

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 453 578

EA 031 017

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TITLE Philosophies of Leadership and Management and Its Influence on Change.
PUB DATE 2001-00-00
NOTE 65p.
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Opinion Papers (120)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Organization; Communication Problems; *Cooperation; Elementary Secondary Education; *Leadership; *Management Systems; Public Schools; *Role Conflict; *Teacher Effectiveness

ABSTRACT

Since the National Commission on Excellence in Education stated the nation was "at risk," there have been efforts to design and implement improved teacher delivery strategies that would enhance classroom instruction. In spite of reform efforts, crucial decisions affecting teachers' classroom practices still have a tendency to be made by administrators and other policymakers at all levels. Despite some gains by teachers, local administrators and officials are still exercising control over teachers and their classroom practices, while, at the same time, teachers are being held responsible for all phases of mandated reforms. A study sought to identify factors that contribute to the lack of congruency between proposed educational reform and its application in the classroom. The study examined the responses of 5 superintendents, 5 principals, and 10 teachers concerning their management or leadership notions. The following questions were asked: Do you consider yourself a manager/leader? What makes you a manager/leader? Does what you do make you a manager/leader, or how you do it? and From your experience, what makes a good manager/leader? The findings appear to indicate that the lack of implementation and goal attainment is directly related to various miscommunication factors. The following indicators were determined as a result of the research: (1) top-down management styles were evident by the majority of the administrators' answers; (2) Nonparticipatory, noncollaborative work environments were the norm; (3) teachers should be given direction in the view of administrators; and (4) teachers do not take the initiative; they allow policies to come from above. (Contains 7 pages of references.) (DFR)

PHILOSOPHIES OF LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT AND ITS INFLUENCE ON CHANGE

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

Background

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education put forth the notion that the United States was a nation "at risk". This was a controversial document because it was based in part on various diverse circumstances as well as the public's perception surrounding the nation's school system. To counter this situation, changes in curriculum, standards and time in school were revisited and recommendations made (National Commission on Excellence in Teaching).

Then in 1986, both the Holmes group and the Carnegie Task Force released their findings. In them they question the quality and performance of the teaching profession in general. The two groups suggested remedy was to design and implement improved teacher delivery strategies which would enhance classroom instruction (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy; Holmes Group).

In spite of the suggestions made and the mandates that followed, it has been found that crucial decisions affecting teachers' classroom practices have a tendency to be imparted by administrators and other policy makers at the federal, state, and local levels. Research shows that these outside the classroom policy-makers, predetermined the content of curriculum, how it should be taught, assessed, and what materials would be needed to teacher-proof the school to ensure attainment of any new requirements (Lanigan, 1996). In addition, Ryan and Cooper (1995) findings indicate that those individuals in educational leadership like to control others with their power, and do not give up their power voluntarily.

Furthermore, these procedures are still being undertaken in numerous districts today, but in a subtle, more covert fashion. Higher standards have been enacted including more rigorous teacher and site accountability. In addition, teachers are becoming more involved in the decision making processes including school finance, personnel selection, and classroom practice. In like manner, organizational structures within individual schools have also changed. But, be that as it may, local administrators as well as state and federal officials are still exercising control over teachers and their classroom practices. In fact, according to Tye (1992), educational decision making is more top down and hierarchical than it is has ever been in the past even with all the reform information available.

Nevertheless, anyone directly or even remotely involved in public education--students, parents, teachers, school administrators, politicians, and bureaucrats, continue to cry out loudly for more reform (Gibson & Coleman, 1997). No two persons or groups want the same thing from educational reform, but each wants his or her own agenda addressed immediately and without equivocation.

The latest of both formal and informal status reports on educational reform, like most earlier reports, recognize the continuing need for reform while noting the failure of many aspects of our past and current reform efforts. Efforts to move towards the concepts of heterogeneous grouping, authentic assessment and teacher collaboration and empowerment continue to meet with resistance (Pogrow, 1996).

Thus, are teachers sincerely being allowed to think for themselves, to collaborate with others, and render critical judgments to enhance their particular classroom dynamics? Research suggest that they are not (Fullan, 1994). The

American Heritage Dictionary (1992) defines a "decision maker" as one who is in a position of both power and authority who can implement resolutions to accomplish prescribed outcomes. Conversely, most teachers do not hold such positions nor command such authority.

Consequently, as teachers have tried to implement the new mandated courses of action--determined by those outside of their specific setting--it has become apparent that many students are not effectively making academic gains. Many schools have new curricula, new school calendars and daily schedules, site-based management and school choice. However, these enhancements have failed to address specific classroom needs as well as changing the demographics in many school districts (Personal Communication, Dr. R. Moore, 1997).

When teachers are held responsible for the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of mandated reforms, the trend is to hold these same individuals accountable for the ideas and proposals which were never implemented or did not work in actual practice. As a result, teachers have become convenient whipping posts for the failures of the reform movement (Gibson & Coleman, 1997).

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study is to identify factors that contribute to the lack of congruency between proposed educational reform and its application in the classroom.

Significance of the Problem

Attempts to improve education in the last twenty years have oftentimes focused on the reconceptualization of the roles and responsibilities of administrators and teachers. Likewise, current educational reform and

restructuring focus on the notions of experimental processes to change schooling such as, shared-decision making, site-based management, and collaboration (Elliot & Harris, 1997).

But, the debate over school improvement and how best to implement reform continues. Fullan's (1994) findings consider the major problem of school reform as one which involves the notion of a continuous educational change process that is confined within the narrowness of an inherently conventional system. The result is an institutional system that is more prone to retaining the status quo rather than committing to any real educational transformation (Fullan, 1994). Gupton (1995) research indicates that although many school districts talk about decentralizations, site based management, and empowered workers, the results are more "rhetoric than reality" (p. 74).

Glickman, Gordon, Ross-Gordon (1998) research on effective schools found that one of the greatest predictors for school success was goal congruency by all involved. In addition, these findings also indicated that collaborative planning, teacher involvement, and clear leadership from the site administration leads to positive school outcomes. Other research found that schools that worked together as harmonious teams were more productive in producing successful restructuring strategies than those that did not have a team approach (Pratzner, 1984; Rosenholtz, 1985).

Therefore, a school staff working together must operate from many different perspectives. One of the foundational facets of a collaborative staff is communication. However, communication is a very complex process. It is the author's contention that due to this communication breakdown, the ideals of

reform and its associated mandated practices are not being effectively communicated to the teachers.

To illustrate, as a mandated practice originates at the state level, a process of implementation begins. This process involves the board of education, regional, district, and local sites. In each of these steps, information is given and interpreted. This process is repeated through each of the various levels. In addition to the information being communicated, each of the recipients filters the mandates through their own leadership or management schema. It is at this juncture that reform transforms into many different purposes depending on ones philosophical view of their leadership paradigm.

