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An Analysis of Selected Aspects of Leadership Skills among Selected Principals of Catholic Secondary Schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago

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AN ANALYSIS OF SELECTED ASPECTS OF LEADERSHIP SKILLS
AMONG SELECTED PRINCIPALS OF CATHOLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN THE ARCHDIOCESE OF CHICAGO

by

John Michael Shields

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of
The Graduate School of Loyola University of Chicago
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

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1987

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VITA

The author, John Michael Shields, is the son of George Thomas and Clara Grace (Burns) Shields. He was born on September 15, 1949 in Evergreen Park, Illinois.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Throughout the history of American education, principals and higher level administrators have sought to advance the assertion that educational administration is a worthy and respected profession. Since the times of the common school movement, principals have sought to set themselves apart as professional leaders directing the educational process toward the fulfillment of the academic and social goals that were valued highly by the larger society. In that history, perspectives on the principalship have changed from that of "principal teacher" to "scientific manager" to "human relations expert." At present, the perspective is that of the "professional leader grounded in the social sciences."¹ Despite the historical evolution of perspectives, there has always been the desire to enhance the professional nature of the occupation. While there have been differences in the past as to what constituted professionalism, differences colored by historical contexts,

1. H. W. Button. "Doctrines of Administration: A Brief History." Educational Administration Quarterly. 2 (Autumn 1966) 216-24

contemporary educational administrators agree that the professional administrator is one who is capable of bridging the gap between a validated theoretical base and on the job performance. In other words, the professional is one who applies a body of knowledge to actual performance on the job. Thus, educational administration or leadership should make use of a theory, a frame of reference validated by research, as a starting point to guide staff toward the accomplishment of acceptable goals. Otherwise, as Harry S. Broudy has pointed out, administrators and teachers alike become mere para-professionals who aim for only "highly reliable routines in standardized situations."²

This same underlying line of thought was implied by Argyris and Schon when they spoke of the possible conflict between an administrator's "espousal theory," the theory that the administrator believes he or she should follow, and "theory in practice," the theory that the administrator actually puts into operation.³ Very often, there is little congruence between the two precisely because administrators fail to bridge the gap between theory and practice. It is for this reason that the National Association

2. Harry S. Broudy. "Improving the Standards of Teacher Education." Journal of Educational Thought. 19 (April 1985) 34-39

3. Chris Argyris and David Schon. Theory in Practice: Increasing Professional Effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974, 7

of Secondary School Principals, the NASSP, called for a restructuring of the preparation of principals in 1985, a restructuring that would hopefully blend the academic and performance-based components of administrative preparation so as to provide for continuity between validated theory and on the job practice.⁴ Thus, in a sense, the problem is and has been one of greater professionalism in terms of practicing administrative leadership from a framework of validated theoretical knowledge. The problem, then, is one of application or of bridging the gap between theory and practice. The accompanying general questions then become:

1. Do principals employ a validated theoretical base on the job?
2. If they do, what contextual factors then come into play?

Without doubt, the problem is a complex one. This is the case because theorists have often failed to specify and clarify the meaning of what they say with the result that practitioners have been at a loss to apply what they have learned. Theory can sometimes be rather esoteric or too general to apply readily. For instance, quite recently, Murphy, Hallinger, Weil, and Mitman developed a theoretical or conceptual framework of educational leadership or admin-

4. NASSP University Consortium. Performance-Based Preparation of Principals. Reston, Virginia: NASSP, 1985,

istration.⁵ Murphy's framework defined administration or educational leadership in terms of general "practices" such as framing goals, setting standards, communicating goals and standards, protecting instructional time, promoting curriculum development and mastering such organizational "processes" as motivating staff, managing conflict and change, communicating, problem-solving, and interacting with the larger environment. Yet, Murphy and his associates did not delineate the specific skills needed to carry out the practices and master the processes. Few would contest the validity of Murphy's theoretical framework. Yet, many would ask what specific performance skills would be required to promote curriculum development or manage conflict.

The NASSP has sought to bridge the gap between theory and practice by delineating both administrative tasks and required performance skills to accomplish those tasks. The NASSP made this bridge in the development of a theoretical base for its NASSP Assessment Center Program. Seeking to create a validated screening mechanism for potential candidates for the principalship, the NASSP first had to develop a conceptual framework of the tasks and skills necessary for educational leadership, a framework that has been subsequently incorporated into the highly structured simulation

5. J. Murphy, P. Hallinger, M. Weil, and A. Mitman. "Instructional Leadership: A Conceptual Framework." Planning and Changing. 14 (Fall 1983) 137-49

workshop that characterizes the Assessment Center Program. In the Assessment Center, potential educational leaders have been able to bridge the gap between theory and practice by applying theoretically validated skills to concrete situations and administrative tasks. The later addition of the "Springfield" mechanism to the Assessment Center Program has also allowed practicing administrators to avail themselves of the same opportunity to develop specific leadership skills and to identify possible skill deficiencies in a simulated school district called "Springfield."

The Assessment Center concept has grown rapidly over the past ten years so that in 1985 there were over forty centers in operation throughout the United States, Canada, and Germany. While the primary goal of the Assessment Center has been to provide a rating mechanism for screening potential candidates for leadership positions and for sharpening leadership skills, it has also provided a validated theoretical framework of educational leadership. This framework models not only what an educational leader must do in terms of tasks, but also what performance skills the educational leader must acquire in order to complete those tasks. Thus, the NASSP model is specific and performance oriented. It is this model or theoretical base that serves as the foundation of this study. Because it is integral to the study, the entire concept needs be explored more closely.

In 1975, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Division of Industrial/Organizational Psychology of the American Psychological Association established an "Assessment Center" to provide school districts with what they hoped to be an effective and objective method to determine whom the school districts should select to become administrators. Since that time, many educators have made use of assessment centers in districts, in state financed centers, and in universities. In an effort to test the validity of the underlying concepts and processes employed at the centers, the NASSP in cooperation with a research team from Michigan State University, led by Neal Schmitt, conducted a three year validity study of the Assessment Center. The final validity report was published in 1982 by the NASSP. In the study, the team focused on three phases of analysis over this three year period.

In the first phase, the team sought to validate basic dimensions or tasks and critical skills of the principalship (content validity) by analyzing data from some thirteen urban, suburban, and rural school districts in five geographical regions. These data included job descriptions and job analysis interview summaries from a number of groups such as school administrators, district office staff, teachers, support staff, parents, and students. From the data, some 164 items of a task inventory were organized into nine basic dimensions or tasks of the principalship. They are

listed below:

1. Curriculum and instructional leadership.
2. Coordination of student activities.
3. Direction of support services.
4. Staff selection, development, and evaluation.
5. Development and maintenance of community relations.
6. Coordination with the district and other schools.
7. Fiscal management.
8. Maintenance of the school plant.
9. Structures communications which provides for co-operation among various groups in the school.

Also from the job analysis, the team was able to distill some twelve critical performance skills necessary for the successful accomplishment of those nine tasks. These twelve skills are listed below:

1. Problem analysis.
2. Judgement.
- 3. Organizational ability.
- 4. Decisiveness.
- 5. Leadership.
6. Sensitivity.
- 7. Stress tolerance.
8. Oral communication.
9. Written communication.
10. Range of interest.
11. Personal motivation.

12. Educational values.

The distillation of the skills and tasks from the large source of data was based upon the ratings of the job incumbents and other sample members as to their importance, critical nature, and frequency of employment.

Furthermore, a panel of some eighteen experts in the field of educational administration and leadership also lent corroborative support to the content validity of the Assessment Center skills. A "content validity ratio" was calculated from expert ratings of the skills. The following results are a partial summary of the validity report. They represent the results which pertain to the present study. Also, the content validity ratios for the skills under study follow in Table I.

Problem analysis was judged to be essential and necessary for all tasks. Problem analysis appears to be particularly important for tasks involving curriculum and instructional leadership as well as development and maintenance of community relations.

Judgement was found to be necessary for all task dimensions. Its relation to the task of coordination with the district and other schools is weakest. This may be due to the fact that little control in this area is left to the administrator because of various rules and policies.

Leadership and organizational ability were found to be necessary or essential for all task dimensions.

Decisiveness was found to be necessary to all dimensions with the exception of coordination with district and other schools. The administrator may not have the discretion to make decisions regarding coordination with

districts and other schools.⁶

It should be noted that the four skills of problem analysis, judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability were chosen along with leadership in general as the focus of the present study precisely because they were found to be most integral to most if not all of the validated tasks of the principalship. Leadership, the global topic under study, is included with organizational ability in the report. The other skills were not found to be as critical to all tasks as these.

In the second phase of the validity study, the team sought to determine the criterion-related validity of the Assessment Center. That is, they attempted to see if a positive relationship did exist between the Assessment Center ratings and ratings of on the job performance. Ratings for some 167 "assesseees" of the Center were obtained from the center assessors, senior-level teachers, supervisors, support staff, and the candidates themselves. The results of the correlations were moderately positive indicating that performance in the Assessment Center did indicate a good possibility of success on the job. The highest correlations occurred between assessment ratings and supervisor ratings, $r=.25$. The overall correlation for

6. N. Schmitt, R. Noe, R. Meritt, M. Fitzgerald, and C. Jorgensen. Criterion-Related and Content Validity of the NASSP Assessment Center. Reston, Virginia: NASSP, 1982, 51-52, 60-61

TABLE I
Content Validity Ratios for the Assessment Center Skills
Across the Major Performance Dimensions

Task Dimension	Problem Analysis	Judgment	Organizational Ability	Decisiveness	Leadership
1. Curriculum & Instructional Leadership	.88	.88	.88	.55	.88
2. Coordination of Student Activities	.33	.77	.88	.55	.77
3. Direction of Support Services of the School	.66	.77	.88	.77	.77
4. Staff Selection Evaluation & Development	.55	.88	.77	.66	.88
5. Development & Maintenance Community Relations	.88	.88	.66	.55	.88
6. Coordination With District & Other Schools	.33	.55	.88	.11	.55
7. Fiscal Management	.77	.88	.88	.66	.66
8. Maintenance of School Plant	.77	.88	.66	.55	.44
9. Structure Communication	.66	.88	.77	.66	.77

* The larger the value, the greater the extent to which the skill was judged "essential" or "necessary" but not essential as other skills, for the adequate performance of tasks in the dimension.

these two groups was statistically significant at the .05 level.⁷ Thus, the Schmitt study did underscore the content and criterion-related validity of the Assessment Center Program. Because the present study makes use of the skills validated by the Assessment Center, the content validity phase of the report is especially significant since it forms the basis for exploration in a new situation.

A third and ancilliary aspect of the Schmitt study was the investigation of the internal validity of the Center itself in terms of its actual operation. More technically, the third phase looked into the reliability of assessor ratings. Hence, the team spoke in terms of internal validity. In this third phase, the investigators examined ratings of skill dimension performance and overall placement recommendations. Inter-observer ratings were correlated for 340 assessment center candidates. The research team found a very high level of internal validity since most inter-rater correlations were in excess of .60 and since those for placement recommendation were all greater than .80 indicating very high agreement among the raters or assessors.⁸

Therefore, in terms of its theoretical base and its actual operation, the Assessment Center has served two functions of importance: it underlined the need for bridging the

7. N. Schmitt et ali, Ibid., 32

8. N. Schmitt et ali, Ibid., 5

gap between theory and practice in educational administration or leadership, and it provided theoretically validated skills as a reference point for analysis of behaviors of principals in the field. In other words, it has provided a sense of direction as this investigation has sought answers to the fundamental questions asked at the beginning of this section. Therefore, it grants the present study a degree of theoretical validity. To be sure, it is in bridging the gap between theory and practice with specific and validated performance skills that the educational leader can enhance his or her professionalism.

Purpose of the Study

Selected skills defined by the National Association of Secondary School Principals Assessment Center have provided a validated, theoretical, and specific basis for analyzing the leadership behaviors of educational practitioners, principals on the job. The skills, then, are the objective reference point for the study. The purpose of the study has been to apply the validated research to real life administrative situations rather than in an atmosphere of simulation like that of the NASSP Assessment Center. More specifically, the study has sought to investigate the application of certain leadership skills, namely: problem analysis, judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability, to real life administrative situations in all of their complexity. Thus, more succinctly, the purpose of the study has

been to analyze the leadership behaviors of secondary school principals of Catholic schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago in terms of the above-mentioned skills validated by the NASSP. The behaviors of the principals were examined to determine the following:

1. Evidence that the validated skills were present in their patterns of leadership behavior.
2. The human and material resources that they utilized as they engaged these skills.
3. The methods that they employed as they engaged these skills.

It is in the examination of the resources and methods utilized by the principals that the complexity of the leadership situation can emerge for deeper analysis. Therefore, leadership behaviors were analyzed in the context of on the job performance.

Procedure and Sample

The procedure for this study employed a qualitative rather than a quantitative methodology. The qualitative perspective was chosen because it appeared to be more appropriate to the nature and direction of the study. That is to say, the fundamental purpose of the study was to discover patterns of behavior much more than to validate a given theory; the theoretical base was already validated by the Schmitt Report. One phase of the study was the analysis of principals' behaviors to determine evidence of NASSP skill

usage. Another, equally important phase was the analysis of the context of skill engagement. This phase was more open and exploratory in nature. Therefore, a qualitative approach could be of benefit in this type of inquiry both for verification and exploration.

Because of the qualitative nature of the inquiry, fundamental questions became important rather than statistically oriented hypotheses. The major questions in the study were as follows:

1. Did the principals in the sample provide evidence that they did engage the skills of problem analysis, judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability in their on the job leadership behaviors?
2. If so, what human and material resources did the principals utilize as they engaged these skills?
3. If so, what methods did the principals employ as they engaged these skills?

The first question aimed for verification of skill engagement. The second and third questions, however, became points of departure for a deeper exploration of the context of skill practice. While some critics of qualitative methodology may condemn it out of hand for its "subjectivity," one must note that qualitative research always attempts to be objective without eliminating other possible sources of information that could enhance the findings of a study. It is for this reason that the focus of the present

study is on asking broader research questions rather than on formulating specific hypotheses. Qualitative methodology depends on logical interpretation of the answers to those questions, and, as Glaser and Strauss have pointed out, the answers become the empirical data sources which do the following:

1. Display categories or patterns of behavior with their complex properties.
2. Provide the impetus to explore the meaning of possible differences in behaviors, i.e., "negative cases."
3. Permit the researcher to synthesize those patterns into a meaningful statement about reality.⁹

This study, then, looked for patterns of principals' behaviors to answer the research questions and, thus, to make some meaningful statements about educational leadership.

It should be noted that efforts have been made to insure objectivity in the present study since, as Kirk and Miller have pointed out, qualitative researchers stress that "... objectivity is the simultaneous realization of as much reliability and validity as possible."¹⁰ Such

9. Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss. *Ibid.*, 105-115

10. Jerome Kirk and Mark M. Miller. Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1986, 20

objectivity was guaranteed by the theoretical validity of the NASSP base and by the reliability of a careful data analysis. Thus, the basic reference point of this study, its very foundation, was the statistically validated model put forth by the NASSP Assessment Center. Criteria for verifying the presence or absence of specific performance skills in the behaviors of the principals were the definitions provided by the NASSP Validity Study. This use of the definitions provided the study with a base for theoretical validity. Moreover, the interview schedule (the study instrument pre-tested for validity and reliability) focused on concrete situations in which actual behaviors rather than opinions served as the basis for fieldnote analysis. The meaning of differing responses or negative cases was also explored. In this way, the study followed a decidedly qualitative but objective and logical model of research which sought to discover emerging patterns of behavior within the structure or framework of the NASSP skill dimensions.

A specific and purposeful sample was chosen for the study - Catholic secondary school principals in the Archdiocese of Chicago. This specific sample was chosen for the following reasons:

1. A sincere desire to look into the leadership behaviors of Catholic school principals without making the effort to compare them with their counter-parts in the public schools. To do so could involve

judgements and dichotomies that are not of significance since leadership skills can be exhibited in many different settings.

2. The investigator is familiar with the archdiocesan system after having spent some twelve years in it both as a teacher and as an administrator at the secondary level. While some may look upon this familiarity as an element of bias, such possible bias is lessened by an objective and logical analysis of the data. Furthermore, it should be noted that an element of familiarity has often been considered to be of some benefit in qualitative studies. Hence, the ethnographer immerses himself in the culture which he studies. Familiarity can provide the investigator with some insights that an outsider may never have.
3. Lastly, there was fairly easy access to the sample membership.

The sample included twelve Catholic secondary school principals. Since the instrument used in the study was that of the semi-structured interview schedule, such a small sample number was considered reasonable. Because of the small sample number, efforts were made to insure representativeness. Thus, the sample members were chosen purposely to meet the following criteria:

1. All of the principals had two or more years of

- administrative experience in Catholic secondary schools.
2. Since part of the purpose of the study was to explore skill engagement in its complexity, the principals chosen were representative of complex job assignments. That is to say, they administered schools with enrollments of over 750 students.
 3. Also in terms of complexity of assignment, each principal in the sample had one or more "freed assistants." A "freed assistant" is one who is released from teaching assignments to share the burden of school administration, typically in a given area of administration such as curriculum, scheduling, or discipline. A school with one or more freed assistants is one which displays a more complex organization.
 4. The principals in the study all represented secondary schools. Secondary school principals were chosen because of the more complex levels of organization and responsibility entailed in their jobs.
 5. Also, in terms of sample members chosen, care was taken to insure adequate representation from schools with both single sex and coed populations and from both urban and suburban sites. Such purposeful sampling was used to increase generaliz-

ability of the findings by insuring representative-
ness.

Thus, efforts were made to insure representativeness and to insure that the sample reflected the complex purpose of the study.

The general procedure of the research study was as follows:

1. The literature was reviewed to provide support for the theoretical base and to provide insight into the nuances and complexities of the topic under study. Both the literature review and the NASSP skill definitions served as the base for developing the study instrument.
2. A semi-structured interview schedule was constructed and submitted to a panel of three experts for analysis. The schedule was then revised based upon recommendations from the panel membership. Also, the schedule was field tested with two secondary school principals not included in the sample to insure greater reliability. After the field test, the schedule was again revised and refined.
3. Permission to conduct the study was secured from the Catholic Office of Education of the Archdiocese of Chicago.
4. A telephone survey of the various principals targeted for sample membership was conducted to deter-

mine whether or not the principals would meet the criteria noted above and whether or not they would be willing to participate in the study.

5. The interviews were scheduled with the participating principals and were conducted with the assistance of a tape recorder. The tape recordings were transcribed and analyzed with the aid of the coding system reprinted in the appendices. Thus, the interview verbatim became the empirical data for analysis. Furthermore, various matrices were employed to aid in analysis of patterns of behavior.

To recapitulate, the method of research used in this study was qualitative. Therefore, the data were treated in a different manner from that of quantitative or statistical analysis. The raw data, the interview responses, were submitted to an analysis that made use of logic and insight to discover patterns of behavior. These patterns were placed into general categories and further analyzed to determine the complex properties that belonged to a given category of behavior. This approach is in line with Miles and Huberman's three-pronged interactive model of qualitative data analysis:

1. Data Reduction - Data are simplified and focused by the research questions, the coding scheme based on the NASSP skill

- definitions, and the literature review.
2. Data Display - Data are organized into patterns - again with the aid of the coding scheme and illustrative matrices.
 3. Conclusions/ Verification - The patterns are organized into logical and meaningful answers to the research questions and are re-checked to verify the logic of the conclusions.¹¹.

The general reference points for the categories or patterns of behavior and for the codes mentioned above were the NASSP skill definitions located in the "Definition of Technical Terms" section of this chapter. Thus, the skill definitions have helped to provide the study with a theoretically valid base that lends itself to greater objectivity and generalizability. Such definitions have also been reinforced, where applicable, by the literature review.

