic studies on Junior High School principals_ (Report No. EA 016 199). Executive summary. Washington, DC: Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 236 809).

Noddings, N. (1984). _Caring: a feminine approach to ethics and moral education_. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Noddings, N. (1992). _The challenge to care in schools: An alternative approach to education_. New York: Teachers College Press.

Norris, C. J. (1994). Cultivating creative cultures. In L. W. Hughes (Ed.), The principal as leader (pp. 61-87). New York: Merrill.

Ortiz, F. I., & Marshall, C. (1988). Women in educational administration. In N. J. Bryan (Ed.) Handbook of research on educational administration (pp. 123-141). New York: Longman.

Paine, M. V. (1990). The emerging role of the principal as manager as it relates to the new philosophies and construction of teacher empowerment. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1990). Dissertation Abstracts International, 51, 2591A. (Paine, 1990/1991).

Parks, D. J. (1986). Create a vision, build a consensus, be an effective leader. The Clearing House, 60(2), 88-90.

Pellicer, L. O., Anderson, L. W., Keefe, J. W., Kelley, E. A., & McCleary, L. E. (1990). High school leaders and their schools Volume II: Profiles of effectiveness. Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Persell, C. H., Cookson P. W., Jr., & Lyons, H. (1982, October). Effective principals: What do we know from various educational literatures? (Report No. EA 015 387). Paper prepared for the national conference on the principalship, convened by the National Institute of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 224 177).

Piaget, J. (1948). The moral judgment of the child. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Pierce, T. M., & Merrill, E. C., Jr. (1957). The individual and administrator behavior. In R. F. Campbell and R. T. Gregg (Eds.), Administrative behavior in education (pp. 318-353). New York: Harper & Row.

Pitt, A. (1991). The expression of experience: Code's critique of Gilligan's abortion study. Journal of Moral Education, 20(2) 177-190.

Pratt, M. W. (1985, August). Sex differences in moral orientations in personal and hypothetical dilemmas: Don't forget those old outcasts of content and process. In C. Blake (Chair), Gender differences in moral development. Symposium conducted at the meeting of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles.

Rallis, S. F., & Highsmith, M. C. (1986). The myth of the "Great Principal": Questions of school management and instructional leadership. Phi Delta Kappan, 68(4), 300-304.

Reddin, W. J. (1970). Managerial effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rosenblum, S., & Jastrzab, J. (1980). The role of the principal in change: The teacher corps. Cambridge MA: Abt Associates, Inc.

Rossman, G. B., Corbett, H. D., & Firestone, W. A. (1988). Change and effectiveness in schools: A cultural perspective. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Rost, J. C. (1991). Leadership for the twenty-first century. New York: Praeger.

Rutherford, W. L. (1985). School principals as effective leaders. Phi Delta Kappan, 67(1), 31-34.

Sargent, C. G., & Belisle, E. L. (1955). Educational administration: cases and concepts. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Sashkin, M. (1988). The visionary principal: School leadership for the next century. Education and Urban Society, 20(3), 239-249.

Sears, J. B. (1950). The nature of the administrative process. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shakeshaft, C. (1987). Theory in a changing reality. Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 7(1), 4-20.

Shakeshaft, C. (1990). Women in educational administration (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Shakeshaft, C. & Nowell, I. (1984). Research on theories, concepts, and models of organizational behavior: The influence of gender. Issues in Education, 2(3), 186-203.

Sheive, L. T., & Schoenheit, M. B. (1987). Vision and the work life of educational leaders. In L. T. Sheive & M. B. Schoenheit (Eds.), Leadership: examining the elusive (pp. 93-104). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Smith, S. C., & Scott, J. J. (1990). The collaborative
school: a work environment for effective instruction.
Eugene, OR: University Publications, University of
Oregon.

Socoski, P. (1984). Responses to sex-bias criticism in
cognitive moral theory (Report No. CG 019659). ERIC
Document Reproduction Service No. ED 278 881).

Spartz, J. L., Valdes, A. L., McCormick, W. J., Myers, J.,
& Geppert, W. J. (1977). Delaware educational
accountability system case studies: elementary schools
grades 1-4. Dover, DE: Department of Education.

Stogdill, R. (1948). Personal factors associated with
leadership: A survey of the literature. Journal of
Psychology, 25, 35-71.

Strayer, G. B. (1920). Some problems in city school
administration. Yonkers-on-Hudson, NY: World
Book Co.

Stufflebeam, D. L., McCormick, C. H., Brinkerhoff, R. O.,
Nelson, C. O. (1985). Conducting educational needs
assessments. Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff.

Taylor, A., & Valentine, B. (1985). Effective schools
(What research says about series, No. 1) (Report No.
EA 018 836). Washington, DC: National Education
Association Research Division. (ERIC Document
Reproduction Service No. ED 274 073).

Tomorrow's teachers: A report of the Holmes Group.
(1986). (Report No. SP 027 831). East Lansing, MI.
(ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 270 454).

Uhlir, G. A. (1989). Leadership and gender. Academe,
75(1) 28-35.

Valverde, L. A., & Brown, F. (1988). Influences on
leadership development among racial and ethnic
minorities. In N. J. Bryan (Ed.), Handbook of
research on educational administration (pp. 143-157).
New York: Longman.

Vasudev, J. (1988). Sex differences in morality and moral
orientation: a discussion of the Gilligan and
Attanucci study. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 34(3),
239-244.

Volosinov, V. N. (1973). Marxism and the philosophy of
language. (I. Matezka & I. R. Tunik, Trans.) New
York: Seminar Press.

Walker, L. (1984). Sex differences in the development of moral reasoning: A critical review. <u>Child Development</u>, <u>55</u>(3), 677-691.

Walker, L., de Vries, B., & Trevethan, S.D. (1987). Moral stages and moral orientations in real-life and hypothetical dilemmas. <u>Child Development</u>, <u>58</u>(3), 842-858.

Walton, J. (1955). The theoretical study of educational administration. <u>Harvard Educational Review</u>, <u>25</u>, 169-178.