Research Questions

Numerous questions arise upon examination of these issues. One of them is what is or is not being communicated through the filtering process. Also, why are the reform mandates so diluted by the time they arrive at the school site or classroom levels? Communication, in general, always involves speakers, listeners and a medium through which the message is transmitted (Myers, 1996). If the medium is from a managerial perspective, communication would be different than if the medium were from a leadership point of view. The present study will investigate this manager/leadership communication process through the following questions:

1. Do you consider yourself a manager/leader?
2. What makes you a manager/leader?
3. Is what you do that makes you a manager/leader or is it how you do it?
4. From your experience, what makes a good manager/leader?

Research Hypothesis

Specifically, since there seems to be minimal congruency between the communicated goals and outcomes of a leader or a manager, educational reform is not taking place; it is hypothesized that teachers need and will only become empowered by administrations who embrace a leadership notion that allows them to implement effective schooling practices.

Scope and Limitations

The scope of this study was to examine the responses of five superintendents, five principals, and ten teachers concerning their management or leadership notions.

1. The study was limited to twenty subjects interviewed.
2. The study was limited to two schools and two school districts.
3. The results are inferable only to those individuals who participated in this study.

There is no attempt in this research to establish any linkage between cause and effect. Because, "behavioral science and research does not offer certainty, neither in fact does natural science. It does not even offer relative certainty. All it offers is probabilistic knowledge" (Kerlinger, 1979, p. 28). Likewise, "research can never tell us that something is so certain that no doubts exist at all" (Schumacher, 1992, p. 13).

This inquiry was undertaken after an analysis of current research (e. g., Rost, 1992, 1993; Fullan, 1993, 1994; Sizer, 1995; Elliot & Harris, 1997) showed that educational reform could take place under certain conditions and in specific settings where the evidence of leadership was significant. Chapter Two is a composite of the literature of professional education, the literature dealing with attempts at implementing

mandated reforms, and literature dealing with current leadership strategies and methodologies that have positive effects on schooling.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature dealing with current leadership strategies and methodologies that have positive effects on schooling. This will include research on successful school practices conducted in various locations throughout the United States. It will also include the foundational components that make up the reasoning behind this research design.

Management: Maintaining the Status Quo

Rallis and Harvey (1995), state that reforms are not working. Their assumption is based on the traditional view of school as being one that is very constrained and controlled. Furthermore, "the actual practice of schooling is typically geared towards information accumulation and maintaining the existing social order" (p. 222). In fact, status quo and management can be viewed as synonymous terms (Personal communication, Dr. R. Moore, 1997).

Resistance to change can be common. According to Connor (1995), some reasons for resisting change is that it is not deemed necessary or that it is not economically feasible. Another important aspect is the idea of the loss of status and power. In most bureaucracies, loss of status or power is not perceived positively.

Likewise, all educational administrations are bureaucracies. Bureaucracies, according to Black & English (1986), are stifling.

It cares little about the services it provides. It is more interested in its own self interest than the clients its services are aimed at. It is a self-perpetuating form of organizational behavior which is suspicious of change and interested only in maintaining the status quo (p. 37).

In fact, this research further states that bureaucracies are not to serve but to be

served and any decision that is made must be done so that it fits the existing forms and established procedures. Bureaucracies run on the notions of management. The four rules for demonstrating bureaucratic competency are (1) be like everyone else, don't be the exception; (2) keep the paper flowing; (3) answer and fill in all the blanks; (4) paper is reality (Black & English, 1986).

In addition to bureaucracies maintaining the status quo, those in it are individuals who enjoy power. These individuals who are part of the bureaucracy, are the reasons that most school organizations have a bad case of constipation (Black & English, 1986). In other words they do not want to change. From a managerial perspective, they desire to tell others what to do and be in control of all that goes on in their organization (Beck & Hillmar, 1987).

In contrast with the traditional perspective, a positive orientation on power involves empowerment that assumes each individual is a rich source for information and change. Gupton (1995, pp. 73-74) presents a model contrasting the traditional top-down scheme with the concept of shared power. This model illustrates that everyone involved must be perceived as a vital and active part in the collaborative process. To facilitate this dynamic process, reform ideas need to originate and be discussed by all concerned parties. All need to be involved in every phase of development and implementation. The responsibility for standards and performance outcomes as well as classroom implementation must be shifted:

from	to
solo-top-down	everyone, distributed
manager	leader
positional authority	influence authority
autocratic-----transactual-----	transformational

risk dodger-----	risk taker-----	risk maker
white, male dominated		pluralistic
style profile		situational
climate focused		culturally focused
reactionary		visionary
empowered		empowering

To implement Gupton's model requires significant changes to those who embrace a management perspective. The least of these changes will concern themselves with the philosophical metamorphose of changing from a manager to a leader, from a boss to a team player, from positional authority to influenced authority, from being autocratic to being transformational, and from having an empowered position to promoting an empowering faculty.

Differences Between the Concept of Management and Leadership

It is important to grasp the difference between leadership and management. The traditional conceptualization of the functions of management include: planning, organization, directing, and controlling. Dubrin (1995) claims that leading is a part of a manager's job. He goes on to state that generally speaking, leadership deals with the interpersonal aspects of a manager's job, whereas planning, organizing, and controlling are administrative aspects.

Conversely, current research indicates that leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation, and influence whereas, management deals more with maintaining equilibrium and the status quo (Brungardt, Gould, Moore, Potts, 1997).

Kotter's (1990) findings indicate that management is more formal and scientific than leadership. It relies on universal skills such as planning,

budgeting, and controlling. Management is an explicit set of tools and techniques, based on reasoning and testing, that can be used in a variety of situations. Leadership, in contrast to management, involves having a vision of what the organization can become. Leadership requires eliciting cooperation and teamwork from a large network of individuals and keeping the key people in that network motivated, which requires every manner of persuasion available.

Locke's (1991) findings draw another important distinction between leadership and management. The key function of the leader is to create a vision (mission or agenda) for the organization. The leader specifies the far-reaching goal as well as the strategy for goal attainment. In contrast to the leader, the key function of the manager is to implement the vision. The manager and his or her team thus choose the means to achieve the end that the leader formulates. If these views are taken to their extreme, the leader would be inspirational figure and the manager would be a bureaucrat stuck within the confines of the status quo.

In looking at the differences between leadership and management there seems to be a dichotomy. In resolving any conflict it helps to look at it from a dialectic point of view. Being dialectic involves seeing and articulating contradictions; it is the process of learning from two opposing points of view (Wink, 1997). In the dynamics of dialecticness the process of conscientization can occur. It is through the formation of conscientization that authentic leadership matures and grows.

Leadership: Developing Conscientization

"Conscientization moves one from passivity of yeah-but-we-can't-do-that to the power of we-gotta-do-the-best-we-can-where-we-are-with-what-we-got" (Wink, 1997, p. 26). To emphasize the significance of the term conscientization;

it implies that one has courage to question their practice and the responsibility they have in maintaining educational processes that they do not value or believe that work or to stand up for the processes that they believe work.

So then, leadership must be defined. The desire to understand, define, and explain the essence of leadership has interested researchers and scholars for most of the twentieth century. In their efforts to find an “accurate and precise” definition of leadership, thousands of studies have been published in the last several decades alone. Most of these explanations have focused on a single person and his or her personal qualities and skills. Social scientists have tried to identify what abilities, traits, behaviors, sources of power, or aspects of the situation determine how effective a leader will be able to influence others (Brungardt, Gould, Moore, Potts, 1997).