Assumptions

There were a number of assumptions made in this study. They are listed below:

1. The sample members shared a common background in

11. Matthew B. Miles and A. Michael Huberman. Qualitative Data Analysis: A Source Book of New Methods. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage, 1984, 21-23

terms of religious, social, economic, and educational experience. All have had a considerable amount of experience in various Catholic schools. They have been educated in a similar fashion.

2. While there were some ethnic and socioeconomic differences in the school populations which the principals represented, by and large, the schools can be assumed to share a common belief in the efficacy and value of Catholic education. Furthermore, a careful selection of sample members was made to insure adequate representation.
3. All of the schools represented by the principals were complex in nature. That is to say, the principals all dealt with such complexities as scheduling, financing, and staffing a Catholic high school in the 1980s.
4. It is assumed that the principals included in the study responded candidly to the questions asked in the interviews.
5. It is also assumed that the theoretical base for the study, the NASSP Assessment Center Validity Report (the Schmitt Report), contains valid, reliable, and accurate information and conclusions.

Limitations

The most fundamental limitation of the study is the fact that the findings are limited to the sample of the

twelve principals included in the study. In other words, since the study was not based on a random sample, the conclusions might not be easily generalized to a larger population of Catholic school principals. However, the conclusions can provide important insights, implications, and recommendations for educational leadership and for further study, since efforts were made to insure both objectivity and representativeness of the sample. Also, the conclusions of the study are limited by the validity and reliability of the interview schedule used in the study.

Definitions of Technical Terms

The following is a list of the technical terms that were used in this study. The four specific skills under study were defined by the NASSP Assessment Center Program.¹² These four definitions served as the basis for developing the interview guide and as reference points for data analysis. The NASSP definition of leadership was also added to the list because, in a very real sense, the global focus of the study is leadership. Although leadership was defined in the section entitled "Statement of the Problem" as the use of a frame of reference validated by research to guide staff toward the accomplishment of acceptable goals, the NASSP definition is also presented for its specificity.

12. Thomas Jeswald. "A New Approach to Identifying Administrative Talent." NASSP Bulletin. 61 (September 1977) 81-82

1. Leadership - Ability to get others involved in solving problems; ability to recognize when a group requires direction, to interact with a group effectively and to guide them to the accomplishment of a task.
2. Problem Analysis - Ability to seek out relevant data and analyze complex information to determine the important elements of a problem situation; searching for information with a purpose.
3. Judgement - Ability to reach logical conclusions and make high quality decisions based on available information; skill in identifying educational needs and setting priorities; ability to evaluate critically written communications.
4. Decisiveness - Ability to recognize when a decision is required (disregarding the quality of the decision) and to act quickly.
5. Organizational Ability - Ability to plan, schedule, and control the work of others; skill in using resources in an optimal fashion; ability to deal with a

- heavy volume of paperwork and heavy demands on one's time.
6. Semi-structured-interview - An interview guide that is "built around a core of structured questions from which the interviewer branches off to explore in depth. Accurate and complete information is desired with the additional opportunity to probe for underlying factors or relationships which are too complex or elusive to encompass in more straight-forward questions."¹³.
7. Validity - An indication that an instrument or a study measures what it purports to measure.¹⁴.
8. Reliability - An indication of consistency between measurements in a series.¹⁵.

It should also be noted that the literature reviewed beyond that provided by the NASSP Assessment Center also provided insights enhancing the meaning and complexity of the definitions listed above.

13. Stephen Isaac and William Michael. Handbook in Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Edits, 1984, 138

14. Stephen Isaac and William Michael. Ibid., 119

15. Stephen Isaac and William Michael. Ibid., 123

Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was a semi-structured interview schedule as defined above. Such an instrument was chosen because it provides an investigation with the following benefits:

1. It permits greater depth in the study.
2. It permits probing to obtain more complete data.
3. It makes it possible to establish and maintain rapport with respondents or at least to determine when rapport has not been established.
4. It provides a means of checking and assuring the effectiveness of communication between the respondent and the interviewer.¹⁶.

Thus, the semi-structured interview is an appropriate tool for a qualitative methodology because it can probe for underlying factors within a context of good rapport and good communication. As Bogdan and Biklen have noted, "... qualitative interviews offer the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of topics and offer the subject a chance to shape the content of the interview.... Good interviews are ones in which the subjects are at ease and talk freely about their points of view. Good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondent's

16. Stephen Isaac and William Michael. Ibid., 138

perspective."¹⁷. Since the present study searched for more than mere verification of skill practice, such a tool was of benefit because it allowed for probing into the context, human and material, of skill practice. In other words, interview responses provided rich data sources to analyze the human and material resources and the methods that the principals in the sample engage in as they carry out the leadership skills of problem analysis, judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability.

Of course, any instrument used in a study may have drawbacks and must be applied cautiously. For instance, the interview is time-consuming and costly in terms of energy expended. Also, the questions on the interview schedule must be directly related to the goals or purposes of the study. In other words, the interview schedule must be a valid and reliable instrument. Finally, problems of conversation recall, accuracy of fieldnotes, and consistency of coding can influence the objectivity of the interview. It is for these reasons that the interview schedule used in the study was submitted to three experts to check its validity. The three experts, a professor of educational administration, a Catholic secondary school principal not included in the sample, and a superintendent from the Catholic School Office of the Archdiocese, analyzed the

17. Robert Bogdan and Sari Biklen. Qualitative Research for Education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1982, 136

interview schedule and made suggestions for improvement of the instrument. Their suggestions were incorporated into the final form. It is also for these reasons that the interview schedule was field tested and further refined to insure reliability. In addition, tape recordings of the interviews were used to insure the accuracy and reliability of the data. The recordings were transformed into verbatim transcripts to aid the investigator's recall and to supplement the fieldnotes from the actual interviews. The responses collected from the interviews were the data sources for analysis of the principals' leadership skills. The coding analysis was rechecked for each interview to test for reliability. A copy of the interview schedule used in the study is located in the appendices. Also, a detailed explanation of the data analysis appears in Chapter III.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of the review of the literature in this study is three-fold: to provide "expert" support for the validated NASSP skills that serve as the centerpiece of the study, to provide insights into the complexity of leadership situations where such skills are engaged, and to provide direction and perspectives in the formulation of the questions of the interview schedule. As noted in Chapter I, the purpose of the study is to pass beyond mere verification of skill engagement in principals' behaviors to an analysis of the factors that may positively affect or hinder the practice of these skills. The literature gleaned from theoretical and research-based sources has served both to strengthen further the validity of the NASSP skills (what Jick calls "triangulation by theory" or making a stronger case in qualitative research¹.) and to illustrate the complexities and nuances of skill engagement in terms of methods employed and resources used. The literature points to factors, intervening circumstances, and contexts that can seriously affect

1. Todd D. Jick. "Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods: Triangulation in Action." Administrative Science Quarterly. 24 (December 1979) 602-611

the direction that leadership behavior takes. Consequently, leadership activity is complex, and various sources may disagree as to its meaning and components. For instance, Patricia Jensen analyzed the literature on educational leadership from 1960 until 1979 and found no concise definition of leadership. She stated that "no composite concept of leadership or its components emerged from the literature."² Yet, in spite of differences, what literature is available can provide insights and possible directions for further exploration in this area.

The general structure of the literature review follows a two-fold division. The materials presented have been categorized into the skills under study, i.e., problem analysis and judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability. A general section on leadership ability has also been examined since the general topic of the study is leadership skill. This section illustrates most particularly the complex nature of the topic. The materials were further categorized within each skill based upon the type of literature reviewed, i.e., books, articles from scholarly journals, and dissertations. Some studies and their findings may, of course, relate to more than one skill. This is the case since no one skill is engaged in a vacuum. Yet,

2. Patricia R. Jensen. "The Literature of Educational Leadership, 1960 to 1979." (Ed.D. Dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/05A, 1877

for purposes of organization and simplification of the vast body of literature, this general classification scheme was used.

General Overview of Literature on Leadership

Books

Because of the complex nature of leadership skills, there have been numerous approaches to its study and description. It is for this reason that Jensen drew inconclusive conclusions in the study cited above. Historically, early efforts to capture the complex meaning of leadership often devolved into taxonomies or lists of characteristics of leadership. For instance, Stogdill's analysis of leadership resulted in the following short list of characteristics associated with leadership.

1. Capacity: intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement.
2. Achievement: scholarship, knowledge, athletic accomplishment.
3. Responsibility: dependability, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, desire to excel.
4. Participation: activities, sociability, cooperation, adaptability, humor.
5. Status: socioeconomic position, popularity.³

To Stogdill, the leader was one who possessed these characteristics. However, the problem with a view of leadership that merely describes a list of desirable character-

3. Stephen J. Knezevich. Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper and Row, 1975, 87

istics is that such a view is subject to the old cliché that some people are just "born leaders." While this may be true to a certain extent, one would hope that various individuals could also learn leadership skills. That is the whole point of the NASSP Assessment Center Program with its emphasis on skill development. People can learn to improve on their inherent abilities. Of course, there is something to be said for the taxonomic approach as long as such taxonomies admit to the possibility of developing skills.

In a more contemporary study, Blumberg and Greenfield synthesized their findings on the effective principal in terms of a list of descriptors or general characteristics. They conducted a qualitative study of some eight effective principals over a lengthy period of time. The principals were judged effective by reputation. The basic tool of the study was the open-ended interview technique. Blumberg and Greenfield conducted both private interviews with the individual principals and a concluding group interview with the entire sample. Each principal was characterized differently in terms of style, approach, and concerns. For instance, one was labelled an "Organizer - Whirling Dervish of a Problem-Solver." Another was viewed as an "Authentic Helper." Yet, another was considered a "Broker." In spite of differences in style or perspective, the principals under study did share some common characteristics that Blumberg and Greenfield gleaned from their data analysis. The list

of such characteristics follows:

1. All had a high level of energy and were willing to spend a great amount of time on the job. They were committed.
2. All had well-developed expressive ability. They could communicate effectively.
3. All took proactive approaches to their jobs. They were aggressive and action-oriented.
4. All were good listeners and observers of behavior.
5. All were skilled at analyzing problems and developing alternative strategies.⁴

Therefore, Blumberg and Greenfield attempted to describe leadership in terms of personal characteristics. However, the characteristics that they used were more akin to skills that can be developed, skills very much similar to those described by the NASSP. In fact, Blumberg and Greenfield concluded their study by recommending, among other things, performance-based preparation of principals that would concentrate on skill development, on learning to apply skills to become more effective leaders.

Learning or development was also the focus of much of Chris Argyris' work on leadership and organizations. In Personality and Organization, Argyris theorized that the formal organization impedes the growth and development of the individual employee. Formal organizations such as school systems are in conflict with the individual personality because they seek to elicit only "infant" responses or behaviors from the individual. Argyris' perspective can be

4. Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield. The Effective Principal: Perspectives on School Leadership. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980, 257

summarized in the following major propositions.

1. There is a lack of congruency between the needs of healthy individuals and the demands of formal organizations.
2. The resultants of this disturbance are frustration, failure, short time perspective, and conflict.
3. Under certain conditions (i.e., the increase of the individuals maturity), the degree of frustration, failure, short time perspective, and conflict will tend to increase.
4. The nature of the formal principles of organization causes the subordinate, at any given level, to experience competition, rivalry, insubordinate hostility, and to develop a focus toward the parts rather than the whole.
5. The employee adaptive behavior maintains self-integration and impedes integration with the formal organization.
6. The adaptive behavior of the employee has a cumulative effect, feeding back into the organism, and reinforces itself.
7. Certain management reactions (i.e., increased directive leadership) tend to increase the antagonisms underlying the adaptive behavior.
8. Other management reactions can decrease the degree of incongruency between the individual and the formal organization.
9. Job or role enlargement is one effective method to change the organization structure. Individual centered (or employee-centered) leadership is one possible way to modify directive leadership.
10. Job or role enlargement or employee-centered leadership will tend not to work to the extent that the adaptive behavior has been imbedded in the organizational culture and the self-concepts of the individuals.
11. The difficulties involved in the above premise may be minimized by the use of reality-centered leadership.⁵

In simplification, Argyris contended that formal organizations have a tendency to stifle the creative growth and development of the individual in the organization. The

5. Chris Argyris. Personality and Organization. New York: Harper and Row, 1957, 232-237

leader who focuses on a participative style of leadership and who allows the employee to contribute as an adult to the organization is the leader who will experience success. Truly reflective of the human relations perspective of the times in which he first wrote, Argyris argued that a leadership perspective which aimed for the development of the individual also secured organizational growth and productivity. That was the point of proposition 10. It is also interesting to note that proposition 11 pointed the way to a more situational or contingent approach to leadership, since it recognized the need to respond differently to followers of different maturity levels. Thus, Argyris preferred an employee-centered leader (McGregor's Theory Y leader, Argyris' Pattern B or Model II leader). Yet, he also admitted that certain employees were in need of more directive leadership. Hence, he developed the concept of "reality-centered leadership."

To Argyris the development of the employee-centered leader was a learning experience. Such leadership behavior must be developed through hard work. That was the basis for his major premise in Increasing Leadership Effectiveness. In this book, Argyris related his own experiences in his leadership seminars at Harvard University with some 100 plus graduate students and with six private corporation executives. In the course of the seminars, both business executives and graduate students learned to move from more

directive patterns of leadership behavior (Pattern A or Model I) to a more employee-centered pattern (Pattern B or Model II). However, such a move was not made easily. All could describe the "proper" leadership behaviors in theory. Putting such behaviors into actual practice proved more difficult. It was from this experience that Argyris developed his dichotomy between "espousal theory" and "theory in practice" that was described in Chapter I. The basic process of moving from theory to practice involved what Argyris called "double-looped learning" as described in summary form below:

Model II couples articulateness and advocacy with an invitation to others to confront one's views, to alter them, in order to produce the position that is based on the most complete valid information possible and to which people involved can become internally committed. This means the actor in Model II is skilled at inviting double-looped learning.⁶

In summary form then, Argyris viewed leadership behavior as a partnership of employer and employee, a partnership seeking to achieve a goal in mutual cooperation and mutual contribution. With double-looped learning, the method of Model II behavior, the leader is vulnerable because he invites the employee to critique his methods, his perspectives, his solutions, etc., so that all may work together to achieve the best possible solution for the organization. It is by learning to move from Model I, the more

6. Chris Argyris. Increasing Leadership Effectiveness. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976, 20

directive approach of leadership, to Model II, the more employee-centered approach of leadership, that the leader himself develops greater congruence between his espousal theory and his theory in practice. In all, Argyris pointed up the crucial nature of human resources in carrying out leadership skills.

Fred E. Fiedler's treatment of leadership was somewhat different from that of Argyris. After some fifteen years of intensive research on leadership behaviors with many different populations (from the U.S. military to managers in private enterprise and employees in steel plants), he synthesized his findings into his "contingency theory" of leadership in which certain factors influence the favorableness of a given style of leadership. The two styles that he described were either task-oriented or relations-oriented. The influencing factors were the structure of the task (from the simple to the complex), the positional power of the leader (from weak to strong), and the leader's relations with the group (from poor to good).⁷ In his research, Fiedler consistently found that the task-oriented leader was most successful in highly favorable or highly unfavorable situations. The more relations-oriented leader was more successful in the moderately favorable situations. Fiedler made use of a scale or inventory (the Least Preferred Co-

7. Fred E. Fiedler. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967, 22-31

worker Scale, the LPC) to determine the basic orientation of the leader. It was theorized that the LPC Scale could identify the leader's orientation so that he could in turn attempt to modify the three above-mentioned variables in such a way as to be able to insure greater success. While Argyris would call upon the leader to change, Fiedler would call upon the leader to change his situation contingent upon a rather static style. While Fiedler has been criticized for the simplicity of his LPC Scale and for the fact that he determined leadership skill only in terms of two opposite styles, he did provide a significant perspective for exploration of leadership behavior. It is true that the complexity of leadership situations requires one to analyze or examine such contextual factors as task structure, power, and relations with the followers. These factors are all part of the context of skill engagement. Of course, it is also true that other factors may come into play in leadership situations. Yet, Fiedler pointed up the importance of style interrelating with contextual factors.

Hoping to synthesize various perspectives on leadership including that of Fiedler, Sergiovanni and Carver made an extensive review of the basic literature on administrative theory in The New School Executive. Sergiovanni and Carver are reflective of a contemporary viewpoint of leadership which rejects both extremes of the traditional scientific management models and the human relations models as

inadequate. Sergiovanni called for a "human resource" model wherein the focus was based on the premise that the individual derives satisfaction from a job well done. This reflected Herzberg's theory of motivation and Hersey and Blanchard's emphasis on maturity (see below). In their synthesis, Sergiovanni and Carver pointed to some seven functions of leadership, functions that reflect the problem analysis and judgement skills of the NASSP. These functions are carried out and influenced by certain contextual factors. The functions and factors are outlined below.

Functions

1. Awareness - making the group aware of the need for new or different action.
2. Settling on action - clarifying alternative ends and strategies.
3. Implementing - accepting and initiating a preferred end or approach.
4. Processing - monitoring of progress toward the preferred end or approach.
5. Evaluating - introducing evaluative data.
6. Concluding - concluding group activity on the particular end or approach.
7. Feedback - making the group aware of its results.

Contextual Factors

1. Forces within the self - task or relations orientation.
2. Forces within the group - goal achievement or group maintenance needs.
3. Intervening variables - task structure, positional power of the leader, relations with subordinates.⁸

8. Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver. The New School Executive. New York: Harper and Row, 1982, 277-280

The factors influence the functions of leadership in various and complex ways. In all, Sergiovanni and Carver's concept of leadership was and is a functional one that admits of the importance of a multitude of intervening variables. To be sure, Sergiovanni's concept of leader as the "leader of leaders" was also reflective of the work done by Argyris. The focus on intervening variables was reflective of Fiedler's work. Thus, Sergiovanni and Carver have truly developed a synthesis of the concept of leadership, a synthesis that reflected the work of others and the very complex nature of leadership behavior. This synthesis is also in line with the defined leadership skills of the NASSP Assessment Center Program. Indeed, Sergiovanni's functions encompass the leadership skills of problem analysis, judgment, decisiveness, and organizational ability.

Articles

As Sergiovanni, Fiedler, and others have noted, one key component of leadership is the style that a leader adopts in his relations with his staff. Most theorists have set up the dichotomy that Fiedler and Sergiovanni have both made central to their descriptions, the dichotomy between the task-oriented leader and the relations-oriented leader. Hersey and Blanchard also made use of this dichotomy in their Situational Leadership Theory. However, they provided for more flexibility in their theory since they saw the opposites along a continuum from the highly task-

oriented to the highly relations-oriented. Their fundamental contention was that no one leadership style was appropriate in all situations. In point of fact, Hersey and Blanchard did contend that leadership style should be modified with each set of circumstances. Thus, situational leadership was and is dependent upon an "interplay" among the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and the "maturity" level that followers exhibit on a specific task.⁹ Thus, to them, the variable of follower maturity became crucial as the leader decided to act. Maturity level has been defined by Hersey and Blanchard as the "capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or group."¹⁰ Hersey and Blanchard asserted that more directive or task-oriented leadership would be appropriate in a situation in which the followers demonstrate low levels of maturity. They also contended that a delegating stance (low task and low relations) would be most appropriate when maturity level of the followers is high. This thinking was in line with Argyris' "employee-centered" lead-

9. P. Gates, K. Blanchard, and P. Hersey. "Diagnosing Educational Leadership Problems: A Situational Approach." Educational Leadership. 33 (February 1976) 349

10. P. Gates, K. Blanchard, and P. Hersey. *Ibid.*, 349

ership. The benefit of this theory lies in the assertion that no one style of leadership is appropriate in all situations. This merely reinforces the complex nature of leadership skill. The difficulty with this theory lies in the fact that the leader must both be able to read maturity levels well and must be able to change styles to meet the needs of his followers. Failure to make the proper measure of the group's maturity level could bode ill for the relationship between leader and followers.