Contrary to popular thinking, the term “leadership” is a recent addition to the English language. In fact the word did not come into usage until the late 19th Century. Although the words “lead” and “leader” have a much longer history, they usually referred only to authority figures. The birth and evolution of leadership revolves around the leader’s ability, behaviors, styles or charisma. Today, scholars discuss the basic nature of leadership in terms of the “interaction” among the people involved in the process: both leaders and followers. Thus, leadership is not the work of a single person, rather it can be explained and defined as a collaborative endeavor among group members. Therefore, the essence of leadership is not the leader, but the relationship (Rost, 1993).

One result of this transformation in the concept of leadership has been the reconstruction of leadership definitions. Joseph Rost of the University of San Diego is one of the most popular writers in recognizing the shift from the

industrial concept of leadership to a paradigm he calls the post-industrial concept of leadership. In his book Leadership for the Twenty-First Century (1992), he articulates a definition of leadership based on this post-industrial perspective. A definition he believes is more consistent with contemporary organizational life. Rost's definition suggests that leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.

This definition is composed of four basic components, each of which is essential and must be present if a particular relationship is to be called leadership. (a) The relationship is based on influence. This influence is multidirectional, meaning that influence can go any which way (not necessarily top-down), and the influence attempts must not be coercive. Therefore, the relationship is not based on authority, but rather persuasion. (b) Leaders and followers are the people in this relationship. If leadership is defined as a relationship, then both leaders and followers are doing leadership. He does not say that all players in this relationship are equal, but does say all active players practice influence. Typically there is more than one follower and more than one leader in this arrangement. (c) Leaders and followers intend real change. Intend means that the leaders and followers promote and purposefully seek changes. Real means that the changes intended by the leaders and followers must be substantial. (d) The changes the leaders and followers intend reflect their mutual purposes. The key is that the desired changes must not only reflect the wishes of the leader but must also include the desires of the followers (Rost, 1993). Rost (1993) goes on to say:

From these essential elements, we can see that leadership is an influence relationship wherein leaders and their collaborators (followers)

influence one another about real changes that reflect their mutual purposes. Leaders compete with other leaders for collaborators. The collaborators develop a relationship with leaders of their own choosing, not necessarily those who have authority over them. Leaders and their collaborators may change places. There may be a number of leadership relationships in one organization, and the same people are not necessarily the leaders in these different relationships.

The intended changes reflect the purpose or vision that leaders and collaborators have for an organization. The purpose is usually not static but is constantly changing as leaders and their collaborators come and go, as the influence process works its effects on both leaders and collaborators, and as circumstances, environment, and wants and needs impact on the leadership relationship and the organization (p. 100).

Rost's research indicates that leadership is not what leaders do. Rather, leadership is what leaders and followers do together for the collective good. In today's society, leaders operate in a shared-powered environment with followers. No longer does a single leader have all the answers and the power to make substantial changes. Instead, many people participate in leadership, some as leaders and others as followers. Only when all work together can successful change be brought about for the mutual purposes of all involved.

Furthermore, Rost (1993) findings suggest the following five tenets for collaboration:

1. Only people who are active in the leadership process are collaborators. Passive people are not in the relationship.

2. Active people can fall anywhere on a continuum of activity from highly active to minimally active, and their influence in the leadership process is, in large part, based on their activity.

3. Collaborators can become leaders and leaders can become collaborators in any leadership relationship.

4. People can be collaborators in one relationship, and they can be leaders in another relationship.

5. Followers don't do followership, they do leadership. Both leaders and collaborators form one relationship which is leadership. If collaborators are in a relationship with leaders, they have to be in the leadership relationship. They can't be in a separate relationship that is followership. That doesn't make any sense at all (p. 19).

Collaboration

The concept of collaborative leadership is contained in the idea of working together. It is a complementary and auspicious association between two or more parties who work together toward common goals. This is accomplished by sharing responsibility, authority, and accountability for achieving results. In the same way, the dynamics of collaboration are designed to create shared visions and strategies that address concerns which go beyond the range and scope of any particular individual or group. While collaboration involves all concerned parties in making decisions, it is not just another blueprint for achieving desired outcomes. Accordingly, by using true collaboration to address educational concerns, teachers can and do develop a different kind of encouraging culture that makes their school community stronger and more effective. Chrislip and Larson (1994) suggest that collaboration

should be built on the premise that once well informed individuals are brought together, they can create real visions with strategies for addressing shared concerns.

When individuals are engaged constructively and effectively with others around issues that affect them or that they care about, they can achieve results and, in the process, they will be empowered. Educators successfully engaged in the collaborative process begin to expect to be involved. Therefore, advocacy can change to engagement, hostility to civility, confrontation to conversation, and separation to an empowered school community (Chrislip & Larson, 1994).

Principles that characterize both ethical and collaborative leadership:

1. It is active and inspires action. Ethical and collaborative leadership is action-oriented. It involves inspiration not coercion or telling others what or how it should be done. Therefore, these individuals catalyze, convene, energize, and facilitate others to create workable solutions compatible to all concerned.

2. Ownership in the leadership process is communal. In contrast to positional leadership and authority, the ethical and collaborative leaders rely on credibility, integrity, and the ability to solve the pressing problems set before them. Who is in charge is de-emphasized; confidence in the process and in each other's ability to contribute to the desired outcome is the central focus.

3. The ethical and collaborative process is inclusive. The process validates the democratic notion that issues can be resolved only when the diversity and communality of all concerned are included in both defining and solving the topic addressed.

4. Ethical and collaborative leaders help sustain the group process, even when it would be easier to quit. The value of individual participation or the creation of cliques is carefully monitored so that no single individual or group

exerts unfair influence over the collaborative process (Personal Communication Dr. R. Moore, 1997).

Therefore, the utilization of these four principles requires staff members to drop their concern for a particular outcome and rely on group consensus. In like fashion, the direction is established through the interaction and agreement among all individual participants. In this collaborative process, the members are grounded in the belief that they have the capacity to create, implement, and solve their own problems.

Given this underlying philosophy, it is worthwhile to address the elements needed to build trust that enhances communication. These criteria can solve pressing problems and serve as a foundation to make effective decisions. In fact, optimal collaboration can be characterized in terms of: (a) being inclusive of those involved and affected by the issues at hand; (b) having an open and credible forum which allows all the ability to participate and contribute authentically to the eventual outcomes; and (c) the receiving of active support by the leadership of the school community (Chrislip, Larson, 1994).

Trust

Trust derives from the German word "trost" which means comfort. It implies an instinctive and unquestionable belief in another person or agency. Thus, in a tandem relationship, trust exists when one fully believes in the integrity or character of another. Hence, when there is a high level of trust, the questioning of others' motives' or hidden agendas are diminished.

Therefore, to sustain collaboration, a climate of trust and openness is essential. Trust is a vital ingredient for leadership to occur. Without it, leaders

and followers will not have confidence in the purpose, intent, and actions of each other. Nonetheless, collaboration does not occur without some conflict, and this friction is contained in the notion of being proactive (Moore, 1996).