In spite of the weaknesses inherent in a situational approach, others such as Warren Bennis would support the Hersey and Blanchard proposition precisely because they agree that leadership cannot be locked into one strictly defined package. As Bennis has pointed out, contemporary society is a "temporary" one. Things are constantly changing. Advancing technology presents new demands and challenges to the leader daily. Thus, Bennis claimed that the leader must be one who has the organizational ability (one of the NASSP skills) to balance forces in a turbulent environment with a mobile population often in value conflict.

To him, the leader must be:

1. Trained to implement change,
2. Analytical of system problems,
3. Capable of appealing to high levels of motivation,
4. Capable of developing "synergistic" or problem-solving teams,

5. Committed to the values of the organization.^{11.}

Calling for an adaptive leadership style, Bennis lent support to many of the skills deemed essential by the NASSP such as problem analysis, judgement, and organizational ability. In summary, then, it is in using these skills that the adaptive leader can succeed. To Bennis, "the executive thus becomes a coordinator or linking pin between various task forces. He must be a man who can speak the diverse languages of research with skills to relay information and to mediate between groups."^{12.}

The very important concept of dealing with groups and their problems mentioned above was also touched upon by John Hemphill in his theoretical perspective on leadership. Also, like Sergiovanni and Bennis, he pointed to a central function of leadership, that of problem-solving. Hemphill saw the leader as one who initiated a "structure-in-interaction" to solve a "mutual" problem.^{13.} Structure-in-interaction was another term for pattern of behavior or routine much like Simon's programmed decision-making (see below). A further significant point for Hemphill lay in his asser-

11. Warren Bennis. "The Problem: Integrating the Organization and the Individual." Theoretical Dimensions of Educational Administration. New York: MacMillan, 1975, 338ff

12. Warren Bennis. Ibid., 338

13. John K. Hemphill. "Administration as Problem-Solving." Administrative Theory in Education. New York: MacMillan, 1958, 98

tion that leadership involved the solution of a mutual problem, a problem that a group experienced. While some would take issue with a theory that focuses leadership behavior only on problem-solving, Hemphill's analysis has pointed up the complexity of administration, especially in terms of the human resources involved in leadership behavior. To him, the probability of success in solving problems depended greatly on a number of group-related conditions as listed below:

1. Whether the leader thinks that the act will lead to a mutual problem solution.
2. What effect he thinks the act will have on the group's potential for need-disposition satisfaction.
3. The degree of dissatisfaction he and the group feel with the mutual problem.
4. The strength of his relevant social need-dispositions.¹⁴

Hence, the importance of the needs of the group or the followers was highlighted by Hemphill's approach toward leadership.

Concern for relations with the group was also the basis of Karl Weick's theory of administration as "loose coupling."¹⁵ In summary form, Weick's theory defined leadership as the management of symbols in a loosely coupled organization. Weick pointed out that traditional management models like those of the "scientific approach" have failed

14. John K. Hemphill. *Ibid.*, 113

15. Karl E. Weick. "Administering Education in Loosely Coupled Schools." Kaplan. 63 (June 1982) 673

to fit school situations since schools, unlike other "tightly coupled" organizations, have indeterminate goals and large spans of control. While there are some aspects of educational administration that are tightly coupled, such as planning bus routes, the majority of activities carried out in schools are done so by semi-autonomous individuals, teachers in their own classrooms. As a result, the educational leader must serve to link or couple the personnel as best he can by appealing to a shared value system. Linkage was a key concept of Weick as it has been in the writings of others such as Rensis Likert. Of course, Weick's concern for the transmission of values could lead to difficulties for the educational leader in this pluralistic society. Yet, Weick has also lent support to the significant role human resources can and do play in the engagement of leadership skills.

The importance of the perception of the leader that is shared by such a "loosely coupled" group as a school faculty was highlighted in Meyer and Van Horne's study of principals. Meyer and Van Horne sought to investigate agreement and disagreement of perception between middle school principals and their teachers. Some twenty-three principals and some 440 teachers were sampled with a validated survey instrument that analyzed instructional leadership, administrative service skills, and interpersonal relationship skills. They found that there was no significant

discrepancy over what the two groups thought should be done in the three administrative areas, but there was a significant discrepancy over what each group perceived as actually being done.¹⁶ The authors further concluded from their analysis that the discrepancy was the result of poor communications skills on the part of the principals. Meyer and Van Horne's findings appeared to reinforce the problem of bridging the gap between theory and practice, the problem of the dichotomy between espousal theory and theory in practice as described by Argyris.

Many of the theoretical concepts discussed in the previous sources were borne out in a study of some ten reputationally successful principals done by McCoy and Shreve. On-site visits, interviews, and self-administered instruments served as the data sources for the study. McCoy and Shreve found that the successful principal was one who was self-actualizing, committed to planned changes, adaptable in terms of style, and free and secure in terms of interpersonal relations.¹⁷ Such a principal was capable of delegating authority and responsibility while maintaining the proper degree of control over a situation. Also, such a principal

16. Calvin F. Meyer and John J. Van Horne. "Interpersonal Relationship Skills: Key to Effective Leadership." NASSP Bulletin. 65 (September 1981) 67-73

17. Susan B. McCoy and GERALYN R. Shreve. "Principals - Why Are Some More Successful Than Others in Implementing Change?" NASSP Bulletin. 67 (September 1983) 98

was concerned with growth and development of self and staff, was a good communicator, was willing to take risks, accepted contributions of followers to problem solutions, was accessible to staff, and served as a resource for staff. Thus, the study pointed to such concepts as Argyris' "employee-centered" leadership and Hersey and Blanchard's range of style as they were actually carried out in successful leadership practice. The study also underlined the pivotal role of group relations that Hemphill and Weick focused on - albeit in slightly different ways.

Dissertations

Dissertation research has also examined the complexity of leadership behavior in terms of such factors as style, relations with subordinates, power bases, and climate. Hence, dissertation research has reinforced the importance of the very factors that theorists point to as significant aspects of leadership behavior. It has also reinforced the validity of the NASSP skill dimensions of leadership, dimensions that were deemed essential to leadership behavior by men such as Argyris, Bennis, and the others. For example, Hemphill made problem-solving within the context of group process central to his theory of leadership. Problem analysis and judgement are integral NASSP skills for problem-solving. Bennis' call for administrators with organizational ability and adaptable problem-solving strategies supported the NASSP skills also. The on-site research done by

the authors of the dissertations provided further evidence of the validity of the NASSP skills as well as the complexity of leadership behavior. As such, the dissertations also provided further insight as well as a view of various research techniques.

In one study, Allred sought to determine the relationship between administrative style and teacher morale. Some 268 teachers completed a survey instrument, the Purdue Teacher Opinionnaire. This instrument was a validated tool used to measure morale. They also completed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, a measure of administrator style. This tool was used to determine teacher perception of principals' style. The statistic of the study was a correlation coefficient. The results indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between perceived style and morale ($p = .05$). Furthermore, the "consideration-oriented" principal style was more closely associated with higher teacher morale.¹⁸ However, it should be noted that the more experienced teachers showed less preference for the "consideration-oriented" principal. This may support the Hersey and Blanchard assertion that the more mature teacher needs less supportive behavior from the leader or principal.

18. Clifton D. Allred. "The Relationship Between Teacher Morale and the Principal's Administrative Leadership Style." (Ed.D. Dissertation, East Texas State University, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/10A, 4218

Generally speaking, though, the findings of this study seemed to support the human relations approach to leadership. Of course, one must note that the study was based on perceptions and perceptions can be distorted. It should also be noted that high morale is not equivalent to effectiveness.

Newton Arthur Clark sought to test the validity of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory, the theory alluded to above, in an actual job situation. Using the Leadership Style and Maturity Scale instruments, Clark field tested some fifty administrators and 275 teachers in a district. The findings were interesting particularly in relation to the Allred study because they tended to contradict what Allred asserted about the more mature teachers. That is to say, Clark's sample members who were determined to be "mature" according to the scale felt a "relations-oriented" or "consideration-oriented" administrator would be more effective.¹⁹ This finding contradicted Hersey and Blanchard's theory since that theory asserted that the very mature teacher would prefer an administrator who was low on both task and relations dimensions, a "delegatory" leader. It seemed from this study that teachers preferred an admin-

19. Newton Arthur Clark Jr. "Educational Leadership: A Field Test of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/12A, 4900

istrator high on consideration regardless of maturity level. While Allred was measuring morale specifically in his study, his conclusions concerning the more mature teachers were more in line with the Hersey and Blanchard model than Clark's were. Clark's findings would seem to point to a blend of both task and relations-orientation for the greatest success, an idea advanced by Blake, Mouton, and Reddin. In spite of differences in findings, both studies did point to the significance of the human relations element in leadership activity.

Leadership style was also the focus of Thomas Gibbons' study of some 1,820 teachers and 186 principals from four midwestern states. More specifically, Gibbons sought to examine the relationship between leadership style and selected factors or elements of the organizational environment of the school as identified by Hage's Axiomatic Theory of Organization. A multiple regression technique was used on the data collected from surveys, and the results indicated that the more "executive" principals, a blend of the task and relations-orientations, also presided over school environments that were more "complex" in Hage's theory. "Complex" environments were those that provide for greater professionalism and specialization. In the more highly "centralized" organizations, leadership was more uni-dimensional

or task-oriented.²⁰ Thus, the data from this study supported the claims that Sergiovanni and others made that the more bureaucratic organization experiences greater direction to the detriment of professional growth and development of staff. The implication was that the best leader was one who could blend task and relations approaches to achieve goals with his followers.

The issue of power is another factor of importance in the study of leadership behavior. In her study of some eighty-eight randomly selected teachers in a number of different districts, Susan Kappelman sought to determine the relationship between perceived base of power and perceived leadership style. The French and Raven research on power bases served as the foundation of her work. Kappelman made use of two questionnaires in the study: the Power Base Questionnaire and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form 12. Her data were submitted to a multivariate correlation technique. The results indicated that the "referent" power base related most closely to the "consideration" or relations-oriented leader. A referent power base was one that was founded upon personal admiration and respect. Furthermore, a "coercive" power base related more

20. Thomas Gibbons. "A Study of the Relationship Between Selected Organizational Environment Characteristics and the Leadership Behavior of Elementary Principals." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Missouri-Columbia, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 43/01A, 30

closely to "predictive accuracy."²¹. While one must be cautious when dealing with perceptions, it would seem that the findings supported much of the thought on power bases advanced by French and Raven.

In another study, Barbara Pedersen sought to determine the relationship of leadership style to level of trust in staff members as measured by the Gibb TORI Trust Theory. The theoretical framework for leadership style was the Blake - Mouton Managerial Grid. A sample of nine principals and 129 teachers were subjected to the TORI Group Self-Diagnosis Scale (Trust, Openness, Realization, Interdependence) and the Leadership Appraisal Survey, both validated instruments. The statistical evidence indicated that the 9.9 leader on the Blake - Mouton Grid (a blend of high task and high relations-orientation) correlated highly with a high group score on the TORI Scale.²². Thus, Pedersen felt that the 9.9 styled leader acted so as to develop a positive and trusting relationship with and among staff. Of course, she did not assert a definite and full-proof causal relationship, nor did she equate effectiveness with style. Yet,

21. Susan Kappelman. "Teachers' Perceptions of Principals' Bases of Power in Relation to Principals' Styles of Leadership." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of New Orleans, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/06A, 2405

22. Barbara H. Pedersen. "The Relationship of Leadership Style and Group Levels of Trust." (Ph.D. Dissertation, Wayne State University, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/08A, 3363

it appears that the style of leadership that one employs could have a significant effect on the organization. Other sources have implied or declared this same idea. Another important point made by Pedersen was that the second most closely correlated leadership behavior was the 9.1 leader, the highly task-oriented leader. This would seem to point to the fact that some followers prefer a task-oriented leader quite possibly because such a leader is always consistent and predictable. Also, perhaps a staff trusts a more directive leader since he appears to know where he is going. In any event, this as well as the other studies pointed up the importance of a leader's approach towards his followers as he seeks to engage leadership skills to achieve goals.

In another study somewhat similar to that of McCoy and Shreve, Beverley Geltner sought to explore the interactions between a reputationally effective principal and her staff of some seventeen teachers. The study focused on the discovery of significant factors within the research framework of a phenomenological or qualitative stance. The study took place in a suburban elementary school noted by reputation as "effective." Data were collected from critical incident reports, private taped interviews, and a large group interview. The findings of the study indicated that the teachers perceived the principal or leader as a clarifier of purpose who provided a sense of direction and guidance, a modeler of acceptable behaviors, a source of support, a partner, and a

positive force for instructional innovation.²³ In other words, Geltner contended that the "theoretically defined" behaviors of the effective leader were indeed present in the principal's patterns of behavior. While it is difficult to generalize from such a small sample and while the purpose of this qualitative study was exploratory in nature, it would seem that there was support for blending task and relations-orientations for effective leadership. Of course, Geltner did not limit her study to the analysis of style alone. Yet, a principal who provides both guidance and support appears to blend the two styles. This supports the Reddin and Blake - Mouton Models, Sergiovanni's "human resource" leadership and the findings of Blumberg and Greenfield as discussed above.

In summary, the literature on leadership behavior in general has pointed to the complexity of its nature. As Sergiovanni and Carver's synthesis pointed out above, there are many factors that must be taken into account in the study of leadership. Thus, the NASSP skills must be examined in the light of the human and material resources and methods employed in leadership activity. Factors such as forces within the leader, forces within the group being led, and circumstances such as task structure, positional power,

23. Beverley Geltner. "Teacher Perceptions of the Principal's Leadership Behavior as Related to School Effectiveness." (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Michigan, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/02A, 475

and human relations figured largely in the research completed by Sergiovanni, Blumberg, Geltner, and others. This complexity only heightens the importance of a qualitative approach to the study of leadership since such an approach looks for more than verification of skill engagement. It looks into the context of such engagement, a context that may affect or disaffect the carrying out of specific skills in leadership behavior or high school administration.

Specific Skills - Problem Analysis and Judgement

Books

The literature reviewed to this point has focused on the general topic of leadership behavior in all of its complexity. Thus, factors such as power, style, morale, and relations with subordinates have all come into play in document analysis. Such factors serve to reinforce the importance of context analysis as part of the total process of analyzing leadership behavior. The literature to this point has also pointed up the significance of the particular NASSP skills. For instance, Blumberg and Greenfield's study of effective principals pointed to analysis of problems and developing alternate strategies as key determinants of effective leadership. Bennis pointed to organizational ability as another determinant. McCoy and Shreve pointed out that the principals that they studied were decisive and risk-takers. Thus, the general literature on leadership has supported the NASSP skills, and it has also provided in-

sights into other factors such as style. This section of the literature review continues the analysis of documents in a more specific manner while it also explores further nuances of skill engagement.

It should be noted at the very beginning of this section that the specific skills of problem analysis and judgement were very often combined in the literature under one leadership process, that of problem-solving. In point of fact, the skill of decisiveness also came into play here. Also, in much of the literature, the terms "problem-solving" and "decision-making" were considered equivalent. One should note, however, that the NASSP Assessment Center did separate the skills for a very good reason. In the behaviors of many administrators, problem analysis does not always lead to an act of will, a judgement that effects an action. In fact, one of the weaknesses of some administrators is their inability to act. Some are so caught up in examining alternatives, consequences, and nuances that they never carry out an action. Hence, their stance becomes anything but the proactive stance that Blumberg and Greenfield called for in their study recommendations discussed above. Yet, much of the literature united the analytical and action components of problem-solving in a single process that made use of problem analysis and judgement within the framework of "limited rationality."

"Limited rationality" is a key concept in the process

of problem-solving. To be sure, an ideal problem-solving process would seek to examine a problem objectively and would seek to look for the best possible solution. However, that is not always possible in the real world. Herbert Simon and James G. Marsh addressed this issue in both The New Science of Management Decision and Organizations.

While speaking from a rational perspective in both books (Simon authored the first book alone), the authors did make some statements about the limits of rational thinking in problem-solving. For instance, Simon made a differentiation between "programmed" and "non-programmed" decision-making.²⁴ Programmed decision-making was concerned with the establishment of routines to deal with situations that occurred frequently and regularly. Simon asserted that the use of written rules and regulations minimized problems associated with programmed decision-making. However, non-programmed decision-making was concerned with complex and novel situations and required that the leader exhibit critical and rational thinking skills to come to a decision. Yet, even in this process, there are limits to rational thought. As both Simon and Marsh pointed out in Organizations, leaders tend to opt for a satisfactory rather than an optimal decision based on objective and rational analysis. The following quote illustrates their point:

24. Herbert A. Simon. The New Science of Management Decision. New York: Harper and Row, 1960, 5ff

Most human decision-making, whether individual or organizational, is concerned with the discovery and selection of satisfactory alternatives; only in exceptional cases is it concerned with discovery and selection of optimal alternatives. To optimize requires processes several orders of magnitude more complex than those required to satisfice. An example is the difference between searching a haystack to find the sharpest needle in it and searching the haystack to find a needle sharp enough to sew with.²⁵

In introducing the concept of "satisficing", the requirement that satisfactory rather than optimal levels of attainment of criteria variables for solutions be met²⁶, Simon and Marsh pointed to the limited nature of rational decision-making or problem-solving. To be sure, problem analysis should be a logical thought process, and judgement should be rational and objective. However, there are many factors that can limit or even destroy any semblance of rationality. Thus, Stephen Knezevich commented upon the decision-making process in this fashion. "To a large degree, decision-making will be, like the iceberg, deeply rooted in the judgement capabilities of the decision maker."²⁷ To Knezevich, such factors as poor information, incomplete information, and inaccurate or incomplete analysis all can lead to poor or less than rational decision-making.

25. James G. Marsh and Herbert A. Simon. Organizations. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958, 14

26. James G. Marsh and Herbert A. Simon, *Ibid.*, 169

27. Stephen J. Knezevich. *Op. cit.*, 65

Other authors also pointed up the limits of rational approaches to decision-making. They also pointed up other intervening factors limiting the process. For instance, Sergiovanni and Carver summed up their perspective on decision-making in the following statement from The New School Executive.

Action-oriented administrators, at least because of the time constraints they face, are more likely to substitute workable decision-making strategies for those described as rational. That is, although school executives and others seek solutions to problems which are the best, they settle for the solutions which are satisfactory.²⁸

Two important points should be made here. Sergiovanni and Carver reflected the "satisficing" position adopted by Simon and Marsh because they too felt that purely rational models could not always be applied to real life situations. Sergiovanni and Carver pointed to time constraints as limits to rational decision-making much as Knezevich pointed to the limiting effect of poor or inaccurate information. Another point of importance was the fact that Sergiovanni and Carver did not espouse the "seat of the pants" method of problem analysis and judgement in spite of the fact that they did see limits to rationality. No, Sergiovanni and Carver looked to a "workable" strategy for problem solution. Their workable strategy followed the steps outlined below:

28. Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver. Op. cit., 9

1. Identify simple objectives with manageable goals.
2. Outline several alternatives which occur to them (school executives) within the limits imposed by time, their experience, and other constraints.
3. Make comparisons among these alternatives using theory, conceptual knowledge, opinion, past experience, judgement, and intuition.
4. Select feasible alternatives which seem most consistent with the original problem or goal.²⁹

Thus, the concept of limited rationality in decision-making or problem-solving is a significant one since it points up the complexity of the skills under study. Just as factors such as style, relations with staff, task structure, etc. affect the general skill of leadership, so too factors such as time constraints, information flow and accuracy, and incomplete, faulty, or highly subjective analyses affect the specific skills entailed in problem-solving.