Proactive Communication

The concept of being proactive can be defined as acting in advance to deal with an expected difficulty. Therefore, being proactive necessitates preparing or defending against potential adversity or danger. "To clarify, if being proactive can be classified on a continuum, at one end would be hope and on the other prevention" (Moore & Suleiman, 1996, p. 66).

Similarly, multi-directional communication is essential to the notion of being proactive. Therefore, optimal communication takes place in situations that allow the greatest exchange of thoughts, messages, or information. Having this in mind, the intent of proactive communication is (a) to build strong and healthy interpersonal relationships, and (b) foster an atmosphere that addresses potential concerns in genuine and caring ways (Moore, 1997).

Furthermore, Dr. R. Moore. in his classroom lectures, stated that rules and codes of conduct have been constructed to provide guidelines for proper communication within specific agencies or settings. Since these rules are culturally bound, a potential danger can arise whereby an individual's behavior is shaped by following statutes and standards, and not by developing a sincere appreciation for others. Consequently, by their very nature, these mandates tend to be reactive, emerging from past experiences instead of being developed collaboratively by those anticipating possible scenarios before they occur. The purpose of practicing proactive communication is not to meet minimum standards or ideals; it is to develop the inner qualities of active responsibility that

is in the best interest of all concerned. Authority cannot impose this inner quality, it must come from within.

Lack of trust is perhaps the most common-and the most serious-barrier to proactive communication. Without trust, people usually fear revealing their true opinions, ideas, or feelings because the perceived risks of communicating them are too high. These individuals devote their energies to masking their inner perceptions. Yukl (1998) states that

a basic reason for resistance to change is distrust of the people who propose it. Distrust can magnify the effect of other sources of resistance. Even when there is no obvious threat, a change may be resisted if people imagine there are hidden, ominous implications that will only become obvious at a later time. Mutual mistrust may encourage a leader to be secretive about the reasons for change, thereby further increasing suspicion and resistance (p. 439).

However, when trust exists, people no longer feel as vulnerable in the presence of other, and communication flows more freely. Generally, the higher the cognitive defenses, the lower the level of trust.

Thus, collaborative leadership will take place only in a positive climate that fosters mutual trust and a collaborative spirit based on common values and the vision of all parties concerned (Failholm, 1994). With this in mind, the notion that each individual is unique will have to be continually revisited.

Transformational Dialogue

Major changes in schools are a result in the shifting of power and status. New strategies often require new methods not possessed by those who hold administrative positions. Some individuals tend to be reluctant to trade

procedures they mastered over time with new ones that they may not be familiar with (Yukl, 1998).

Dialogue as defined by Wink (1997), is transformational in nature. This dialogue is always two way and interactive. It involves periods of talking as well as periods of reflection. Members learn, unlearn, and relearn. This process promotes them to new levels of knowledge which can transform relationships that bring about genuine change.

According to Meier (1995), there are two major visions for the schools of tomorrow. Unless there is some type of dialogue those in power will not completely commit to any reform.

One vision rests on the assumption that top-down support for bottom-up change--which everyone is rhetorically for--means that the top does the critical intellectual work, defining purposes and content as well as how to measure them, and the bottom does the nuts and bolts, the how-to--a sort of men's work versus women's work division of labor (p. 370).

The second vision rests on a different assumption--that the only top-down reforms that are useful are those that help to create and sustain self-governing learning communities. When schools see themselves as membership communities, not service organizations. . .

teachers can discuss ideas, argue about purposes, and exercise judgment [conscientization, author inserted]. Students can't learn unless the teachers show them the way. . .(p. 371).

Fullan (1995) goes on to state that effective schools, restructuring, and systemic reform all promised some kind reform. However, on close examination, the reforms have not succeeded. Sizer (1995) indicates that the reforms implemented so far have amounted to fine tuning a Model T. Lasting reform requires creating a climate for teachers and administrators to craft their own improvement strategies. In fact, he states that you can order all the changes you want, "but unless everything is radically changed your not going to bring about effective reform" (p. 72).

Donahoe (1993) refers to these kinds of reform attempts as fatal half-measures because they attempt to adapt to an inappropriate traditional structure instead of developing a radically new one. The majority of restructuring efforts have either resulted in divisiveness and confusion, or have been short lived as the energy required to implement them wanes.

Changes in Teachers Roles

According to Dr. R. Moore (Personal Communication, 1997), teachers are integral parts of the school community, they are caught in the midst of these debates and criticized for the school failure. In fact, teachers are confined by the sociopolitical system affecting schools and have a constant sense of powerlessness that negatively impacts their function as keepers of the status quo.

Consequently many teachers become compliant and complacent with the status quo and assume a managerial style within the classroom. By seeing themselves as managers, the teachers' role becomes synonymous with the notion of directing and controlling the affairs and interest of students in conformity with the standards set by their administration.

However, teachers' jobs are more complex than ever before. Implicit in this managerial perspective is the notion of the teacher's guidance of the students' academic progression towards measurable school goals. However, the outcome performance standards of students in many schools are not established by teachers, but by individuals who are not actively participating in the classroom. This process of dictated standards further embeds the premise of the status quo. For this reason, a teacher-manager becomes more concerned with maintaining the established system, and utilizes whatever means are available to get the objectives accomplished. In other words, these teacher-managers have a tendency to become coercive, manipulative in true Machiavellim form--where the ends justifies the means (Dr. R. Moore, Personal Communication, 1997).

Having a managerial style of teaching is not in and of itself negative. These teachers traditionally have clear expectations and set standards that need to be reached by their students. They are compliant with the dictates from those above them in authority and work hard to appease their superiors. Likewise, specific activities, outcomes, and timeliness are implemented in the the classroom to accomplish district or administrative objectives. Still, these teachers are essentially viewed as followers, whose purpose is to adhere to the prescribed blueprint and obtain specific and measurable outcomes or results. (Hord, Rutherford, Austin, Hall, 1989). Charters (1922) sums up the public school dilemma over seventy years ago as nothing more than a chronicle of fads.

For this reason, "irregular...change, episodic projects, fragmentation of effort and grinding overload is the lot of most schools" (Fullan, 1994, p. 42). This research goes on to question whether schools are teachable or trainable organizations in the first place.

“Because of this, the teacher as manager--the supposition of maintaining the status quo--can only result in continuing academic failure” (Moore, 1996 p.8). Consequently, “school reform efforts must focus on building the capacity of schools and teachers to undertake tasks they have never been called upon before to accomplish” (Darling-Hammond, 1993, pp. 754-755).

Although the managerial roles of teachers must be maintained to some extent, they ought to be complemented with more pragmatic roles and functions. Such roles move them from being complacent teachers to entrusted advocates committed to the educational reform efforts of which they are a part.