Values and value structures are also factors that influence the decision-making process. In doing so, values also limit the rationality of decision-making. Sergiovanni and Carver have also pointed up the influence of values. Indeed, they admitted that values might be an essential component of a decision-making model. When speaking of a "social humanities" framework of decision-making, they placed values into the framework of problem analysis and judgement. In point of fact, within this framework, values became the criteria for decision-making. Such criteria as utility, transcendence (the ability of the decision to pro-

29. Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver. *Ibid.*,

duce organizational and personal growth), justice, and ethical limits served to direct the course of decision-making.³⁰ While some would call any attempt to place values into a decision-making model highly subjective, few could counter Sergiovanni's claim that values either implicitly or explicitly do affect that decision-making process.

The concern for the effect of values as well as other limits on rational decision-making has prompted various researchers and theorists to counter the subjective element of decision-making by developing their own "workable strategies" or "objective" models. They have felt that following a general framework for action tends to lessen the subjectivity of problem-solving. One such model or paradigm was that of Daniel Stufflebeam. His model was really the Phi Delta Kappa National Study Committee Evaluation Model. It was originally developed for the sake of program evaluation. However, it is applicable to all problem-solving situations. It followed these essential steps.

1. Awareness wherein needs, problems, or opportunities are identified.
2. Design wherein responsibilities for problem-solving have been fixed and where alternatives have been examined according to some criteria.
3. Choice wherein a judgement has been made according to criteria or decision rules.
4. Action wherein responsibilities for the implementation of the choice have been fixed and where the

30. Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver. *Ibid.*, 315

operational alternative has been executed and evaluated.³¹

This paradigm is rational, practical, and reflective of NASSP skills of problem analysis (steps one and two), and judgement (step three). It also reflects the skill of organizational ability (steps two and four). It is important to note that Stufflebeam and his associates at PDK acknowledged the importance of external factors that limit the rationality of the model. Stufflebeam did this when he pointed out that the degree of change involved in a decision and the information grasp of the followers could greatly affect or disaffect the decision-making process. Thus, there was the concern for following a pattern of behavior much like Sergiovanni's "workable strategy." However, there was also the realization that the model or paradigm might be affected by limiting factors. Sergiovanni pointed to time constraints. Knezevich pointed to information flow problems, and Stufflebeam broadened the list of intervening factors to include such things as degree of change and information grasp in the group affected by the change.

It was this concern with the effects of a decision on a group that has led theorists and researchers to look into the feasibility and favorableness of participatory decision-making or problem-solving. There are and have been differ-

31. Daniel L. Stufflebeam. Educational Evaluation and Decision Making. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock, 1971, 53

ences of opinion concerning the efficacy of participatory decision-making. Opposing viewpoints were well-represented in the literature. For instance, N. E. Shaw in his book on group dynamics asserted that the benefits of shared or participatory decision-making far outweigh their limitations. To him the benefits could be summarized in the following list:

1. The group can sum up individual contributions.
2. The group can reject incorrect solutions and can correct errors.
3. The group can provide a forum for the more able members to practice leadership skills.
4. There is a greater interest in the task to be accomplished since there is a feeling of belongingness.
5. The greatest amount of information is available in the group setting.³²

While some others have found the method of participatory or shared decision-making burdensome and cumbersome, Shaw saw it as an effective and viable approach to solving problems.

Articles

The arguments among the researchers and theorists concerning the value of shared decision-making continued into the literature in scholarly journals. For instance, Brant Burleson conducted an experiment to look into the efficacy of group decision-making. The basic thesis of his study was that groups employing an interacting procedure to

32. N. E. Shaw. Group Dynamics: The Psychology of Small Group Behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1981, 64

solve problems made better decisions than those following a "staticized" method, individuals acting alone, or a Delphi Method, individuals operating separately under the direction of a leader. Using three groups of fifteen participants for each method to solve the NASA "Moon Survival Problem", Burleson found that the interacting group produced more high quality decisions than the other two groups.³³ He also found that social interaction seemed to guarantee better private decision-making skills. Burleson, then, supported the value of shared decision-making much as Shaw did. Yet, Burleson also pointed out that the other two methods did have some value in problem-solving. For instance, the staticized method seemed appropriate for simple, quantitative tasks, and the Delphi method seemed appropriate for the generation of many ideas or brainstorming. However, the interacting group appeared to be the best for the solution of complex problems.

Wendell J. Sparkes also favored shared or participatory decision-making for another reason, that of political consideration. Sparkes's article was not a research study but rather a synthesis of the work done by others, particularly Vroom, Yetton, and Ratsoy. The basic thrust of Sparkes's argument was that shared decision-making could

33. Brant R. Burleson. "Decision-making Procedure and Decision Quality." Human Communication Research. 10 (Summer 1984) 569

serve the principal or leader well politically by acting as a buffer between bureaucracy and professionalism. Shared decision-making could reduce the fundamental conflict between the bureaucratic task orientation of the school as institution and its professional social setting. In other words, Sparkes asserted that teachers should be drawn into the decision-making process so that teacher satisfaction and identification with the organization could be enhanced, so that organizational goals calling for greater staff participation could be met, and so that conflict between bureaucracy and professionalism could be minimized.³⁴ Thus, in a sense, shared decision-making neutralizes the political conflicts that are part of any organization by allowing the professionals, the teachers, to be part of or to identify with the direction that the organization takes. Sparkes's argument pointed to the significance of the political climate of decision-making as a factor to reckon with in the analysis of the NASSP skills in practice.

While Sparkes, Burlison, and Shaw have asserted the value of shared decision-making, David A. Sousa sought to determine if such an approach to problem-solving were actually being practiced in the field. Sampling some fifty-five principals in the state of New Jersey, Sousa found that

34. Wendell J. Sparkes. "The Role of the Principal in Decision-making." Education Canada. 21 (Winter 1981)

sixty-five percent of the sample did not share any decision-making powers.³⁵ Furthermore, in follow-up interviews with a number of the principals in the study, Sousa discovered two major reasons for this finding: collective bargaining constraints and legal ramifications served to militate against shared decision-making. It is interesting to note that the findings of the Sousa study reflected a difference in actual practice from the findings of the Burleson study. Burleson found shared decision-making to be the best approach to solving problems. However, he was operating in an experimental setting. Sousa examined on the job practice and found that most administrators did not follow that method in spite of its theoretical benefit.

There were other "experts" who agreed with many of Sousa's sample members in terms of the benefits of shared decision-making. For instance, legal implications can have a chilling effect on efforts to share decision-making. Paul Westmeyer pointed out that ultimate responsibility for decisions in a school lay with the principal.³⁶ Since the principal and not the teachers was and is held responsible for most decisions, Westmeyer concluded that shared decision-making might not always be the best method to follow in

35. David A. Sousa. "What Ever Happened to Shared Decision-making?" NASSP Bulletin. 66 (October 1982) 56

36. Paul Westmeyer. "A Paradigm for Administrative Decision-making." Contemporary Education. 53 (Fall, 1981) 19-21

this day and age where lawsuits are plentiful. Yet, many have espoused it as the best approach to solving group problems.

Regardless of what method or approach is taken towards the solving of problems, Trish Delamere asserted that the entire process should be monitored along every step or level of that process.³⁷ In other words, Delamere made the point that a "needs assessment" must take place at all levels of the problem-solving process, whatever that process may be. Delamere herself favored a rational or highly ordered process for solving problems, the Kaufman Organizational Elements Model. This model was very much like that of Newman and Sumner: diagnosis, discovery of alternates, analyzing alternates, and selecting a plan to follow.³⁸ A key idea for Delamere lay in monitoring the process so that gaps between what is and what should be could be recognized and dealt with at each step of said process. Thus, evaluation should take place at each step in the process so that necessary revisions in implementation could be made to keep the system on track. Then, monitoring becomes a significant element of the problem-solving process, and needs assessment

37. Trish Delamere. "Needs Assessment and the Problem-Solving Process." Journal of Educational Technology Systems. 12 (1983-84) 345

38. W. H. Newman and C. E. Sumner Jr. The Process of Management. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1961, 261-262

is viewed as an ongoing rather than preliminary process.

Delamere's emphasis on systems and monitoring the smooth operations of those systems to solve problems again reinforced the desire of the writers to call for the most rational approach toward problem analysis and judgement that can be achieved. Delamere sought to follow the Kaufman (Newman and Sumner) Model with her approach. In point of fact, the Kaufman Model with its concerns for inputs, processes, products, and outcomes was very systems oriented. Griffiths' classic model of administration as decision-making was very much similar to that of Delamere and Kaufman but less systems oriented. In other words, Griffiths described a rational but realistic model of decision-making. Griffiths asserted that there were six essential steps in the decision-making process, the process that he considered the heart of administration or leadership. The six steps in the process are listed below:

1. Recognize, define, and limit the problem.
2. Analyze and evaluate the problem.
3. Establish the criteria or standards for evaluation.
4. Collect data.
5. Formulate and test the preferred solution.
6. Put the preferred solution into effect.³⁹

One should note that Griffiths' emphasis on limiting the problem, developing criteria for evaluation, collecting data, and testing are all scientific or rational attempts to

39. Daniel E. Griffiths. "Administration as Decision-making." Administrative Theory in Education. New York: MacMillan, 1958, 132

make the decision-making process as objective as possible. They reflected the concerns of men such as Simon and the rational approaches of Dewey, Newman and Sumner, and Stufflebeam. Griffiths' approach certainly reinforced the importance and validity of the NASSP skills of problem analysis and judgement. Such skills are implicit in the six steps listed above. While Griffiths' paradigm or model was scientific, one should note that Griffiths also felt that there were and are limits to the rationality of the model. Not all leaders can afford the time needed to collect data and test it. Therefore, Griffiths pointed to such factors as differing perceptions, time constraints, conditions of employment, the relevance of information available, lines of formal authority, and purposes of the organization as limits to rational decision-making. Griffiths, then, has also attempted to strike a balance between "objectivity" and "reality."

It is interesting to note that some advocates of the systems approach to problem-solving seek to achieve objectivity with a mathematical vengeance. They have a tendency to forget the fact that "...only man can be held accountable for the decision"⁴⁰. and not a machine or a mathematical formula. Thus, William G. Monahan agreed with Griffiths

40. William G. Monahan. "Some Limitations and Cautions in the Use of Quantitative Techniques in Decision-making." Theoretical Dimensions of Educational Administration. New York: MacMillan, 1975, 417

that there were and are some limits to rational decision-making. Furthermore, Monahan also asserted that there were also some limits to the very techniques used to overcome limits to rationality. Thus, Monahan cautioned those who would wed themselves to quantitative techniques for solving problems and making decisions. He pointed out that the quantitative techniques could leave something to be desired for a number of reasons: predictability of consequences is seldom definite in education; quantitative methods may provide for efficiency but not necessarily for effectiveness; time limits, value judgement, purposes, and scope of the problem may preclude the use of quantitative methods. Thus, Monahan reinforced some of the cautions advanced by Sergio-vanni, Griffiths, and others. Rational approaches to decision-making appear to be the appropriate goal of the leader who would practice the skills of problem analysis and judgement. Yet, rational approaches have their limitations precisely because education is such a complex environment and because the educational organization can become a potential source of conflict between and within groups, conflict that may possibly be limited by shared decision-making.

Many of the limits to rational decision-making addressed to this point were limits within the decision-making environment. There are also forces at work in the leader himself that may or may not enhance problem-solving skill. Just as leadership style can affect general leadership

skills, so too decision-making styles can affect the specific skills of problem-solving. That was the focus of the work done by Hellriegel and Slocum and Henderson and Nutt. Hellriegel and Slocum's work was theoretical. Henderson and Nutt applied that theoretical work to research environments. Hellriegel and Slocum examined the relationship between cognitive styles of personality types and approaches taken toward solving problems. They used the Jungian personality types in their work. They concluded from an analysis of patterns of behaviors among business executives that different personality types with different cognitive styles did fit more comfortably into different problem-solving contexts. For instance, the sensation-feeling type worked best in a well-defined hierarchical organization that dealt with "people" problems. The intuitive-feeling type was concerned with more long-term goals and was more adaptive. The sensation-thinking type preferred exact hierarchical organization and was more comfortable dealing with limited, short-term goals. Finally, the intuitive-thinking type preferred a more cerebral organization, the "think tank" organization.⁴¹ The central point that Hellriegel and Slocum appeared to make was that a cognitive style applied to different contexts could affect or disaffect one's decision-

41. Donald Hellriegel and John W. Slocum. "Managerial Problem-solving Styles." Business Horizons. 18 (December 1975) 33-37

making ability.

As mentioned above, Hellriegel and Slocum were more theoretical in their analysis of behavior patterns. They applied Jung to observations and developed a theoretical stance. Henderson and Nutt applied Jung to a more rigorous study of decision-making. Henderson and Nutt supported the Hellriegel assertion that decisions seem to be a function of the decision-maker's cognitive make-up, a make-up which differs for different personality types. With this basic theoretical stance, Henderson and Nutt sought to explore the effect of decision-making style on perception of risk and the inclination to adopt major projects. The settings for the study were private businesses and not for profit service organizations, namely, hospitals. After submitting their data to an analysis of variance (ANOVA), Henderson and Nutt made the following conclusions:

1. Decision style was a significant factor in explaining reasons for adoptions of a project and for taking a risk. (p. = .006, .001 respectively)
2. The "sensation-feeling" types were most likely to assume risks and adopt major projects.
3. The sensation-feeling types were more accepting of group approaches to decision-making.
4. The "sensation-thinking" types were the most conservative in approach to problem-solving.⁴²

Henderson and Nutt also pointed out that business executives were much more prone to take risks. In other

42. John C. Henderson and Paul C. Nutt. "The Influence of Decision Style on Decision Making Behavior." Management Science. 26 (April 1980) 381

words, business executives were more decisive than hospital administrators. The authors suggested that this difference existed because hospital personnel treated their environments in a more qualitative and less "cut and dried" manner.

The value in the work done by Hellriegel, Slocum, Henderson, and Nutt lay in the significance of the function of personality in decision-making. It is true that not all would accept the theoretical framework of Jung's personality types and cognitive styles without question. To be sure, some would look to another psychologist to describe personality types. However, that is not the point. The value appears to be more fundamental in the sense that the literature points to the limits of rational decision-making and, further, points to forces within the decision-maker himself as significant factors to contend with in the decision-making process. Thus, just as leadership behavior in general is affected by such elements as forces within the leader and forces within the environment, so too rational decision-making is affected by similar forces. The dissertation studies which follow underline this theme.

Dissertations

The literature on problem analysis and judgement examined thus far has caused two major points or themes to emerge: a very real concern for developing a problem-solving or decision-making style that is rational, objective, and part of a well-defined process, and a belief that participa-

tory or shared decision-making or problem-solving can benefit the organization. The same themes emerged from the dissertation studies presented in the following pages. For instance, Helen Rogers Duracher sought to compare the decision-making processes used by on the job administrators with the Griffiths process outlined in the previous section. Making use of simulation techniques involved with problem-solving or decision-making, she compared her fifty-five member sample's actions with the steps in Griffiths' model. The statistical treatments that she used for the study were Kendall's Tau and Gamma correlation coefficients. The results of the statistical analysis indicated that there was no significant relationship between the administrators' use of a decision-making process and the process outlined by Griffiths ($p = .05$)⁴³. Duracher thus concluded that the principals in her sample did not exhibit expertise in a deductive decision-making process. Thus, this study pointed up the fact that many decisions are based on subjectivity rather than an objective and "rational" model like that of Griffiths. The study also pointed to the gap between theory and practice that the NASSP Assessment Center Program seeks to bridge. If the theoretical models of men such as Griffiths are valid, it would seem logical for administrators

43. Helen Roger Duracher. "Decision-making Processes as Perceived by Educational Administrators." (Ed.D. Dissertation, Vanderbilt University, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/10A, 4229

to follow them. Yet, Duracher found differently.

Margaret Lundquist also explored the relationship between theory and practice in decision-making with results similar to those of Duracher. Lundquist's study was a qualitative analysis of the decision-making behaviors of twenty high school principals and middle management executives. The tool that she employed was an open-ended interview schedule. Like Duracher, she compared sample responses to a theoretically validated model, that of Newman and Sumner. Her findings highlighted the subjectivity that appears to be present in the decision-making behaviors of many leaders. She concluded from her analysis that the process of decision-making in practice was subjective. In diagnosing a problem, subjective judgement was the most frequently mentioned criterion. There was little evidence that alternate solutions were sought. Analysis was generally limited to solutions related to time, financial, and legal considerations. No systematic approach to the selection of a plan to follow was evident. Evaluation was also subjectively based. Finally, there were only minor differences between the two groups, the principals and the middle management executives, in approaching decision-making.⁴⁴ Thus, Lund-

44. Margaret Boyian Lundquist. "An Analysis of the Decision-making Process Among Selected Suburban Chicago High School Principals and Selected Middle Management Executives." (Ed.D. Dissertation, Loyola University, 1982) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/10A, 4231

quist would support Duracher since her sample seemed not to follow a rational approach to decision-making, an approach that the NASSP and theorists such as Griffiths and Newman and Sumner espoused. It was also interesting to note that Lundquist pointed to such factors as finance, time, and legal considerations as limits to rational modes of operating. Other authors such as Sergiovanni and Griffiths also pointed to similar constraints.

Brian Stecher also attempted to investigate the decision-making behaviors of some sixty-five principals, project coordinators, and resource teachers in a large urban school district. Interview summaries were the data sources. Like Duracher and Lundquist, Stecher found that decision-making was a highly subjective activity for his sample members. More specifically, he found that the primary type of information used in decisions was personal opinion. Furthermore, he found that evaluation was mentioned only infrequently as a part of the sample members' decision-making process.⁴⁵ Thus, evidence was rather strong in supporting the claim that subjectivity rather than objectivity figured largely in the problem analysis and judgement behaviors of many of the job administrators.

Just as sources in the literature called for a ration-

45. Brian Mark Stecher. "Patterns of Information Use in School-Level Decision-making." (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of California-Los Angeles, 1982) Dissertation Abstracts International. 43/04A, 1122

al approach to the solution of problems, an approach inherent in the NASSP skills of problem analysis and judgement, so too other sources called for participatory or shared decision-making. Dissertation studies examined this aspect of decision-making with some surprising results. For instance, Karen Angello made a qualitative study of organizational conflict and the decision-making process in a school. This study allowed her Theory of Controlled Disequilibrium to emerge. Her data sources were written records of observations, document analyses, and taped interviews. She found that there were four organizational sources of conflict for her staff under study: personal, interpersonal, intraorganizational, and interorganizational. These conflict areas aroused organizational disequilibrium. This disequilibrium was lessened by effective interorganizational communication. Furthermore, she found that "...the amount and quality of participation and the number of individuals and/or groups involved in problem-solving and decision-making was determined by the number of people affected by the problem or decision and the willingness of the leader to involve them."⁴⁶. Thus, Angello's findings supported a more situational approach to decision-making, an approach that would

46. Karen S. Angello. "A Naturalistic Inquiry into the School Organization: A Study in the Processes of Communication, Goal-setting, Problem-solving, Decision-making, and Conflict Management." (Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Colorado-Boulder, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/01A, 27

make use of human resources to solve problems to the extent that those human resources would be affected or disaffected by the solution. The assertion that a leader's willingness to involve staff in decision-making also highlighted the importance of leadership style, a factor discussed in the previous section. Thus, some such as Shaw would favor a shared decision-making model. Yet, Angello would qualify that approach with contextual factors such as consequences and leadership style.

In another study, Douglas Burke looked into the relationship of teacher morale with satisfaction with teacher participation or perception of participation in a decision-making process, that of selecting a new principal. The study was quantitative in nature and made use of the Fisher test to analyze the data. The sample consisted of 129 school teachers and 101 school officials. The results of the data analysis were interesting in that Burke found that the teachers appeared to feel that they participated more in the decision-making process than they actually did. Furthermore, only the relationship between teacher satisfaction or morale and the congruence of teachers' and school officials' expectations for teacher participation in the decision-making process was found to be significant at the .05 level.^{47.}

47. Douglas Burke. "Teacher Involvement in Decision-making and Teacher Satisfaction." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Rochester, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/08A, 3357

Overall, however, there appeared to be no significant relationship between morale and teacher participation in general, either formally or informally. Thus, the point appeared to be that there was a difference between perception and reality. Also, it appeared that teacher morale was sustained when teacher and administrator expectations were congruent. Finally, it appeared that morale was not raised merely by allowing for greater participation but by clarifying expectations between administrator and staff. Again, the wholesale application of the shared decision-making process was not always supported in practice. This fact merely highlights the importance of context analysis in exploration of skill engagement.

Following in a vein similar to both Angello and Burke, Jeffrey Dunstan made a qualitative study of the decision-making process and teacher participation in it. He made use of participant observation, document analyses, and interviews to examine the decision-making process in a number of schools. He drew several conclusions from the data analysis. He found the principal to be the central figure in the decision-making process. He also found that the amount of support provided by the principal in shared decision-making was crucial to the success of the process. Furthermore, in line with the Angello findings, he concluded that effective and clear communication was the key to laying ground rules for decision-making. Also like Angello, he concluded that

the amount of staff participation was contingent upon the problem under consideration. Finally, he found that the staff was comfortable with a principal's authoritative approach as long as that approach was made clear from the start.⁴⁸ In other words, staff members were more comfortable with clear communication and well-defined ground rules than they were concerned with sharing in the decision-making process. Thus, Dunstan would support a situational approach to decision-making also. His findings, then, supported the fact that leadership style change with different circumstances. Dunstan's findings also supported the Blumberg assertion that clear communication was key to effective leadership. Of course, communication is also one of the validated NASSP skills. Thus, Dunstan's work further validated the NASSP Assessment Center Program while it also appeared to support the research done by others such as Angello and Burke.

The situational approach to shared decision-making was also supported by another study done by Robert Greenleaf. His study was conducted to determine the relationship between teachers' perceptions of change situations and their desire for involvement in the decision-making process.

48. Jeffrey Francis Dunstan. "An Ethnographic Study of the Decision-making Processes and Leadership Behavior at the School Wide Level in Selected Secondary Schools." (Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1981) Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/04A, 1396

Greenleaf sampled 226 teachers from Maine and made use of two validated survey instruments in this correlation study. A Change Disruptivity instrument measured disruptivity of change and a Decision-making instrument measured level of teacher participation in the process. All of his conclusions were supported statistically at the .0001 level. The findings are summarized as follows:

1. Teachers did not view their role in decision-making the same in all situations.
2. Teachers did not view all change situations similarly.
3. There was a relationship between teacher perceptions of change and their desired involvement in the decision-making process.
4. Teachers desired more involvement in decision-making as changes become more disruptive to them.⁴⁹

Greenleaf's findings thus highlighted the human relations element of decision-making without calling for a wholesale adherence to a shared decision-making model. Contextual factors such as communication skill, expectations, and degree of change or disruptivity affected teachers, the human resources in education, more than shared decision-making per se. Perhaps, it is the context of administrative leadership that can influence the direction of an organization more than adherence to a rational or participatory model of problem-solving. That, certainly, was an under-

49. Robert Kenneth Greenleaf. "The Relationship Between Perceived Disruptivity of Change and Perceptions Toward Involvement in the Decision-making Process." (Ed.D. Dissertation, Vanderbilt University, 1982) Dissertation Abstracts International. 43/06A, 1767

lying point evident in the findings of Greenleaf as well as those of Angello and Dunstan. Thus, factor analysis is so very important to the study of leadership.

In spite of the findings presented above, there are still those who would foster a shared decision-making style. For instance, Argyris' "employee-centered" leadership supported shared decision-making as did the results of the Burleson study reported on previous pages. Another author, Paul Weber, also supported the shared decision-making model. His study was very much similar to that of Burleson. It was also a quantitative inquiry into the relationship of leadership style in decision-making or problem-solving and the ability of a staff to complete an experimental decision-making simulation. Eighteen schools participated in Weber's study. The simulation was the NASA Decision Game. Like Burleson, Weber found that group performance on the decision task was better than individual performance and better than the performance of the principal operating alone.⁵⁰ These findings were statistically significant at the .001 level. Thus, Weber's data seemed to support Shaw's assertions about the value of group participation as well as Burleson's findings. However, it should be noted that both Weber and Burleson conducted experimental research in the sense that the

50. Paul Weber. "Decision-making as a Function of Principal's Leadership Style and Staff Computability." (Ph.D. Dissertation, Marquette University, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/12A, 4929

samples were operating in simulation situations and not in the everyday world of decision-making. It is perhaps for this very reason that the studies done by Angello, Dunstan, Burke, and others have resulted in different conclusions. Perhaps shared decision-making is an ideal that men such as Argyris, Shaw, Sparkes, and Weber share and encourage. However, the analysis of real on-task situations appears to qualify that ideal in terms of such factors as disruption, clarity of communication, and investment in the decision.

In summary, then, the literature on problem analysis and judgement has pointed to two distinct directions for exploration and analysis. It has pointed to the importance of following a rational approach to solving problems. Again, it must be noted that theorists and researchers alike shared the view that the rational approach is an ideal that is limited in real problem situations. Thus, the concept of "satisficing" came into play because of the influence of such factors as time constraints, poor or inaccurate information sources, values, and subjective opinion. Secondly, the literature has also pointed to the ideal of shared decision-making while also admitting of the fact that not all situations call for such an ideal. In all, then, the literature both reinforced the crucial nature of the decision-making process and pointed to complex contextual factors that could seriously affect or disaffect said process. Likewise, the literature on problem analysis and judgement

was similar to that of leadership in general precisely because it highlighted, in a very real sense, the need to explore the more qualitative aspects of skill engagement in the real world of principals on the job. This has been the purpose of the present study - to look into principals' behaviors in all of their complexity.

Specific Skill - Decisiveness

Articles

A review of the literature on the NASSP skill of decisiveness produced very little information on that skill per se. That is to say, decisiveness was viewed as a component of the process of problem-solving or decision-making. It was considered to be an integral part of the action phase of a leader's decision-making. Indeed, a number of authors previously cited mentioned the importance of decisiveness as part of the leader's repertoire of behavior. For instance, Henderson and Nutt, cited in the section dealing with problem analysis and judgement, pointed out that leaders with the "sensation-feeling" cognitive styles, those who focused on detail and people-oriented problems, were the leaders who were most decisive by nature.⁵¹ Furthermore, those who were more business-oriented in their approach to solving problems were more decisive than those who dealt with ser-

51. John C. Henderson and Paul C. Nutt. Loc.cit., 383

vice situations. Another example of the relationship of decisiveness to other aspects of leadership behavior was illustrated by the McCoy and Shreve study of effective leaders, also cited above. McCoy and Shreve found their effective leaders to be more prone to take risks to accomplish change precisely because such leaders were confident in their own abilities as well as the abilities of their staffs to solve problems.⁵² Such leaders were able to act decisively because of personal self-confidence, a sense of autonomy, and a feeling of control over the problem situation. Thus, the skill of decisiveness was supported as necessary for leadership behavior in spite of the fact that little formal work has been done with it in isolation. It appeared to be a quality or characteristic that was difficult to measure in a statistical sense but not difficult to observe in working through problem situations. It appeared to be related to other characteristics inherent in a leader's personality or style of operation.

The contention that the decisive leader is one who also has certain specific characteristics within his repertoire of leadership behavior was reinforced in a study done by Charles Ford. In this study, Ford interviewed eight top level business executives and their subordinates to deter-

52. Susan B. McCoy and Geralyn Shreve. *Loc.cit.*, 99

mine some patterns or characteristics of decisiveness in the behaviors of executives. What emerged from this qualitative study was a general category of behavior which Ford labelled "crux sensitivity." He defined "crux sensitivity" as an ability to sense the core issue speedily and to act accordingly. Elaborating on that definition, Ford identified several "keys" to decisiveness:

1. A tendency to evaluate a situation in terms of "problem impact";
2. A broad sense of responsibility that was not bound by "precedent constraint";
3. An ability to reduce a problematic situation to the basic and essential parts; a positive thinker attitude;
4. A perspective that viewed matters more in terms of opportunity impact;
5. A propensity for making high risk decisions.^{53.}

Furthermore, Ford found some common personality traits among his decisive leaders:

1. A combination of self-confidence, self-assurance, and impatience;
2. A respect for assertive opposition that is based on substance rather than peripheral issues;
3. An aggressive sense of assertiveness;
4. An attitude of "tough-mindedness."^{54.}

Thus, Ford's conclusions from his study of business executives supported the McCoy and Shreve belief that the decisive leader was one whose approach to problems involved personal security, self-confidence, and the ability to take

53. Charles H. Ford. "The Elite Decision-makers: What Makes Them Tick?" Human Resource Management. 16 (Winter 1977) 16ff

54. Charles H. Ford. Ibid., 19-20

risks. Furthermore, Ford concluded that intuition and subjectivity figured largely in the behaviors of decisive leaders. This fact reinforces the belief that decisiveness is a characteristic or skill that can best be observed in the context of on the job practice and in the context of a qualitative study.

Another study concerning the personality characteristics of leaders also seemed to support Ford's findings. Sampling some 345 subordinates and eighty-nine supervisors in a variety of organizations, Johnson, Luthans, and Hennessey sought to examine the relationship of internal or external locus of control to leadership behavior. Leaders who were characterized by an internal locus of control were those who felt that they determined the directions of events in their job situations. The authors made use of the Rotter Internal External Scale and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire as their instruments. The authors concluded from their analysis of data that the leader with the internal locus of control was more persuasive in his behavior than the leader with an external locus of control. Furthermore and more to the point, they concluded that those with internal loci of control were more decisive in their behaviors.⁵⁵ These findings supported those of Ford and pointed

55. A. Johnson, F. Luthans, and H. W. Hennessey. "The Role of Locus of Control in Leader Influence Behavior." Personnel Psychology. 37 (Spring 1984) 61ff

to the importance of personality characteristics for decisiveness. Internal locus of control would correspond with the traits of self-confidence and personal security that were highlighted in both the Ford and McCoy and Shreve studies.

Kathryn and Donovan Peterson have also attempted to deal with the skill of decisiveness by analyzing available literature and synthesizing it into a list of definite sub-skills. These authors agreed with the NASSP definition that decisiveness is the ability to recognize when a decision is required and to act quickly. They also agreed with Ford that "crux-sensitive" executives have the decisive ability to cut through the peripheral and lock in on the important, the relevant, and the crucial. Also, like Simons, Marsh, Sergiovanni, and others, Peterson and Peterson agreed that subjective judgement and external constraints such as time conflicts, finances, facilities, and human resources militate against a purely rational approach to solving problems. This merely reinforces the assertion that the NASSP Assessment Center has made that the decisive leader is one who acts regardless of the quality of the decisive action. The decisive leader is one who has a bias for action. Yet, Peterson and Peterson attempted to move away from a description of decisive leadership that focuses primarily on personality characteristics per se. In doing so, they provided

the readers of their synthesis with four subskills that apply to the general skill of decisiveness, namely: rapid assimilation of information, the setting of priorities, scheduling resources (very much like the NASSP skill of organizational ability), and communicating with staff.⁵⁶ Furthermore, they provided the practicing administrator with some positive suggestions for undercutting a tendency toward subjectivity in acting decisively. For instance, in setting priorities, they suggested that such factors as potential consequences, timing, number of people affected by a decision, rational versus political priorities, and personal versus organizational priorities must be considered within time constraints as the leader acts decisively.⁵⁷ Thus, Peterson and Peterson not only reflected some of the research work done by others such as Ford, but they also listed and described specific subskills as well as consideration factors to be applied to the analysis of the decisive leader. In doing so, they focused more on skill and less on personality factors such as on autonomy, cognitive styles, self-assurance, etc. underlined in previously mentioned studies.

In summary, the limited amount of literature on the skill of decisiveness pointed to two directions for analy-

56. Donovan and Kathryn Peterson. "Decisiveness - How Important a Quality Is It for School Administrators?" NASSP Bulletin. 66 (February 1982) 2

57. Donovan and Kathryn Peterson. *Ibid.*, 5

sis: personality characteristics and specific subskills. Such personality factors as self-assurance, autonomy, tough-mindedness, can be observed in an interview process. So too can such skills as crux sensitivity, rapid assimilation of information, setting priorities, scheduling resources, and communicating. Furthermore, the concern that authors such as the Petersons showed for such contextual factors as timing, politics, etc. only heightens the assertion that a full examination of leadership behavior must include an analysis of the methods and resources that the leader calls upon as he engages specific leadership skills such as decisiveness. Finally, the very fact that many of the authors saw the skills of problem analysis, judgement, and decisiveness as "all of a piece" merely reinforces the validity of the individual leadership skills defined and described by the NASSP.

Specific Skill - Organizational Ability

Books

Just as various authors have subsumed the specific skill of decisiveness under other categories such as personality characteristics, style, and problem-solving strategies, so too they have alluded to the importance and crucial nature of organizational ability while addressing other skills. Thus, men such as Karl Weick asserted that organizational ability was crucial in a loosely coupled institution such as a school. Thus, Warren Bennis concluded that

contemporary educational leaders must serve as "linking pins" for temporary synergistic or problem-solving groups. So too, Stufflebeam's model for decision-making included the crucial steps of design and action wherein resources were allocated to solve problems. Sergiovanni's step by step process of leadership functioning included the element of control to insure the successful allocation of resources and monitoring of progress toward acceptable goals. Even Peterson and Peterson's decisiveness subskills included such organizational skills as scheduling and setting priorities. These examples, all mentioned in previous citations, merely serve to reinforce both the importance and validity of the NASSP skill of organizational ability as well as the fundamental fact that leadership behavior constitutes a blend of various skills all operating in concert and in a context of human and material resource limitations. Thus, many of the resources discussed above alluded to the crucial nature of organizational ability. Yet, few specified the particular components of that skill.

The NASSP definition, however, is more specific and has provided some direction for a document search. The NASSP definition includes such subskills as planning, scheduling, coordinating and controlling, optimal resource utilization, and time management. The literature examined reflected these subskills as well as a general perspective on organizational ability.

Without doubt, organizational ability is central to effective administration. It is one of the key elements of any list of leadership functions. Sears made it one of his components of management as did Gulick and Urwick.⁵⁸ As Knezevich asserted, "It is through organizing that the tasks of an institution are subdivided and then related and arranged to create an operating unity."⁵⁹ To Knezevich, organizational ability was the capacity to allocate resources to accomplish the goals of the institution. Thus, the organized leader was one who was concerned with:

1. How work shall be divided.
2. The nature and number of positions that must be created.
3. What relations shall exist between various positions.
4. The establishment of communication patterns or processes between positions.⁶⁰

Such concerns underline the importance of such NASSP subskills as planning, scheduling, coordinating, and controlling. The allocation of resources requires a planned approach to meeting the organization's goals. So too, those resources must be monitored to determine progress towards those goals.

In Management: Foundations and Practices, Dalton E. McFarland provided some insights into the subskills or pro-

58. Stephen J. Knezevich. Op.cit., 28

59. Stephen J. Knezevich. Ibid., 29

60. Stephen J. Knezevich. Ibid., 34

cesses of planning, coordinating, and controlling. Although this book was written from the perspective of business management, it did provide insights applicable to educational administration. To McFarland, planning was the activity by which managers or administrators analyzed present conditions to determine a way in which to reach a desired future state. The purpose of planning was two fold: to determine appropriate goals and to prepare for adaptive and innovative change.

61. Like those who would espouse a rational approach to problem-solving or decision-making, McFarland espoused a rational process approach to planning. He included the following steps in such a process:

1. Evaluation of present conditions.
2. Analysis of the element of time - short term or long range?
3. Forecasting strategies such as the "loaded deck," the "oaks from acorns," or the "test tube" models.
4. Collection and analysis of data for decision-making.
5. Communicating responsibilities to staff so as to fulfill the plans.⁶²

The model or process that McFarland advocated was a rational one and reflected some of the very concerns that Griffiths, Stubblebeam, and others voiced when addressing the process of problem-solving. Also, McFarland's emphasis on communicating responsibilities for carrying out a planned change reflected Knezevich's concern for setting up a net-

61. Dalton E. McFarland. Management: Foundations and Practices. New York: MacMillan, 1979, 122-123

62. Dalton E. McFarland, *Ibid.*, 123ff

work of communication between and among positions on staff.

McFarland also pointed up the fact that the planning process could be hindered by various factors such as Griffiths and the others have pointed up limits to a rational decision-making process. Indeed, a rational planning model is also very much a decision-making model. So too, the limits are very similar. For instance, McFarland listed some six hindrances to the planning process. They are as follows:

1. Lack of reliable and specific information.
2. Failure to allocate authority with responsibility.
3. The costs of planning may be prohibitive.
4. Opposition from members in the organization.
5. The psychological problem of anxiety accompanying change.
6. The need for "thinking time" to develop strategies that work.⁶³

Thus, several factors such as psychological resistance, inadequate information, and costs in terms of time, energy, and money could affect the planning process. However, good planning appears to be key to effective organizational ability. One must know where one is going to be effective. So too, one must be able to communicate direction to staff so that all can work in a unified manner. That is a point which all who addressed the concept of educational leadership behavior asserted.

Not only is planning crucial to success; it is also related in a critical manner to other subskills such as

63. Dalton E. McFarland. Ibid., 133-137

coordinating and controlling since planned activity must be monitored to insure good achievement. McFarland addressed these processes also. He saw coordination as the process of integrating group and individual efforts to develop unity of action in common purpose. In his discussion of coordination, he suggested several ways to achieve coordinated effort such as:

1. Delegating - clear delegation of authority must be made so that all staff know expectations and limits.
2. Checking - all key decisions should be reviewed to consider their impact on the total effort.
3. Communicating - a set of organizational mechanisms must be instituted to monitor the organizational processes.⁶⁴

One should note that his emphasis on organizational communication and mechanisms of coordination were also reflective of Knezevich's communication patterns. So too, coordination and control were very much related subskills - if not equivalent at times. McFarland viewed control at the process of making certain that intended and desired results were achieved.⁶⁵ This was in line with Delamere's assertion that continual needs assessment should serve as an integral part of problem-solving. This was also in line with Sergiovanni's concern for monitoring as part of the leadership functions. Thus, McFarland called for the training of staff and for healthy supervision in the control process to

64. Dalton E. McFarland. Ibid., 193ff

65. Dalton E. McFarland. Ibid., 188

insure that the leader could monitor staff activities without being overbearing and autocratic. In all, coordination and control are organizational abilities that permit the institution to accomplish its planned goals in a consistent and considerate manner. Thus, the leader is an essential link between various groups seeking to accomplish a given task.