Transformation of Paradigms

Since schools are affected by changes in society, they should at the same time reflect these changes. According to Goodlad (1990, 1996), schools must be responsive to the dynamic social changes; i.e., “If schools are to become the responsive, renewing institutions that they must, the teachers in them must be purposely engaged in the renewal process” (Goodlad, 1990, p. 25). In other words, teachers must take an active role in this process so that schools do not become business-type institutions that are swayed by the status quo. This is in fact a significant point of departure from the traditional wisdom in defining the role of schools and teachers. According to Senge (1995);

Our traditional view of leaders as special people who set the direction, make key decisions, and energize the troops, are deeply rooted in an individualistic and nonsystematic world view. . . . So long as such myths prevail, they reinforce a focus on short-term events and charismatic heroes rather than on systematic forces and collective learning. . . . The traditional view of leadership is based on assumptions of peoples’ powerlessness and their lack of personal vision (p. 340).

This trend is echoed by several voices among educational reformists. In a similar call for action, Gupton (1995), affirms the need for a shift in paradigms. She suggests that this transition in task should include the teacher moving out of the passive managerial paradigm into an active leadership role. Gupton (1995, p. 77) maintains that the teachers' role should shift:

from...	to...
technician	professional
prescribed	constructed
defensive	responsible
direction-taker	decision-maker
solo player	collaborator
lesson planner	school improvement planner
reactive	reflective
implementor	initiator
follower	empowered
research consumer	action researcher

Closely related to this focus is the ideal held by Rost who describes that other social and economic institutions have suffered the manager/leader paradox. Rost (1993) writes that many in administration view leadership and management as synonymous terms. However, there is nothing farther from the truth. Troen and Boles (1994) findings indicate that schools are not institutions that value or encourage teacher "leadership within its ranks. The hierarchical nature of public schools is based on the 19th century industrial model, with the consequent adversarial relationship of administration as management and teachers as labor" (p. 40).

Consequently, in the context of schools a dynamic balance between management and leadership must be incorporated and maintained. Thus, teacher leaders not teacher managers or administrative managers have the most optimal potential for changing schools for the common good.

Teacher Leaders

The false assumption that teaching is for teachers and leading is for administrators has operated to the disservice of the public school for a long time. Gardner (1993) indicates that teaching and leading are distinguishable occupations. He believes that every great leader is clearly teaching--and every great teacher is leading. "For this reason, teachers as leaders cannot afford to wait for bureaucracies and the educational system to transform itself. "They [teacher-leaders] need to push for the kind of professional culture they want, sometimes in the face of unresponsive principals, communities and school districts..." (Fullan, 1994, p. 81).

This paradigm shift, however, has the potential to create role ambiguity and conflict for the teacher. Even so, controversy and conflict can lead to creative solutions to the issues raised. In addition, there can be much confusion about the teachers' abilities to bring about the change that they desire and at the same time transform their roles from being passive to being active (McCarthy, 1992).

Teacher Empowerment

Teachers need to be viewed as capable decision makers, with the obligation and the responsibility to make curricular decisions (Tompkins, and Hoskisson, 1991). In like fashion, all theory and practice is dogmatic unless its underlying principles are carefully analyzed by its users (Dewey, 1938). Therefore, teachers ought be the authors and originators of proposed changes.

Thus, a teacher must accept a theory or an ideal as meaningful and relevant to their specific setting, or it will have little impact on their classroom practice (Donmoyer, 1989). In fact Stenhouse (1984) concluded that:

teachers are not professionally the dependents of ...superintendents, innovators, or supervisors. This does not imply that they do not welcome access to ideas created by other people or at other places or in other times. Nor do they reject advice, consultancy, or support. But they know that ideas and people are not much of real use until they are digested to the point where they are subject to the teachers own judgment. In short, it is the task of all educationalists outside the classroom to serve the teachers; for only teachers are in position to create good teaching (p. 69).

Defining Teacher Empowerment

Teachers are called upon to teach students how to be empowered and yet, they are not allowed the same privilege. In like manner, education is about empowering youth, as opposed to schooling, which is about conformity, obedience, hierarchies and ones place in them (Ayers, 1992). If real authority is to be conferred that enable decisions to be rendered, then the efforts have to be sanctioned in a consequential fashion.

Furthermore, in this affirming relationship, the teachers are given real power and authority to cultivate a variety of venues for change. They are not given ultimatums to bring about the desired objectives. That is, these teachers are viewed as experts who have been given the authority to implement curricular revisions. Similarly, it is teachers who experience the classroom first hand, so then, they are also the ones with the background to recommend plausible and alternative solutions.

Thus, as teachers are engaged constructively and effectively with other teachers around concerns that pertain to them, their school, and their classrooms, they can achieve powerful results. It is the process of working towards and identifying the outcomes that teachers experience genuine empowerment. As this trend of empowerment continues, teachers will, as a matter of course, expect and want to be involved in all areas of school improvement. In like manner, as students notice and observe this empowering process and internalize its benefits, it can enhance their growth, and promote their future potential for academic success.

Empowerment also entails receiving input from teachers in deciding how mandates will be implemented. That is, how will the execution of regulations effect the school as well as individual classrooms? Does this best meet both the needs of all students as well as bureaucratic standards? This is complicated in that several different ideologies as well as political agendas have been amalgamated in the creation of these new mandates. Nonetheless, the central question that must be kept in absolute focus is, what is the intent of the reforms and what will their impact be on educating the child?

Many districts, whether overtly or covertly, are still actively embracing the idea that schools and those in them are all part of a stable, predictable, and developmental actuality. In other words, these districts believe that all students progress in predictable linear and successive steps. As a result of this mind set, teachers need only to be trained in the use of specific strategies and techniques which have been generalized from other settings. While these efforts may appear to change practice within a school, the bureaucracy, controlled by those in power, remains in place (Miller, 1996). Such sophistry

underscores the importance of understanding teachers and their perspectives in an environment that has an affinity for constant and rapid change.

Therefore, if teachers are to fully participate in the revitalization of teaching and curriculum, the perception of how they are viewed by those in power will have to be changed. It is in the reinvention of the teaching profession that school practice can also be recreated (Ayers, 1992). In this ever changing milieu, the clarification of goals as well as the means to monitor progress is a positive step in defining and implementing permanent reform.

Similarly, the more explicit teachers are about their goals and objectives, the more effectively they can communicate these expectations to their students. The more that teachers have been a part of clarifying standards and their purpose or end results, the easier it is to specify to students how they are going to be assessed and to monitor progress. As a result of these implementations, students will be able to continually adjust their levels of proficiency so that their academic achievement will be actualized at its most optimal level.

Likewise, teachers need to have an integral part in making curricular decision. Dewey (1938) once stated that he was not in favor of any formula or method just because a certain name or "ism" was attached to it. "What we need is education pure and simple, that education may be reality and not a name or a slogan (p. 90).

Counter to this philosophy, numerous school districts regard school improvement as the buying of various programs and trying to make them fit into existing school systems (Ayers, 1992). Likewise, research based on innovations most often lack the flexibility to deal with different kinds of school organization. They are designed to be rigidly implemented which rarely if ever takes into account the unique settings that exist in a particular school

environment. Because of this reasoning, empowered teachers must play an active role in school improvement, otherwise, the efforts are doomed to fail.