Articles

A number of journal articles also provided some insight into the NASSP skill of organizational ability. For instance, H. S. Bhola's work with planning change reinforced basic concepts introduced above by Knezevich and McFarland. Bhola asserted that planned change was a function of several factors working in unison. Such factors are useful in the analysis of leadership behaviors particularly in relation to the human and material resources employed in administration. Bhola pointed to an organizational configuration or set of relationships within the organization as key to an effective change process. So too, the linkage system that a leader has set up in the organization could affect or disaffect outcomes. Environmental factors and available resources could also have their effect.⁶⁶ Bhola asserted that there should be strategic optimization of the four factors of re-

66. H. S. Bhola. "Planning Change in Education and Development: The CLER Model in the Context of a Mega Model." Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning. 58 (Fall 1982) 13

relationships, linkage, environment, and resources so that the success of planned change could be achieved. Thus, Bhola reinforced many of the concepts that others have discussed while he also pointed up the complexity of the skill of organizational ability. The emphasis on configurations of relationships and linkage further highlights the importance of analyzing the context in which the leader attempts to carry out his goals.

Gary Yukl's model of educational leadership also reinforced the key concept of linkage. In point of fact, he called his model the Multiple Linkage Model precisely because he saw the principal as the link who united staff. To him, an important determinant of effective leadership was "... the extent to which the leader is able to organize the activities of subordinates to make the best use of available personnel, equipment, facilities, and resources."⁶⁷. Yukl's model was very practical and realistic. He pointed out that the principal should plan routines to get required paperwork done and reduce pressure on teachers. Also, the principal could contribute to the support of teachers by providing facilities, equipment, and resources that are needed to accomplish the teaching act. Furthermore, Yukl asserted that preoccupation with day to day "firefighting" by itself

67. Gary Yukl. "Managerial Leadership and the Effective Principal." The Effective Principal: A Research Summary. Reston, Virginia: NASSP, 1982, 9

was unlikely to result in lasting improvements in the performance of the total organization.⁶⁸ This last point is significant because it reinforces the importance of effective planning and points up the need for time management skills. It should be noted that time management is also one subskill of organizational ability.

Ronald Partin and Luann Van Loozen addressed themselves to the problem of time management in a very practical sense. Both authors pointed up the importance of good time management techniques for the successful engagement of the skill of organizational ability. Very often, principals and other administrators are caught up in "time-wasting" situations to the detriment of other more significant leadership concerns. While Partin addressed himself to school counselors and Van Loozen addressed school board members, the practical application to administrators appears evident. The work of the two authors was combined at this point in the discussion because there was so much similarity in the suggestions that both made. Several tips from both authors are listed below:

1. Analyze the use of time to discover "time thieves."
2. Set goals and priorities.
3. Plan effectively while making room for possible unexpected intrusions.
4. Schedule more effectively.
5. Do not fall prey to procrastination.
6. Minimize "waiting time."
7. Delegate effectively.

68. Gary Yukl. Ibid., 9

8. Gain control over paperwork.
9. Learn to avoid overcommitment.
10. Minimize interruptions.
11. Avoid duplication.⁶⁹

Of course, such admonitions are often not easy to follow. However, both authors contended that administrators have a tendency to fall prey to the problem of perfectionism. Many administrators feel that only they can accomplish a given task with satisfaction. Thus, they find themselves over-worked and fragmented. It appears that organizational ability requires the skill of knowing what and how to delegate so that goals can be accomplished. This point echoes some of Knezevich's and others' thoughts. An effective leader is not one who can accomplish all tasks himself but one who directs others to utilize resources to assist in goal achievement.

Several of the points made by Partin and Van Loozen were echoed in an article by Larry Stevens. Stevens asserted that the secret to better time management was self-discipline. Like Partin and Van Loozen, Stevens contended that administrators were more often caught up in time wasting activities than in crucial instances of leadership behavior. Stevens thus called upon principals to set priorities and

69. Ronald L. Partin. "Time Management for School Counselors." The School Counselor. 30 (March 1983) 280-284

Luann F. Van Loozen. "Try These Ten Time Savers." The American School Board Journal. 169 (April 1982) 36-37

pace themselves. He also called upon principals to set achievable goals each day. Furthermore, principals should set time aside for self-analysis and high priority work. Of course, this would limit accessibility to staff and others who would demand administrator time for less crucial problems. Also, like Partin and Van Loozen, Stevens asserted that delegation was an important time management technique. He too decried the perfectionism syndrome.⁷⁰ It should be noted that the emphasis that all three authors placed on delegation also reinforced the importance of linkage or coordination and control, subskills of organizational ability which McFarland discussed. Thus, time management skill is part of the larger essential skill of organizational ability. It, like many other subskills, is integrally related to planning, coordinating, scheduling, controlling, and optimal use of resources, for time, too, is a precious resource at the leader's disposal. It is for that reason that Charles E. Kozall suggested that the educational leader must be able to combat the "battered mind syndrome" by "locking in" on what is important, by pacing himself, and by consciously limiting the stresses that accompany poor time management.⁷¹ Thus, time management is also a matter of

70. Larry J. Stevens. "Administrative Techniques: The Principal's Time." NASSP Bulletin. 68 (January 1984) 60-62

71. Charles E. Kozoll. Time Management for Educators. Bloomington, Indiana: PDK Fastback Series, 1982, 12

planning, coordinating, and controlling the leadership situation.

Dissertations

Time Management concerns as well as the issue of planning also appeared in the limited amount of literature available in dissertation research on organizational ability. For instance, Clarence Cryer sought to examine the perceptions of two groups, secondary school administrators and administrative trainers, with respect to the use of time to carry out administrative tasks. Cryer conducted this study on two levels, that of ideal usage of time and that of actual usage of time. His data were based on completed daily work logs and Work Analysis Forms, instruments based on the validated forms of Shartle and Stogdill. His findings were informative. They are summarized as follows:

1. Secondary administrators and trainers of administrators generally agreed on how practitioners should spend their time directing secondary school operations.
2. There was no great disagreement between secondary administrators and trainers on how practitioners actually spent their time in the school setting; where disagreement existed, practitioners tended to see more time spent on planning functions while trainers saw more time spent on maintenance tasks.
3. Trainers of administrators disagreed with practitioners in believing that not enough time was being spent by secondary school principals on planning activities, and that too much time was spent on maintenance functions.⁷².

72. Clarence Leon Cryer. "Time Management in the Secondary Principalship." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Miami, 1979) Dissertation Abstracts International. 40/05A, 2374

Thus, the trainers and the principals did agree on the level of ideal usage of time. However, trainers saw too much time spent on the job with maintenance tasks and not enough time spent on more crucial tasks such as thinking and planning. Of course, the study was based on perceptions, and perceptions may be biased. However, the findings did point up the fact that many administrators found it difficult to "lock in" on what is important (as Kozoll has pointed out). Thus, Cryer's study reinforced the belief that time management skills were necessary so that the educational leader can meet higher priorities in his work. The study also reinforced the importance of planning, one of the key subskills of organizational ability.

In another study, Mildred E. David also sought to examine the usage of time by principals in "open" and "less open" schools. "Open" schools were those in which a human resource model of administration was evident. Such a model focused on leadership skills that encouraged independence, experimentation, and critical thinking. "Less open" schools were those in which a "traditional" model of administration was practiced. The differentiation between the two types of schools was made based on the completion of the Wiener Open Classroom Survey instrument by a random sample. The principals in the schools included in the study were asked to complete an Administrative Time Log for a period of five consecutive days. The log served as the data base for the

study. David's findings are summarized below:

The first hypothesis which stated that principals of more open schools spent significantly more time in educational leadership tasks than principals of less open schools was confirmed at $p = .0005$ with a "t" value of 3.679. The second hypothesis that principals of more open schools spent significantly less time in administrative tasks was confirmed at $p = .0005$ with a "t" value of 3.916. The first subhypothesis that principals of more open schools spent significantly less time in traditional administration was confirmed at $p = .025$ with a "t" value of 3.188. The second subhypothesis which stated that principals of more open schools spent significantly less time in administrative control was not confirmed with a "t" value of 1.587.⁷³.

Thus, David found that the more positive educational environment in terms of educational leadership behavior was one in which the chief administrator devoted more of his time to educational leadership tasks rather than to maintenance tasks. Principals of more open schools, expected to attribute greater importance to educational leadership in many literature sources, actually did appear to allot more time to educational leadership tasks in practice. David's findings, then, reinforced the expectations of Cryer's administrative trainers with regard to the usage of time. They too asserted that time should be spent on leadership tasks rather than administrative maintenance tasks. This fact only reinforces the importance of good time management so that the leader does not become bogged down by mainte-

73. Mildred David. "A Comparison of Time Allocation to Selected Administrative and Leadership Tasks of Principals in Open and Less Open Elementary Schools." (Ed.D. Dissertation, Hofstra University, 1977) Dissertation Abstracts International. 39/02A, 560

nance details.

Time management was also the focus of Roger Pepples' study of secondary school principals. More to the point, the purpose of Pepples' study was to determine the extent to which secondary school principals made use of time management skills espoused by the business community and research literature. A questionnaire was constructed and validated to provide instrumentation for the study. Some 295 principals responded to the questionnaire. Statistical analysis of the results was based on the Cronbach Alpha Reliability Analysis for Scale and the Guttman Scale. The findings were not significant. They indicated that the secondary school responses followed a random pattern. The implication was that there was no clear cut pattern of good time management practice in the sample.⁷⁴ Thus, this study found that principals did not regularly employ the skill of time management, a key subskill of organizational ability, within their schools. Thus, Pepples' findings supported the discrepancy that Cryer found between ideal time usage and actual practice. Again, this is a crucial issue since time is such a precious resource at the leader's disposal. Organizational ability can be hindered greatly by the "batter-

74. Roger Lee Pepples. "The Usage of Time-Management Skills by Secondary School Principals in the Local School District." (Ed.D. Dissertation, University of Cincinnati, 1980) Dissertation Abstracts International. 41/07A, 2868

ed mind syndrome" that Kozoll spoke of above.

In one final dissertation study, Kay Ann McNeight sought to look into another of the organizational ability subskills, that of planning. McNeight's study was concerned with the amount of strategic planning that was done in eighty-nine large urban school districts. Furthermore, she sought to identify possible constraints on the planning process. This second purpose reflected a concern similar to that of limitations on rational decision-making. McNeight made use of a validated questionnaire to collect data. After analyzing the data, she made several conclusions, three of which pertain to this present study. First, she concluded that insufficient funds were available for strategic planning. Secondly, she concluded that external factors, such as governmental and bureaucratic regulations, interfered with or hindered the planning process in the districts. Finally, she concluded that the members sampled felt that they were insufficiently trained to carry out a strategic planning process.⁷⁵ Thus, it appeared that on the job practice with respect to a rational approach to planning suffered from many of the same constraints that rational decision-making did. To be sure, the importance of planning as a subskill of organizational ability was

75. Kay Ann McNeight. "An Analysis of Comprehensive Strategic Planning in Urban Public School Districts." (Ph. D. Dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1980). Dissertation Abstracts International. 42/01A, 42

attested to by the NASSP, Knezevich, McFarland and others. It would seem that such external constraints as bureaucratic regulation and such internal constraints as lack of expertise are significant factors to analyze in on the job practice. Thus, McNeight's study pointed up additional factors which influenced and limited the planning process. Such factors as finances, regulations, and a weak knowledge base could be added to the list of constraints or limits discussed above by McFarland and others.

In summary, then, the literature review of the NASSP skill of organizational ability further highlighted the complexity of the leadership situation. Organizational ability is a key skill to be employed in the leadership process. It requires the ability to plan and schedule the effective use of both human and material resources within such constraints as psychological resistance to change, time and financial considerations, differing priorities, and differing control styles. In all, the literature on organizational ability reflected the same concern for rational approaches voiced in the section dealing with decision-making. Yet, it too admitted that the complexities of the leadership situation have limited rationality. Much subjectivity and personal bias appeared to affect the processes of planning, coordinating, controlling, and managing time - all organizational ability subskills. Again, it is for this very reason that the purpose of the present study has been to explore

the various factors that affect or disaffect the engagement of the leadership skills of problem analysis, judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability. It is for this very reason that the present study has looked into the human and material resources as well as the methods which a principal employs as he engages the four leadership skills that are the central focus of the research.

In final review, this chapter has served both to reinforce by theoretical triangulation the four skills chosen for observation and to provide insights into the complexity of the leadership situation. The literature pointed to rational processes for such skills as problem-solving, planning, etc. It also pointed to significant limitations to those processes. In all, the literature reinforced the basic conviction that leadership behavior must be a blend of thought and action. It must unite thoughtful analysis with a bias for action so that a group may move forward toward the accomplishment of meaningful and reasonable goals.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF DATA

General Review of Method

As was pointed out in the first chapter, the general method or research approach of this study is qualitative. For the sake of clarity, a description of the general procedure and specific methods employed in the study is presented prior to the discussion of the data analysis.

Since the study is qualitative in nature, it focused on an in-depth inquiry into the leadership behaviors of principals in the field. However, this inquiry was guided by the verified theoretical base of the NASSP Assessment Center Program skill definitions as well as by the theoretical perspectives advanced in the literature review. The specific NASSP skills served as the reference points for the analysis of principals' behaviors. The key questions of the study focused on skill engagement and on its context in terms of methods and resources employed in that engagement. Such questions were enunciated in the first chapter and are presented here again for the purpose of clarity. They are as follows:

1. Did the principals in the sample provide evidence that they did engage the skills of problem analysis,

judgement, decisiveness, and organizational ability in their on the job leadership behaviors?

2. If so, what human and material resources did the principals utilize as they engaged these skills?
3. If so, what methods did the principals employ as they engaged these skills?

Therefore, the fundamental questions of this qualitative inquiry were grounded in a theoretically validated base. Furthermore, efforts were also made to move beyond mere documentation of skill engagement to explore the context of such engagement in terms of resources and methods employed. Such analysis pointed up the complexity of the task of educational leadership.

As in the case of most qualitative studies, the sample chosen for analysis was purposive. That is to say, the twelve sample members were chosen for a number of reasons. For instance, all were secondary school principals in the Archdiocese of Chicago. They were Catholic high school principals. As was mentioned in Chapter I, the writer desired to focus on Catholic school principals primarily because of his familiarity and experience with this type of system. Moreover, all principals chosen for the sample reflected complex job assignments. This was evidenced by two factors: school enrollment of more than 750 students and the presence of at least one freed assistant to share the burden of administration. Also, in an effort to limit the possi-

bility of any "honeymoon effect," only principals with two or more years of experience were chosen for the sample. "Novices" to the job were excluded from the sample. Furthermore, every effort was made to include principals in the sample who reflected the diversity of school settings within the Archdiocese both in terms of the gender populations of the schools and in terms of urban and suburban settings. These criteria for selection were all within the framework of a sample size of twelve. In a study such as this, that sample size was considered to be reasonable, feasible, and representative. The purposeful effort to be representative also served to increase the potential generalizability of the findings. This purposeful selection is reflected in the summary table provided on the next page.

A brief examination of the table will indicate that all principals availed themselves of at least one freed assistant. In fact, one principal was aided by five assistants. In terms of years of experience as principal, the tenure of sample members chosen ranged from two to nineteen years of service. It should also be noted that some seven urban and five suburban schools were selected for study. Five of the schools under study were exclusively female. Four of the schools under study were exclusively male. Three of the schools had coed populations. Finally, all schools met the enrollment requirement of 750+. Thus, every effort was made to choose experienced educational adminis-

Table II
Sample Characteristics

Site	Enrollment	Yrs. of Experience	Number Assistants	Population Sex	Urban/ Suburban
#1.	870	5	2	F	Urban
#2.	1660	5	2	M	Suburban
#3.	1350	3	2	M	Urban
#4.	2043	7	5	F	Suburban
#5.	1370	19	2	F	Suburban
#6.	1480	10	1½	M	Suburban
#7.	910	2	1	M	Urban
#8.	751	6	1	Coed	Urban
#9.	1056	12	2	F	Urban
#10.	1275	3	2	F	Urban
#11.	1240	2	2	Coed	Urban
#12.	1472	4	1½	Coed	Suburban

trators with complex job assignments in diverse school settings within the Archdiocese.

A number of specific methods or approaches were utilized to insure validity and reliability and, therefore, increase the objectivity of the study. In terms of validity, the research questions employed in the semi-structured interview schedule (reproduced in Appendix A) were based upon the NASSP skills selected for analysis. It must be remembered that the NASSP skills were previously validated in a multi-year research study conducted by a team from Michigan State University. The literature review for this investigation further helped to focus the questions and the codes generated to analyze the raw data, i.e., the interview responses. The codes and matrices that were utilized to analyze the data were directly related both to the NASSP skill definitions under study and the theoretical perspectives obtained from the literature.

In terms of reliability, the instrument of the study, the semi-structured interview schedule along with a general description of the purposes of the study, the skill definitions, and a short literature review were submitted to a board of review for analysis and possible revision. This board of review consisted of three members: a professor of educational administration, a superintendent from the Catholic School Office, and a principal of a Catholic high school not included in the sample. This board of review, then,

lent their expertise to a critique of the interview questions. Possible revisions to the questions were discussed with the members of the board and incorporated into the final form of the schedule. Then, two field tests of the interview process were conducted prior to the actual visits to the sample members. Only minor revisions resulted from these field tests. Finally, the reliability of code assignment to the raw data was insured by a method of double analysis and assignment suggested by the qualitative researchers Matthew Miles and A. Michael Huberman. This method is described in greater detail directly below. Therefore, efforts were made to insure objectivity by strengthening both validity and reliability in the study.

In terms of the actual data analysis, a number of methodical steps were followed. Such steps reflected the three-pronged approach suggested by Miles and Huberman: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification.¹ As was mentioned in Chapter I, the raw data took the form of transcriptions of tape recorded interviews. Such transcriptions numbered some 252 single-spaced pages for analysis. Data reduction was accomplished in three ways. Because the fieldnote responses followed the structure of the interview schedule, different skills were separated for analysis by series of questions. Furthermore, the

1. Matthew B. Miles and A. Michael Huberman. Op. cit., 21-23

notes were transcribed in such a manner as to permit the placement of both codes and summarizing comments or memos along the sides of the raw data, the interview responses. Both data reduction techniques were again suggested by Miles and Huberman.² In terms of data display, two approaches were taken. In the first place, the data from the transcriptions were organized into large outlines set up in such a way as to answer the three fundamental questions of the study: Were selected skills operational? What resources were employed? What methods were employed? These organizing charts were set up for each site studied. Secondly, the data that were placed on these charts were later transcribed to matrices so that cross-site analyses could be made. Again, Miles and Huberman suggested such use of matrices to aid in data display and conclusion drawing.³ In such a manner, large amounts of data can be analyzed and synthesized into patterns. The matrices that were developed from the analysis are placed in the text of the dissertation at the appropriate points in the discussion of the data. Finally, verification was accomplished by careful re-analysis of the data as they were coded and placed into matrices. In point of fact, the effort to verify and increase relia-

2. Matthew B. Miles and A. Michael Huberman. Op. cit., 54-68

3. Matthew B. Miles and A. Michael Huberman. Ibid., 158-167, 211-214

bility was aided by the double coding method suggested by Miles and Huberman.⁴ In this method, a simple reliability coefficient was calculated by following the formula depicted below:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Number of agreements}}{\text{Total number of agreements plus disagreements}}$$

The coefficients determined from this method ranged from .89 to .97, most adequate reliability coefficients. Finally, it should be noted that every effort was made both in the interviews and in the data analysis to focus on actual behaviors rather than opinions of the sample membership. Therefore, concrete behaviors or behavior patterns appeared on the summary matrices used for the data analysis.