Bartolome (1994) indicates that there is no right or fool-proof teaching strategy(s) or technique(s). Instead, humanizing pedagogy that respects and uses the reality, history, and perspectives of students needs to be a part of the daily classroom practice. Thus, these teachers are not dependent on state curriculum frameworks, textbooks or paralyzed by theory or the lack of it (Ladison-Billings, 1995).

To clarify, empowered teachers are not anti-frameworks or theory. Theory is important as well as living in a daily reality. But, theories shift as ones understanding or circumstances change. Solutions are merged creating an optimal environment for learning.

Furthermore, these are not new concepts, in fact, they are foundational truths espoused by Piaget (1969). Both assimilation and accommodation are taught from kindergarten to high school. It is through assimilation that learners add new information to their existing reality. In like manner, through accommodation learners change their views based on the new information given. Consequently, it is this same process that teachers must go through to implement a curricular plan to facilitate learning.

In envisioning empowered teachers in a collaborative school culture, new ways of thinking, knowledge, and practice, can be created. Learning to make judgments, adjustments, and revising, characterize this environment. Good teaching is always in pursuit of improvement.

Unlike the common traditional belief about passive teacher roles, the teacher as a leader tends to be active and research-oriented in the classroom. This provides teachers with the vehicle to put them in charge of their craft and its

improvement. As a leader taking charge in the classroom, the teacher has the ability to participate in and be a part of transforming the school culture which, in turn can bring about real and lasting educational reform.

Fullan's (1993) research indicates that teachers should be viewed as experts in the change process. This is important because (a) change is both complex and difficult, and (b) educational systems tend to resist change. However, teachers are de facto in the midst of change all the time. A good deal of knowledge concerning the change process is now available. Much of it is counter to traditionally held models for change. Teachers must know how to initiate change despite the system, how to understand and manage the change process, how to create collaborative cultures and manage conflict, how shared visions are created over time, how to utilize networks of ideas and resources, and how to practice positive politics.

In summary, the Carnegie Foundation in 1986 declared, "The key [to successful reform of schools] lies in creating a new profession... of well educated teachers [leaders] prepared to assume new powers and responsibilities to redesign schools of the future: (p. 2). Reanalysis of schools effectiveness data demonstrates that shared governance characterized many of the schools. The conclusion then, is that school reform requires strong leadership (Stedman, 1987).

Teacher leaders not teacher managers, can provide the impetus for building a culture for reform by guiding such efforts in the right direction. This alternative construct views teachers as pivotal leaders in the schools as agents of positive educational reform. Unless teachers perform leadership rather than managerial roles, desired and promising educational consequences will not follow.

The majority of the literature reviewed demonstrates the difference between administrators who are leaders or managers and between teachers who are leaders or managers. Chapter Three will utilize an interview research format to discover how many administrators, principals, and teachers view themselves as leaders or managers and how this influences their openness to transformational processes that can enhance reform.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss qualitative survey research, the research design, the population, the use of the survey, and the analytical processes employed to evaluate the data.

Survey Research

Survey research is a widely used research tool in educational investigations. Surveys are commonly used to measure attitudes, opinions, and achievements. "Survey research is broad in scope including status quo studies to those in which the relationships of sociological and psychological variables are determined and interpreted" (Wiersma, 1995, p. 170).

Professionals who work in the field of education are interested in the results of survey research. For example, local school systems do surveys that are called community or school surveys. These focus on various factors of school operation and the community's perception at any given time. In addition, others in the field of education may be surveyed concerning educational issues (Wiersma, 1995).

Survey Design

Survey designs basically are of two types, longitudinal and cross-sectional. The design chosen by the author was a cross-sectional design.

This involves the collection of data at one point in time from a random sample representing some given population at that time. A cross-sectional design cannot be used for measuring change in an individual, because an individual is measured only once. However, differences between defined groups in the cross-sectional study may represent

changes that take place in a larger defined population
(Wiersma, 1995, p. 174).

Interview Surveys

According to Wiersma (1995) the interview is an effective method of conducting a survey, and the use of an interview has the following advantages:

1. The survey process is standardized.
2. It is usually more successful than other survey methods.
3. It is easier to avoid the omission of items.
4. It is a good tool to use with individuals from whom data cannot otherwise be obtained.

Interview Questions

The interview format investigated the manager/leadership communication process through the following questions.

1. Do you consider yourself a manager or a leader?
2. What makes you a manager/leader?
3. Is what you do that makes you a manager/leader or is it how you do it?
4. From your experience, what makes a good manager/leader?

Standardization of Procedures

The data-recording procedures used in the interview surveys were structured in such a way that it did not interfere with the respondents' answers. Each interview was conducted in the same manner with four questions being asked. The process took between four and ten minutes depending on the length of the replies. The interview process was conducted in such a manner so that no verbal or non-verbal response was suggested.

Analyzing Qualitative Data

Qualitative data are taken from non-numeric sources such as field notes, interview notes, transcripts, researcher journals, personal reflections, and archival records. Qualitative data requires the same rigorous analyses that is used with quantitative research methods. Generally speaking, qualitative research deals with written materials and quantitative research deals with numbers. The conclusions derived from both kinds of research, when investigated systematically, produce reliable conclusions (Drew, Hardman, Hart, 1996).

In qualitative research methods, the analyses can be either inductive or deductive. This research design used the deductive model. With this method the researcher develops a focused interview questionnaire designed to generate responses about a specific topic. "When using a deductive analyses, the researcher must take care not to 'lead the research', resulting in self-fulfilling prophecy" (Drew, Hardman, Hart, 1996, p. 425).

Population

The total number of participants interviewed was twenty. These twenty were divided into two groups. The first group included five district superintendents and five principals. The second group involved ten teachers. Both of these groups were randomly selected from two districts in the Inland Empire area of Riverside County.

Analytical Process

The current study employed an interview survey. It utilized four questions. The four questions were used to determine the different views and

perceptions the interviewees had concerning their philosophies on management and leadership.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study was conducted to identify factors that contribute to the lack of congruency between proposed educational reform and its application in the classroom. This research utilized an interview process in which four questions were asked. The responses were then analyzed to ascertain whether the respondents saw themselves as leaders or managers. These results were evaluated to see if indicators could be identified that possibly contributed negatively to the implementation of educational reform.

Restatement of Purpose

The focus of this investigation was to survey district and site administrators, along with teachers, to evaluate their leadership/management views. It was hypothesized that teachers will only become empowered when administrators embrace leadership notions that allow teachers to collaborate in how to best implement effective schooling practices in their classrooms.

Restatement of Procedures

The data-recording procedures were conducted in a consistent fashion. Each interview was conducted using four questions. The total number of participants interviewed were twenty divided into two groups. The first group included five district superintendents and five principals. The second group involved ten teachers.

Both of these groups were selected from two districts in the Inland Empire area of Riverside County. The survey was a cross-sectional design in that it involved the collection of data from a random sampling representing a specific population of teachers and administrators.

Survey Reviews

To determine the samplings' philosophy of management or leadership, the following four questions were asked.

Question One

Do you consider yourself a manager/leader?