The structure of the written analysis of the individual skills follows a general format for each skill or for skills placed together because of their logical relationship to each other. Before each skill is analyzed, the questions from the interview schedule that pertain to the skill are placed into the text for easy reference. Parenthetically, it should be noted that the effort to answer the three fundamental questions of the study did not always lend itself to simple and precise separations. For instance, one can hardly speak about leadership or the ability to move a group

4. Matthew B. Miles and A. Michael Huberman. Ibid.,

toward the accomplishment of a goal without also addressing the question of method and possible human and material resources employed. Hence, all three questions were explored in the data analysis of each skill or related set of skills.

Leadership and Organizational Ability - Preliminary Remarks

Interview Questions

1. As principal, what are three major goals that you have or have had for your school?
2. Using one of those goals, could you describe a planning strategy or strategies that you have used to achieve that goal?
3. Using one of those goals, could you describe some organizing strategies that you have used to achieve that goal, e.g., coordinating, controlling, and evaluating steps toward achieving that goal?
4. What human and material factors either positively or negatively affected the strategies that you used to achieve that goal?
5. As principal, what have been some time management problems that you have encountered?
6. Could you illustrate some concrete examples of strategies that you employed to solve some time management problems?

It should be pointed out that the skills of leadership in general and organizational ability in particular were analyzed together because of their logical relationship to each other. In other words, the NASSP definition of leadership skill called upon principals to move a group toward the achievement of a goal. How a principal moves a group is directly related to his or her ability to organize the work of group members towards goal achievement. Therefore, the

NASSP skill of organizational ability with its concern for planning, coordinating, monitoring or controlling, and evaluating the work of others is integral to leadership behavior. It is for this reason that questions #2 and #3 were asked of the sample membership. The NASSP skill of organizational ability also included a time management factor. Hence, the sample members were also asked questions #5 and #6.

Leadership Goals - Analysis

Since leadership behavior should focus on goal achievement, question #1 was considered to be essential and illuminating. This was particularly the case since goal orientation can be related to leadership styles and methods of dealing with a group. For instance, Blumberg and Greenfield, discussed in the literature review, found their effective principals to have an educational goal orientation, a sense of vision.⁵ Along a similar line of thought, both Clarence Cryer and Mildred E. David made the distinction between a managerial versus educational goal-orientation in their dissertation studies of administrative time management.⁶ In doing so, they pointed out that the administrators who had a more managerial orientation operated in

5. Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield. Op.cit., 257

6. Clarence Leon Cryer. Op.cit., 2374 and Mildred E. David. Op.cit., 560

a more managerial manner and displayed less educational vision. The differentiation in coding the goal responses between managerial and educational was based upon the difference between those goals that any manager could have in a variety of fields and those goals that are unique to the purposes of education. A summary table of the responses to question #1 is depicted on the next page.

A perusal of Table III would indicate that the sample members primarily displayed an educational goal orientation. It should be noted that the inclusion of goals unique to Catholic education reinforced the sense of vision that Blumberg and Greenfield noted in their study of principals in public schools. That is to say, the sense of vision that Blumberg and Greenfield recognized among their principals under study also appeared with the present sample members in terms of their secular educational goals as well as in terms of their more sectarian educational goals. Catholic school educators see such goals as the development of a Christian community or the development of a Catholic identity as part of their total educational mission. It is for this reason that such goals were categorized as educational in the data reduction process. Thus, such goals as improving curriculum, academic excellence, and staff development, were combined with encouraging Christian community and creating social justice programs for students under the category of "educational." Of course, some may take issue with any

Table III
Goals of Sample Members

Site	Goals	Type
#1.	* Academic excellence Develop a Christian community Improve student discipline	Educational Educational Educational
#2.	Good rapport with staff and students * Curriculum evaluation and improvement	Managerial Educational
#3.	* Academic excellence Develop Christian identity Develop alumni support Public relations, recruitment, image development Staff development	Educational Educational Managerial Managerial Educational
#4.	Monitor the budget process Influence and educate the board of trustees * Program of communication with faculty- staff council	Managerial Managerial Managerial
#5.	Develop a Christian community Develop social justice programs for students * Staff development	Educational Educational Educational
#6.	* Recruit minority students to fulfill religious community's educational mission Develop a Christian identity	Educational Educational
#7.	* Academic excellence Improve physical plant and facilities Insure the financial well-being of the school	Educational Managerial Managerial

NOTE - The "*" indicates the goal chosen for further discussion by the principal.

Table III - Continued

Site	Goals	Type
#8.	Improve enrollment * Staff development Improve campus ministry program	Managerial Educational Educational
#9.	Be a good administrative team leader Staff development * Curriculum improvement	Managerial Educational Educational
#10.	Academic excellence * Staff development Develop Christian community	Educational Educational Educational
#11.	* Improve morale Highlight Christian dimension of the school Total curricular re-evaluation	Managerial Educational Educational
#12.	Strengthen the academic program Develop Catholic identity * Development of a community spirit among faculty	Educational Educational Managerial

NOTE - The "*" indicates the goal chosen for further discussion by the principal.

categorization process or coding system. For instance, some would argue that improving morale would be an educational goal since it could affect school climate and student achievement. However, it is also reasonable to suggest that improving morale could be a goal of managers in many diverse settings. Hence, the managerial categorization was developed and utilized.

Accepting the categorizations that have been made and understanding their rationale, one can see that the principals under study did have a significantly greater number of educational goals. Out of some thirty-six goals listed, twenty-four or two-thirds were educational. Furthermore, nine out of the twelve goals chosen for further discussion were educational in nature. Thus, in terms of goals, it would seem that the principals under study did exhibit a sense of vision much as Blumberg and Greenfield's principals did.

Of course, skill verification would require that principals not only set goals but also that they accomplish them. That point was made both implicitly and explicitly in the literature review and in the definition of leadership skill provided by the NASSP. Therefore, the data analysis also included an examination of the success of the principals under study in achieving their goals. Overall, the principals in the sample did accomplish their goals or did make concrete steps toward accomplishing them. The very

fact that many of the goals were long term in nature required that final qualifying clause. For instance, the principal who sought to develop a structured supervision schedule did put that schedule into place. So, in effect, she did accomplish her goal on one level. However, on the higher level of improving academic excellence by improving teacher quality, she admitted that the very nature of her goal was long term and on-going.

The principals who sought to achieve academic excellence in their schools by revising curricula all did accomplish the task of evaluating and revising courses of study. However, one would have to be rather naive to think that such action alone would insure academic excellence. Such a goal would require multiple efforts above and beyond the modification of the curriculum. The principals admitted that point. Yet, they did make concrete steps by passing through the curricular revision process, a part of a larger, on-going process.

Another principal who desired to recruit minority students into his school did succeed in a small but significant way. He pointed out that his program was able to attract some twelve black students to his school. This success in recruitment was no mean feat considering the cultural blocks that he had to face and surmount in his school community. In other instances, the principals who sought to improve building morale took concrete steps in that direc-

tion. In one instance in particular, one principal boasted that evidence from evaluative tools pointed out that conditions were improving in the school.

Other principals concerned with staff development felt that they had made significant strides with their faculties. For instance, one principal who employed quality circles with her academic departments found that the departments were accomplishing their assigned tasks. As a side effect, such departmental accomplishments freed the principal and her assistants to pursue their clinical supervision responsibilities. Another principal found his modified faculty meeting structure to be effective in engendering professional discussions among his faculty. Thus, overall, the principals under study not only set goals but also made concrete steps towards goal accomplishment.

Leadership Goals - Summary Comments

Three major summary comments or conclusions were inferred from the first steps of the data analysis. They are listed below.

1. The principals did demonstrate an overall mastery of the general NASSP skill of leadership.
2. More specifically, all of the principals under study indicated that they did have specific goals. Moreover, those goals were primarily educational in nature. This fact demonstrated that the principals did display a sense of educational vision.

3. The principals under study did accomplish their goals or did make concrete steps toward accomplishing their goals. Because of the long term nature of most of the principals' goals, it was not possible to determine if all goals were completely accomplished.

Leadership Methods - Analysis

The ability to develop and enunciate goals and expectations is an important one for any administrator. It is for that reason that goal-setting was clearly part of the NASSP definition of leadership skill. Yet, the accomplishment of goals with the assistance of one's followers is what makes a leader effective. In order to accomplish goals, principals often have to employ a variety of styles, methods, or strategies. It is for that reason that the NASSP definition of leadership skill pointed out that a leader must be flexible in terms of style or approach depending on the direction his group is taking. At times, he or she must be more or less directive with the followers. This flexibility was reflected in the Hersey and Blanchard model of leadership discussed in the literature review.⁷ In that model, the leader moves from a directive to a non-directive stance depending on the maturity level of his or

7. P. Gates, K. Blanchard, and P. Hersey. Loc.cit., 349

her followers in a given situation. Such an emphasis on the maturity level of the followers was also addressed by the Argyris Model II of leadership.⁸ According to Argyris, the leader's general style or approach should invite participation in goal accomplishment as the maturity of the group increases. Argyris also pointed out that a more directive style may be required at some times because some followers operate on a more traditional, bureaucratic level. In any event, both the NASSP and sources in the literature have emphasized the importance of a flexible style of leadership. Therefore, the second phase of the data analysis of leadership skill focused on a general style or approach as well as on specific strategies or methods employed by the principals to achieve their goals.

It should be noted that the general styles or approaches that emerged from the data fell into a number of different categories or code classifications. Such classifications with their operational definitions are as follows:

1. Directive: wherein direct, personal intervention took place.
2. Nondirective: wherein informal and often non-structured intervention took place.
3. Consultative: wherein staff were asked to provide recommendations while final decision-making was

8. Chris Argyris. Op.cit., 232-237

done by the principal alone or with an administrative team.

4. Collaborative: wherein the principal and staff and/or administrative team worked together in a collegial manner to accomplish a goal.

These style categorizations, then, inferred as they were from the specific strategies or methods that the principals employed, pointed to an important component of the NASSP skill of leadership, the aspect of style. They also helped to answer the dissertation research question concerning methods employed in skill engagement, for methods or strategies reflect a general style or approach towards leadership. A summary of the specific methods and general styles or strategies employed by the subjects is depicted in the cross-site matrix in Table IV.

As one can see from the matrix, analysis led to the conclusion that many principals did employ more than one approach towards accomplishing their goals. Their behaviors, then, were in line with the NASSP definition insofar as that definition called upon principals to employ different or flexible approaches with their followers. Table IV illustrates many instances in which different methods were employed. For instance, a principal who chose academic excellence as her goal translated that goal into practice in terms of supervision and staff development strategies. In doing so, she contended that focusing on teacher improvement

Table IV
Leadership Methods and Styles

Site #/Goal	Methods	General Style
#1. Academic Excellence	<p>Formal observations of teacher classrooms.</p> <p>Personal follow-up conferences with teachers.</p> <p>Informal observations of classrooms on rounds.</p> <p>Informal "pats on the back," recognition of teacher achievements in classroom.</p> <p>In-service day devoted to teacher personality types.</p>	Directive/ Nondirective
#2. Curriculum Revision	<p>Principal and assistant set goal of curriculum revision for curriculum committee.</p> <p>Committee meets with assistant and makes revision recommendations.</p> <p>Assistant relays recommendations to principal.</p> <p>Principal approves and/or modifies recommendations.</p>	Consultative
#3. Curriculum Revision	<p>Principal and assistants set goal of curriculum revision for curriculum committee.</p> <p>Committee meets with assistant and makes revision recommendations.</p> <p>Principal and full administrative team discuss recommendations.</p> <p>Principal approves and/or Modifies recommendations.</p>	Consultative

Table IV - Continued

Site #/Goal	Methods	General Style
#4. Improve Staff Morale	<p>Principal establishes a faculty-staff council.</p> <p>Council chooses a faculty representative to meet with principal monthly.</p> <p>Monthly meetings follow a pre-set agenda dealing with faculty concerns.</p> <p>Faculty concerns are relayed to administrative team for discussion.</p> <p>Administrative team discusses recommendations.</p> <p>Principal relays decisions to faculty representative.</p> <p>Faculty representative relays decisions to faculty-staff council.</p>	Consultative/ Collaborative
#5. Staff Development	<p>Principal and administrative team meet regularly to set goals.</p> <p>Principal and team share burden of clinical supervision by dividing up faculty for supervision.</p> <p>Academic departments share departmental tasks along the lines of "quality circle" model.</p> <p>Principal conducts "stand-up" meetings to recognize faculty achievements.</p> <p>Minimal financial rewards offered to faculty for staff development projects.</p> <p>Newsletter recognition of faculty successes.</p> <p>Informal gatherings of faculty conducted by principal and team.</p>	Collaborative/ Nondirective

Table IV - Continued

Site #/Goal	Methods	General Style
#6. Recruiting Minorities	<p>Principal develops a recruitment plan with the cooperation of religious community, fellow staff, Catholic Office of Education personnel.</p> <p>Principal sells recruitment plan to principals of "feeder" schools.</p> <p>Principal implements plan with cooperation of "feeder" principals.</p>	Collaborative
#7. Academic Excellence	<p>Principal sets up ad hoc curriculum revision committee.</p> <p>Committee meets and makes revision recommendations.</p> <p>Recommendations relayed to department heads.</p> <p>Recommendations relayed to administrative team.</p> <p>Principal and team discuss revisions.</p> <p>Principal and team relay decisions to department heads and ad hoc committee.</p>	Consultative
#8. Staff	<p>Principal provides minimal financial reimbursement for individual faculty in-services.</p> <p>Principal modifies structure of faculty meetings to include discussions of professional readings.</p> <p>Principal and faculty team plan and implement school-wide in-service programs. Team chooses topics and speakers.</p>	Directive/ Collaborative

Table IV - Continued

Site #/Goal	Methods	General Style
#9. Curriculum Improvement	<p data-bbox="387 340 888 494">Ad hoc curriculum revision committee set up by principal. Committee includes assistant, faculty, and student representatives.</p> <p data-bbox="387 517 905 606">Committee surveys faculty and student body concerning curricular changes.</p> <p data-bbox="387 629 841 749">From survey, committee makes recommendations for course additions or deletions to administrative team.</p> <p data-bbox="387 772 938 830">Team discusses recommendations and decides collaboratively on them.</p> <p data-bbox="387 853 888 909">Team relays decisions to ad hoc committee and department heads.</p>	Consultative/ Collaborative
#10. Staff Development	<p data-bbox="387 981 870 1101">Principal makes use of departmental structures to process issues. Small group work preferred.</p> <p data-bbox="387 1124 838 1217">Principal arranges for guest speakers for in-service programs.</p> <p data-bbox="387 1240 841 1329">Principal and administration conduct surveys of faculty to air concerns.</p> <p data-bbox="387 1352 841 1410">Principal and administration discuss survey results.</p> <p data-bbox="387 1433 838 1584">Principal relays results of discussion to faculty via general faculty meetings. Some recommended changes are implemented.</p>	Directive/ Consultative

Table IV - Continued

Site #/Goal	Methods	General Style
#11. Improve Staff Morale	<p>Principal interviews select faculty representatives regarding morale problem.</p> <p>Principal interviews department heads regarding morale problem.</p> <p>Principal and administrative team discuss possible solutions to morale problem.</p> <p>Principal initiates monthly faculty meetings to air grievances.</p> <p>Principal makes personal visits to every teacher's classroom and conducts follow-up conferences.</p> <p>Principal publicizes minutes of all committee and administration meetings.</p> <p>Principal conducts informal faculty "get-togethers."</p> <p>Principal provides personal "birthday recognitions."</p>	<p>Consultative/ Nondirective Directive Collaborative</p>
#12. Develop Community spirit Among Faculty	<p>Principal makes use of "informal kindnesses" with individual teachers such as personal congratulations and/or condolences.</p> <p>Principal organizes informal special events such as family picnics for faculty.</p> <p>Principal inquires into possible relational problems with individual teachers. Informal investigation is employed with key and trusted faculty members.</p>	<p>Nondirective/ Consultative</p>

in the classroom would lead to student achievement. She made use of direct intervention as a style or approach as she formally visited classrooms and held personal conferences with her teachers. Yet, she also employed nondirective strategies such as publically and privately praising teachers for their successes in the classroom, successes that she noted in her formal visits as well as in her informal trips around the school during the day. Returning to a more directive approach, she pointed out, rather forcefully, that she was also quite capable of direct confrontation with the teacher who was not accomplishing academic goals in the classroom.

Another principal whose goal was staff development made use of both directive and collaborative approaches. For instance, he very directly and personally decided to modify the existing structure of faculty meetings to include provisions for discussions of professional readings. Yet, he did work collaboratively with several members of his faculty to develop an in-service program for them. In fact, the faculty chose the topic and guest speaker for the in-service. That same principal also made provisions for some financial reimbursements for personal or individual staff development plans.

In another example of the use of different styles or approaches, a principal who was concerned with building morale in his school developed a number of strategies to

meet his goal. As an example, he consulted with department heads and key faculty members to investigate the causes of the morale problem. He set up a consultative structure of monthly faculty meetings to air staff grievances and to allow for staff input into the operation of the school. More nondirectively, he made provision for publicizing administrative meeting minutes. Also along the same lines, he provided for informal faculty social events to help strengthen morale. Finally, he collaborated with his administrative team to search for solutions to the school morale problem. Thus, he also made use of a number of methods or styles to meet his goal with the staff.

Again in terms of a staff development goal, another principal collaborated with her administrative team to share the burden of clinical supervision. She also instituted "quality circles" within her academic departments so that her staff could work together to accomplish departmental goals in a collaborative manner. Finally, she made use of nondirective techniques such as "stand-up" meetings to recognize faculty achievements and informal parties to encourage a community spirit.

Another principal concerned with developing community spirit within her staff also made use of nondirective techniques such as the use of "informal kindnesses" and inquiries into professional and personal concerns of individual faculty members to build up a sense of community spirit

among her faculty. She also consulted with key faculty members when inter-staff relations problems arose. Therefore, she along with five other sample members did exhibit the multiple strategy aspect of the NASSP skill definition of leadership. Table IV, or the cross-site matrix of methods, displays this evidence.

On the other hand, some principals were not as creative as others in developing multiple strategies to achieve their goals. For instance, and in contrast to another principal with a similar goal, one principal who was concerned about building morale made use of a single structure to attack the problem: a monthly meeting procedure with a faculty representative to discuss issues and to share information. Unlike the other principal concerned with morale, she did not provide evidence of a variety of techniques employed to build morale.

Also, four principals concerned with improving curriculum employed only one consultative method to accomplish their goals. They made use of either existing curriculum committees composed of department heads or of ad hoc committees with broader representation to make recommendations for curricular modifications. In all four cases, either the principal alone or the principal with the advice of his or her team made final decisions on modifications. The general style was basically consultative rather than collaborative. In these cases, hierarchical or bureaucratic structures were

often very much in evidence. Thus, while half of the principals under study did employ a number of strategies in their attempts to achieve their goals, half also relied on a limited or single method. Those who did rely on only one method often fell back upon one of the basic bureaucratic and hierarchically related structures that many schools employ.

While there was a fairly evident difference between the two groups of principals in terms of use of multiple strategies, an overall pattern did emerge in terms of general style or approach. A count of the different styles that appear in the matrix would indicate that the general style orientation of the majority of the principals was consultative. Concomitant with this style was the heavy reliance of many principals on committees of various sorts to explore options and to make recommendations. Even those principals who made use of ad hoc committees to deal with curricular modifications, committees which were created to insure greater faculty and student participation in the modification process, reserved the right to make all final decisions to themselves alone or with their administrative teams. In other words, principals generally set committee goals and then reacted to recommendations. In most cases, committee recommendations were approved. However, the term "approved" is an important one since it highlights the consultative rather than collaborative nature of much principal

behavior. As one principal pointed out, he set the goals of redefining graduation requirements for his curriculum committee and then sat back to see "what the committee would come up with." He further pointed out that he and he alone would make any and all final decisions concerning recommendations.