Table 4.1

Administrative responses on consideration of leader or management philosophy.

MANAGERS	LEADERS	BOTH
0	6	4

The survey results indicate that none of the administrators viewed themselves as managers. Sixty percent of those administrators interviewed viewed themselves as leaders. Forty percent viewed themselves as both a manager and a leader.

Table 4.2

Teacher responses on consideration of leader or management philosophy.

MANAGERS	LEADERS	BOTH
2	4	4

The survey results indicate that twenty percent of the teachers viewed themselves as managers. Forty percent of those teachers interviewed viewed themselves as leaders. Forty percent viewed themselves as both a manager and a leader.

Question Two

What makes you a manager/leader?

Table 4.3

Administrator responses on consideration of what makes one a leader or manager.

MANAGERS	LEADERS	BOTH
5	5	0

The survey results demonstrate that fifty percent of the administrators indicated managerial type responses. Fifty percent of those administrators indicated leadership type responses. Zero percent identified themselves as both a manager and a leader.

Table 4.4

Teacher responses on consideration of what makes one a leader or manager.

MANAGERS	LEADERS	BOTH
5	4	1

The survey results demonstrate that fifty percent of the teachers gave managerial type responses. Forty percent of those teachers indicated leadership type responses. Ten percent identified themselves as both a manager and a leader.

Question Three

Is what you do that makes you a manager or a leader or is it how you do it?

Table 4.5

Administrator responses to the what or the how that makes one a manager or a leader.

MANAGERS		LEADERS		BOTH	
What	How	What	How	What	How
1	1	1	3	0	4

The survey results demonstrate that twenty percent of the administrators indicated managerial responses and were equally divided between the what and the how styles. Forty percent of those administrators indicated leadership responses with ten percent claiming what one does as important, and thirty percent claiming the how as being more important. Forty percent identified themselves as both a manager and a leader with all forty percent indicating the how as more important than the what.

Table 4.6

Teacher responses to the what or the how that makes one a manager or a leader.

MANAGERS		LEADERS		BOTH	
What	How	What	How	What	How
0	6	1	1	1	1

The survey results demonstrate that sixty percent of the teachers indicated managerial responses with sixty percent claiming the how as important. Twenty percent of those teachers indicated leadership responses with ten percent claiming what one does as important and ten percent claiming the how as more important. Twenty percent identified themselves as both a manager and a leader with ten percent indicating the how as important and ten percent claiming the what as important.

Question Four

From your experience what makes a good manager or a leader?

Table 4.7

Administrative responses on what makes one a good leader or manager.

MANAGERIAL PHILOSOPHY	LEADERSHIP PHILOSOPHY	ECLECTIC PHILOSOPHY
6	4	0

The survey results demonstrate that sixty percent of the administrators identified a managerial philosophy in their responses. Forty percent of those administrators interviewed identified a leadership philosophy. Zero percent identified an eclectic philosophy.

Table 4.8

Teacher responses on what makes one a good leader or manager.

MANAGERIAL PHILOSOPHY	LEADERSHIP PHILOSOPHY	ECLECTIC PHILOSOPHY
5	2	3

The survey results demonstrate that fifty percent of the teachers identified a managerial philosophy in their responses. Twenty percent of those teachers interviewed identified a leadership philosophy. Thirty percent identified an eclectic philosophy.

Discussion

In comparing the responses on these four questions the term leadership and management must again be defined. Kotter (1990) and Dubrin (1995) findings indicate that the traditional conceptualization of management includes the areas of planning, organizing, directing, budgeting, and controlling. Management is based on an explicit set of tools, styles, and techniques used in traditional work environments and situations.

Leadership in contrast to management, deals with having a vision. According to Rost (1993) leadership is based on an influence relationship, persuasion not coercion, leaders and followers intending real change, and finally that this change is agreed upon by those involved in the process.

The above definitions were used to analyze the twenty responses and to put them in the appropriate categories. Furthermore, the interpretation process is as objective as possible based on Kotter, Dubrin, and Rost's management and leadership definitions. With this premise in mind, the task of any data collection is predominantly one of rejecting inadequate research questions, inquiries, or hypotheses (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). In a fundamental sense, research can never "confirm or prove" a hypothesis, rather the hypothesis escapes being disconfirmed. . . An adequate hypothesis is one that has repeatedly survived the disconfirming process (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, pp. 35-37).

The intent of this survey was to identify possible indicators that prevent the implementation of educational reform. The responses seem to suggest that many administrators and teachers would label themselves as leaders and yet, have all manager responses or vice versa. The findings indicate that there is

very little congruency between the respondents views of leadership or management and their other verbal responses with the following questions.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Implication and Recommendations

Summary

The purpose of this research was to identify factors that contribute to the lack of congruency between proposed educational reform and its application in the classroom. The findings appear to indicate that the lack of implementation and goal attainment is directly related to various miscommunication factors.

According to Savignon (1983) the communicative process must produce interconnectedness among its members. In other words, good communication always requires a sense of community. This community is one that provides an environment of trust and mutual confidence. Administrators and teachers need to be able to dialogue without fear or threat of failure. Faculties that embrace a collaborative community communicate freely, and all involved understand the sites' direction or purpose. It is in the dynamics of community and communication that a faculty's cohesiveness is nurtured.

Yet, the distance between the communicated goals and outcomes, and how to measure successful attainment of those outcomes, being espoused by the administrators and teachers, within this study were great. This seemed to be occurring because of the various interpretations between the notions of leadership and management, and the subsequent roles contained in each of these ideals. This discrepancy added role frustration as well as contributing to overall staff confusion. The communication breakdown and the lack of a congruent vision or direction was another contributing factor in educational reform not taking place at the selected sites used in this research.

A final factor explored was the idea that teachers were not experiencing empowerment because of traditional managerial practices embraced by district and site based administrators. It was hypothesized that teachers would become genuinely empowered only under administrators that embrace leadership philosophies that allowed the implementation of effective schooling practices.

Effective Practices

Efforts to implement change are most likely to be successful if they come from a leadership point of view (Yukl, 1998). According to Harris & Elliot (1997) administrators and teachers work more effectively in collaborative relationships. They further suggest that teachers. . . [should] be freed from rules, regulations, and constraints by . . . administrations thus enabling them to collaboratively focus upon accomplishing the best possible education for all students (p. 62).

In addition, Harris & Elliot's (1997) research states that central services must take on the responsibility of assisting, enhancing, and enabling school site staff teams to perform at their peak. If the board, the superintendent, the staff service administrators, the site administrators and decision-makers, the classroom teachers, and the parents recognize that all need to be in the same boat, rowing in the same direction, for the same purposes [perhaps this will lead to successful school practice] (p. 63).

Findings

To determine if a possible communication mismatch existed, the data from the four survey questions were collected and analyzed.

The first question was, do you consider yourself a leader or a manager? Sixty percent of the administrators chose leaders as their answer with forty

percent claiming a mixture. For the teachers, forty percent chose leaders and forty percent also chose a mixture with twenty percent choosing management. If each individual filters the information given to them through their own leadership or management grid, there is evidence of communication breakdown taking place. It needs to be noted that many after the interview process asked for a definition between the concepts of leadership and management.

Question two, What makes you a leader or manager? Fifty percent of the administrators gave managerial responses with the other fifty percent giving leadership responses. The answer to this question seems to indicate that those who chose both manager and leader for question one had a tendency to favor a managerial style of administrating. Tyes' (1992) research findings found that educational decision making is more top down than it has ever been in the past and a trend seems indicated here. The teacher responses were fifty percent for manager, forty percent for leader and ten percent for both. Again the responses seem to indicate that there was a tendency for favoring managerial answers in the response to question two in the opposite direction from the way question one was answered.

Wink's (1997) interpretation of being dialectic involves seeing and discussing contradictions. For question two, both the administrator and teacher responses indicated a mismatch from the responses given in question one.

Question three, Is it what you do that makes you a leader or manager or is it how you do it? Eighty percent of the administrators, whether they viewed themselves as leaders, managers, or both, believed that the "how" was more important than the "what". For the teachers it was also eighty percent. According to Rost (1993) leadership is never about what leaders do but, leadership is about what leaders and followers [the how] do together for the

collective good. Overwhelmingly, most of the responders understood the concept of the how from a personal perspective, but never mentioned the importance of how to work collaboratively or from a collective or mutual perspective.

What needs to be addressed with this question is, if this is so accepted of a truth why isn't it being implemented? The notion of conscientization allows one the ability to question processes that do not work and to promote those that do. If the ability to work together and to form good relationships are there should not effective school practices naturally follow?

Yukl's (1998) findings state that changes in organizations can result in the shifting of power and status. This shifting can make some administrators insecure because they may not possess the new expertise demanded by the change. It would be easier to talk the verbiage of reform than to authentically try to implement it. Black and English (1986) takes this notion a step further and claim that administrators are only self serving and will do everything to maintain the status quo.

Question four asked, from your experience what makes a good manager or a leader? Sixty percent of the administrators answered this question from a managerial perspective. In like manner, eighty percent of the teachers also responded from a managerial or eclectic philosophy. This correlates with a consistent message of business as usual. Administrators can claim to embrace leadership notions but if the message from them continues to communicate managerial concepts, then this will in turn be internalized and embraced by those who hear it. The responses from this question seem to indicate this trend.

Summary of Analysis

Responses to the questions showed a trend toward traditional practice that has characterized schooling for many years. The responses and jargon by many during the interview process seemed to be at times memorized rhetoric. Very few of the respondents took much time to think about what they were saying. The author noted that many of the replies were automatic, said so often, that whether true or false, they just came out in a very polished fashion.

The majority of the twenty persons interviewed asked at the end of the questioning to have the leadership and management philosophies explained to them. None of the respondents who talked about leadership stated their personal beliefs in collaborative or participatory leadership styles. In fact, there was no indication that this leadership style was endorsed by any of the ten administrators.

The responses from the administrators lacked clear vision or direction. Because none of those interviewed truly fit Rost's definition of leadership, most are managerial in nature. This message, whether deliberate or not, was communicated to the teachers themselves. Most teachers in this study acknowledged that most decisions came from their administrators and they had little if any input into the dynamics of their school site.

Indicators Identified

The purpose of this research was to identify possible factors that hampered effective school practice. The following indicators were determined as a result of this research.

- Top down management styles was evident by the majority of the administrators' answers;

- non-participatory, non-collaborative work environments at most work sites was the norm;
- view of administrators--that teachers should be given directions;
- view of teachers--not to take initiative, allow policies to come from administration.

In light of the above indicators, Meier (1995) further suggests that the only top down reforms that could possibly be of use to the teacher would be those that allowed some autonomy to self govern their implementation strategies. If teachers cannot experience any control over their vocation, how can they realistically be expected to become empowered leaders?

Similarly, Fullan (1995) believes that for school practice to become effective, teachers need to be viewed as experts in all phases of implementation. Glickman et. al. (1998) research emphasizes that goal congruency, through the collaborative process, was the greatest predictor of school success. Also, Stedmans' (1987) findings demonstrate that the key to successful reform lies in creating a new profession of well educated teachers prepared to assume the power and responsibility to redesign their schools for the future.

Implications

In envisioning teachers as leaders, a change in the traditional concept of the roles and tasks of teachers needs to be revisited and revised. This shift in thinking must include the teacher moving out of the passive managerial paradigm into an active leadership role. Included in this active leadership role is the notion of the teacher as an active collaborator in all decision making processes at the school. With this understanding of participatory leadership in mind, Sirotnik (1990, p. 312) proposes some fundamentally important questions:

1. To what extent does the organizational culture [the school] encourage and support teachers as inquiries into what they do and how they might do it better?
2. To what extent do teachers consume, critique, and produce knowledge [commitment]?
3. To what extent do they engage competently in discourse and action [collaboration] to improve the conditions, activities and outcomes, of schooling?
4. To what extent do teachers care about themselves and each other [mutual purpose] in the same way they care about students?
5. To what extent are teachers empowered to participate authentically in pedagogical matters of fundamental importance--- what schools are for and how teaching and learning can be aligned with this vision?

More specifically, the central question that must be kept in clear focus by the teacher, is what is the intent of mandates or effective school practices, and how will these affect each individual classroom?

So then, each teacher to be effective must ask themselves:

1. What is the purpose of the new curriculum, assessments, or standards?
2. Is this what implementation means or does not mean?
3. What is my purpose? What do I intend/need to change? Is this what I need to be working on?
4. What do I personally need to do to reach these goals/objectives? What do I need to give students to prepare them for the next year? What foundations do I need to be establishing?

5. What strategies should be best implemented to accomplish these objectives?
6. How are these strategies implemented so that students are valued as diverse individuals?
7. How can techniques be modified to optimize the learner's academic, social, and individual development?

In addition to asking questions about clarity of goals, some form of assessment must be evaluated and monitored by each teacher. These include:

1. Are my strategies working? How should they be modified? How many students need a different approach?
2. Am I using time efficiently? What should be done less/more?
3. Do I need additional training or retraining in a specific area or discipline? Is the training available?
4. Is growth adequately being demonstrated? What is the students' growth rate now as compared to previous years?
5. How will the measurement of growth be validated? Does the assessment measure what it claims it does?
6. Is the classroom affect conducive to high student achievement? What should be altered?

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research, the writer offers the following recommendations:

1. It is recommended that school personnel and administration communicate clear goals and objectives through a collaborative and participatory process.

2. It is recommended that in depth leadership trainings be offered at the local site that involves both site administrators and faculty.
3. It is recommended that teachers assume an aggressive participatory leadership role both at their site and district level to promote effective change.
4. It is recommended that each school conducts a thorough assessment of what teachers and administrators think are their mutual purposes, and use this assessment to work positively to bring about effective school practice.

In conclusion, this research indicated that there is a communication breakdown between goals of restructuring or effective school policies and the classroom teacher. The recommendations made can go a long way in providing guidance to build a collaborative participatory leadership community that will lead to effective schooling practices that benefit all.

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