In another example of this consultative pattern, a principal who employed a single structure of monthly meetings with a faculty representative to improve morale certainly did not operate in a collegial or collaborative manner. In the course of her interview, she indicated over and over again that the structure had as its basic goal the sharing of information. She informed the representative of administrative decisions and she was informed by the representative of faculty grievances. It was not a collegial process. She consulted and returned to her administrative team. The faculty representative did likewise. The other principal concerned with improving morale created a number of consultative structures to insure clear communication. However, he too returned to his administrative team to work out final decisions.

Of course, a careful examination of Table IV would point up the fact that other styles were also evident. In fact, the principals who were concerned with the improvement of morale both portrayed what appeared to be a very common approach of a number of the principals, that of consulting

at one level and of collaborating on another level. Both of the above-mentioned principals consulted with their staffs and then collaborated with their administrative teams.

Thus, there were two levels of operation in evidence. In many cases, principals consulted with committees or the faculty in general. That was one level of operation. The second level of operation was a more collegial process of working through a decision or the development of a goal more collaboratively with an administrative team.

In addition to the two principals concerned with morale above, others collaborated with their teams. For instance, one other principal pointed out that a curriculum revision committee was set up to make recommendations for changes. Those recommendations were then forwarded to an administrative team which dealt with the recommendations in a more collaborative manner. Another principal pointed out that her academic departments operated as collaborative quality circles among themselves. Yet, they too as departments made recommendations to the principal and her administrative team. The team then reacted to those recommendations as a team, cooperatively and collegially. Hence, while consultation was the predominant style on one level, collaboration was also evident on another level.

Leadership Methods - Summary Comments

The following short list of generalizations or summary comments is a synthesis of the preceding, rather lengthy

discussion of the rich data sources concerned with leadership strategies or methods. Many and varied strategies were employed to achieve goals. The following comments are based upon careful analysis of the principals' strategies or methods which were illustrated in Table IV and discussed on the preceding pages.

1. One-half or fifty percent of the principals under study demonstrated creativity in developing multiple strategies to accomplish their goals. In this sense, the behaviors of these principals were more in line with the NASSP definition of leadership skill which called for flexibility in the application of strategies to move a group toward goal achievement.
2. However, one-half or fifty percent of the principals under study were limited to a single method or strategy for the achievement of their goals. In this sense, the behaviors of these principals were less in line with the NASSP definition of leadership skill.
3. Those principals who were limited to a single method or strategy generally relied on one bureaucratically oriented method, that of standard committee work.
4. In the matter of a discernible style, the predominant pattern among the principals was that of consultation with the faculty in committees and in

general. More collaboration was evident within administrative teams.

Leadership Resources - Analysis

The major points listed above regarding the relationship of the principals to their staffs in general and to their teams in particular moves the data analysis to the third question of the dissertation research, the inquiry into the human and material resources employed in the leadership process. Again, it should be noted that the three research questions were very much interrelated. One can hardly address skill engagement without also looking into methods and resources. That very interrelationship was evident in the NASSP definition of leadership itself since the definition spoke to goals, strategies, and group relations. Thus, efforts to verify the presence of the NASSP skill of leadership in the behaviors of the principals implicitly answered all three of the research questions. One cannot easily speak about goals and methods without also allowing data concerning resources to emerge. In illustration, a consultative style accompanied by a committee strategy employed to achieve academic excellence must point to a certain relationship between a principal and at least some resources within his or her school; namely, the faculty members who compose a curriculum revision committee. The point to be made here is two fold: in holding the actions of the principals up to the definitions provided by the validated

NASSP base for analysis and comparison, one can answer all three of the dissertation research questions; also, this fact merely reinforces the basic belief that leadership skill is a complex and relational one. Consequently, the analysis of the data relating to methods or general styles of operation leads very logically to the next phase: the analysis of the data concerning the human and material resources employed in the engagement of leadership skill.

The human and material resource data that were obtained from the responses to question #4 of the semi-structured interview appear in Table V, a cross-site matrix of resources. Two points should be made before a detailed analysis of the data is presented. First, one should remember that the principals were asked to identify both positive and negative factors or resources. The term "negative resource" sounded a bit illogical - hence, the substitution of "factor" for "resource" in the later discussion of the data. A "+" or a "-" was placed along side of the identified resources or factors in the matrix so as to indicate the principals' perceptions of the resources or factors. As an example, one principal identified her department heads as negative factors for her supervision process since these individuals were not attending to that duty in a manner satisfactory to her. Thus, a "-" was placed with that factor. Yet, another principal identified his department heads operating in a curriculum council as positive factors for cur-

Table V
Leadership Resources by Site

Site #1.	Site #2.	Site #3.	Site #4.
Goal: Academic Excellence	Goal: Curriculum Revision	Goal: Curriculum Revision	Goal: Improve Morale
Dept. heads fail to supervise teachers. "-"	Plant and facilities limitations. "-"	Assistant principals. "+"	General teacher attitudes. "-"
Teachers have poor pedagogy skills. "-"	External state curricular requirements. "-"	Individual teachers oppose curricular change. "-"	Inadequate salary compensation. "-"
Principal's time to supervise is limited. "-"	Teachers disaffected by curricular changes - possible loss of jobs. "-"	History of past relationship between faculty and former principals. "-"	Faculty/staff council. "+"
Educational coursework of the principal "+"		Teacher distrust of the administrative team. "-"	Council chairperson. "-"
		Administrative team and curriculum council. "+"	Individual teacher complaints. "-"
Total "+" - 1	Total "+" - 0	Total "+" - 2	Total "+" - 1
Total "-" - 3	Total "-" - 3	Total "-" - 3	Total "-" - 4
Total "+" for entire sample - 38			
Total "-" for entire sample - 23			

Table V - Continued

Site #5.	Site #6.	Site #7.	Site #8.
Goal: Staff Development	Goal: Recruit Minorities	Goal: Academic Excellence	Goal: Staff Development
Administrative team. "+"	Diocesan personnel, e.g., superintendent. "+"	Curriculum committee. "+"	Faculty representative committee. "+"
Teachers serve as models of professionalism for each other. "+"	Congregational administration support. "+"	Academic council. "+"	Informal "administrative team". "+"
Student body. "+"	Feeder school principals. "+"	Development director. "+"	Expert guest speaker. "+"
Quality circles in departments. "+"	Teacher support. "+"	Positive public relations from academic improvement. "+"	The faculty in general. "+"
Financial limitations of Catholic schools. "-"	Minor parent and student disapproval. "-"	Administrative team. "+"	Professional literature. "+"
Dept. heads insecure in supervision duties. "-"			
Educational experience. "+"			
Total "+" - 5	Total "+" - 4	Total "+" - 5	Total "+" - 5
Total "-" - 2	Total "-" - 1	Total "-" - 0	Total "-" - 0
Total "+" for entire sample - 38			
Total "-" for entire sample - 23			

Table V - Continued

Site #9.	Site #10.	Site #11.	Site #12.
Goal: Curriculum Improvement	Goal: Staff Development	Goal: Improve Morale	Goal: Develop Community Spirit
Curriculum committee. "+"	Problem students. "-"	History of past administration. "-"	NCA evaluation effect on faculty (in terms of work output). "-"
Department heads. "+"	Teacher in-fighting. "-"	Congregational gossip, an information source. "+"	Individual staff member, a source of conflict. "-"
Administrative team. "+"	Expert guest speaker. "+"	Assistants. "+"	Department heads. "+"
Faculty in general. "+"	Committee structure of departments. "+"	Administrative team. "+"	Test results. "+"
Student body. "+"		Faculty in general. "+"	Assistants. "-"
Financial limitations of a Catholic school. "-"		Curriculum committee. "+"	
		Informal conversations among and with teachers. "+"	
Total "+" - 5	Total "+" - 2	Total "+" - 6	Total "+" - 2
Total "-" - 1	Total "-" - 2	Total "-" - 1	Total "-" - 3
Total "+" for entire sample - 38			
Total "-" for entire sample - 23			

ricular revision. Thus, a "+" was placed with that factor. In other words, the same factor or factors could and were seen in different ways in different contexts. This difference in perspective is portrayed in the cross-site matrix. Secondly, summary totals of positive and negative factors appear in the matrix - both for individual principals and for the entire sample.

A number of general points can be made from the analysis of the data in Table V. First, there were both similarities and differences in the human and material resources identified by the principals. In terms of similarities, many principals identified their administrative teams as positive resources. Others identified teachers in general as either positive or negative factors. A number of principals identified their various curriculum committees as positive resources for their schools. In terms of differences, one principal identified time limitations as a negative factor in her pursuit of her supervision goals. Two other principals identified past history or staff distrust of former principals as negative factors which they had to face and overcome. Another principal identified Archdiocesan office personnel, particularly the Superintendent, as positive forces for his recruitment of minorities program. Yet another principal identified standardized test results as a positive factor indicating the success of the academic program in her school. Thus, a quick examination of the matrix

would indicate both similar positive and negative factors as well as a number of different positive and negative factors identified by the principals. A simple count of the positive and negative factors or resources did indicate that more positive than negative factors were identified. There were thirty-eight positive factors. However, the principals were candid enough to indicate some twenty-three negative human and/or material factors that disaffected their strategies and/or their goal accomplishment.

Another general observation from the data analysis was the fact that few of the principals under study identified either students or parents, the objects of the educational delivery system, as either positive or negative factors of consideration. Indeed, only two principals out of the twelve identified their students as positive resources. One of those principals had such confidence in her students that she included student representatives on her curriculum revision committee. She also included student survey critiques of course offerings as part of her exploration of possible curricular revisions. However, she was an exception. Most principals failed to identify students or their parents as integral factors in the goal achievement process.

The above-mentioned finding could possibly lead one to conclude that principals might be somewhat isolated from the very objects of the educational delivery system, students and their parents. There was some verifiable support for

this assertion. One principal pointed out to his own dismay that his understanding of the principalship was one that forced him further and further into conference rooms and farther and farther away from the students. This was particularly bothersome to him because he felt himself to be primarily a "people" person. Other principals echoed this same theme in the course of their interviews. Indeed, some principals indicated that they had to apportion their time purposely to insure that they were available to students on a daily basis.

This possible isolation from students and their parents could not only take its personal toll on the principal who thrives on a human relations model of leadership, it could also be a possible pitfall for the principal who is not politically astute. Strong community relations or positive interaction with the external environment was considered to be a key skill of the effective principal in the Murphy research.⁹ Murphy defined the external environment as the broad school community which includes not only parents but also the wide tax base that supports a school. In a very real and critical sense for the Catholic school systems, the parents are the major tax base since they provide the greatest source of revenue for the systems. Yet, par-

9. J. Murphy, P. Hallinger, M. Weil, and A. Mitman. "Instructional Leadership: A Conceptual Framework." Planning and Changing. 14 (Fall 1983) 137-49

ents were identified as key factors only once by the principals in the sample.

Conversely, teachers, either as individuals or acting in various committees, were cited most often as both positive and negative factors of influence. Furthermore, they were cited as positive resources more often than as negative factors or stumbling blocks. Indeed, if one were to combine teachers in general with assistants and department heads into one category, one would see that the principals truly felt that their faculties were the greatest human factors influencing their goals and/or methods. Thus, teachers and people in general far outweighed any material factors in the discussions with the principals. This fact merely highlights the assertion that a principal can be made or unmade by his relationship with his faculty. Of course, that was the point of the human relation models of management that were so popular in the 1950s and 1960s. The principals in this study certainly labored long and hard with or sometimes against their staffs to accomplish the goals that they identified for themselves.

In terms of laboring with their staffs, a number of principals identified their administrative teams, their academic councils, and their ad hoc committees as positive resources. A number felt that their teachers in general served both as modelers of professionalism and as supporters of programs in the schools. Yet, in a negative vein, prin-

cipals also cited poor teachers, negative staff attitudes, weak department chairpersons, and teacher mistrust as factors that the principals had to overcome to accomplish their goals. Thus, while parents and students did not figure largely as influencing factors for the sample membership, teachers and assistants certainly did in both positive and negative ways.

Another interesting point to be observed from the data analysis lay in the fact that very few "expert" resources were employed by the principals to accomplish goals. That is to say, while the principals indicated a sense of vision in their educational goal-setting, they rarely sought the advice of experts from the field of education to assist in the goal achievement process. Their overall orientation was very much "in-house." Only two principals sought outside help or expert assistance for their staff development programs. This point was of particular interest since staff development was a goal for a number of the principals. The traditional perspective on staff development has often been to create an in-service day with an "expert" guest speaker. However, to their credit, these principals did appear to display a more expanded perspective on staff development. They did consider staff development to include such strategies as clinical or general supervision programs, quality circles, and professional discussions in small and large groups as well as the traditional in-service day. However,

the fact did remain that little effort was made overall to utilize expert assistance in accomplishing goals. This lack of effort was evidenced in part by the fact that only two of the principals made use of guest speakers or experts in the field of education to help them accomplish their goals.

Along the same lines, very few principals cited formal education, a theoretical educational base, or contemporary research findings as pertinent to their efforts to accomplish their goals. In fact, only two out of the twelve principals cited their own educational backgrounds as positive resources or factors. One principal indicated that her coursework on supervision was of limited benefit and applicability for her job situation. Another cited her own participation in a number of professional workshops as beneficial for her employment of quality circles within her academic departments. Overall, however, the principals in the sample appeared to try to accomplish their goals without benefit of expert advice, a well-articulated theoretical base, or the findings of contemporary research.

The fact that the principals did not consciously operate from a theoretical frame of reference reinforced, albeit negatively, the very concern for bridging the gap between theory and practice that the NASSP had when it initiated its Assessment Center Program. In other words, the very point of the dissertation study, the inquiry into the possible presence of a theoretical reference point or base in the

behaviors of the professional educational leader, was highlighted in a negative way by these findings. The principals in the study did not rely upon the benefits of expert advice, research in their field, or their own educational program of studies to help accomplish their goals. In fact, one principal indicated that his training as a guidance counselor was of more benefit to him than his training in administration and supervision. Thus, the principals looked upon their educational goals and methods from a limited or "provincial" perspective in the sense that their primary resources were "in-house." This fact does not denigrate the resource value of teachers or assistants but only points up the limited nature of resources identified and described. A broader and more professional perspective might include such resources as theoretical bases, the results of contemporary research, and professional expert assistance. However, the principals failed to enunciate or articulate a professional frame of reference or theoretical base, the very foundation of true professionalism according to the Broudy thesis, cited previously. Although the principals may indeed have operated from an implicit frame of reference, it was not consciously defined or identified by them in the course of their discussions of goals, methods, and resources. Therefore, Broudy would question the level of professionalism of these principals. Doubtless, the professional skills of the principals under study could be

improved if they made use of clearly defined theoretical perspectives validated by research. As in many cases cited in the literature, however, these principals did not exhibit this type of behavior. They were much more practically-oriented in their identification of both positive and negative factors.

Along the lines of the discussion in the previous paragraph, but with a more positive view of the principals included in the study, the data analysis indicated that many of the principals did have the practical analytical ability to look into consequences and implications as factors influencing their goal achievement. In other words, they were able to see the "broad picture" as one principal put it. That is to say, although they did not consciously operate from a well-conceived theoretical frame of reference, many did demonstrate their appreciation for the consequences and implications of their actions. They were astute enough to see the practical ramifications that certain actions or strategies would have on their goal achievement. In this way, then, the principals did exhibit analytic skill - but from a practical rather than theoretical standpoint.

As an example of practical analytical ability in action, one principal was quick to point out that curricular recommendations had to be modified because of the implications of those recommendations for staff and facilities. He was aware of such logistics problems as limited lab equip-

ment and classroom space. That same principal was concerned that the deletion of many elective courses from the curriculum would have dire implications for the job prospects of veteran staff members unable to assume new teaching responsibilities in "core" departments such as math and science. This would be the case because they had been teaching elective "frills" for years.

Another principal was astute enough to recognize the fact that faculty distrust of him was partly a consequence of the past history of that faculty with former principals. More positively, yet another principal concerned with enhancing the academic program in his school pointed out that such an effort did have the beneficial side effect of good public relations for prospective parents, students, and donating alumni. Thus, he was able to capitalize on a positive consequence.

On the other hand, a clear negative side effect surfaced when another principal allowed her faculty and staff representative to publish a "fact-finding" report concerning the use of the copying machine in the school. In the effort to improve staff morale, the principal permitted the representative to investigate complaints and provide recommendations to the faculty. However, the principal failed to screen the report and, therefore, had to face the negativity that surfaced when some rather uncomplimentary comments about individual staff members appeared in said report. As

a consequence, the principal found herself soothing hurt feelings after the report was published. Perhaps, such negativity could have been avoided had the principal screened the report in the first place.

In contrast, another principal who was seeking to recruit minority students in his school, a school whose population was not open to integration, wisely enlisted the support of parents, students, and staff alike before he began the program. At any rate, this principal as well as others in the sample was astute enough to look into the possible consequences and implications of his actions and of the actions of his staff. Many principals were aware of practical side effects and were often called upon to reduce the negative effects of some of those side effects. Others capitalized on positive side effects.

Analysis efforts were also made to look for significant relationships to explore as well as general trends or patterns such as those discussed above. In one instance, an attempt was made to relate the general style orientations of the principals with the human and material factor summaries reported in Table V. However, no real pattern or significant relationship emerged from the data. In other words, those principals who identified more positive than negative factors during the course of their interviews did not absolutely fit into a given style. In actuality, those who identified more positive than negative factors employed all

four styles at various times. The converse was also true. A number of different style orientations were also employed by those principals who identified more negative than positive factors or resources in the course of their interviews.

However, a closer analysis did indicate two other significant points. A careful examination of Table V did indicate that half of the principals under study identified more positive than negative factors influencing their strategies or goal achievement. Conversely, half of the principals encountered more negative factors or stumbling blocks as they sought to achieve their goals. It was interesting to note that those principals who were more "positive" in terms of their identification of factors fell into two categories regardless of their general style orientation. They were all principals who made use of multiple strategies to accomplish their goals and/or they were principals who included a large number of participants in their strategies to achieve their goals. Actually, it seemed that multiple strategies always called for the inclusion of many participants. For instance, one principal who sought to improve faculty morale identified some six positive resources and only one negative factor. He was also one of the principals who was creative enough to employ a number of strategies to accomplish his goal. Moreover, those many strategies provided for the inclusion of the entire staff as well as assistants, department heads, and an administrative team in his sometimes

collaborative, sometimes consultative, and sometimes non-directive approach to improving morale. Thus, this principal was creative in choice of methods and encouraging of wide participation in the goal achievement process.

Another principal concerned with staff development identified some five positive human and material resources. To accomplish his goal, he made use of a number of methods such as financial reimbursements or incentives for staff development and modification of his faculty meeting structures to provide for professional discussions with staff. In carrying out these strategies, he also provided for wide staff participation. In fact, the entire staff collaborated with him to develop an in-service program.

Another principal who was also concerned about staff development identified five positive resources and only two negative factors. She also made use of multiple methods and different styles in her efforts. Such methods included "stand-up" meetings for staff recognition and quality circles for greater participation in departmental decision-making. Consequently, multiple strategies had the positive effect of encouraging wide participation in the goal achievement process. Such wide participation appeared to relate to a more "positive" identification of resources by half of the principals under study.

It is true that the other three principals who identified more positive resources than negative factors did

employ a single method to accomplish a goal. For instance, the principal who sought to recruit minorities into the student body employed only one "marketing" technique. The other two principals employed ad hoc committees to revise their curricula. However, these principals all provided for wide participation in the single processes employed. The principal concerned with recruitment sought the advice and participation of central office personnel, feeder school principals, local staff, students, and parents to move his program along. Both of the other two principals created ad hoc committees to insure broader participation in the curricular revision process. They did not simply rely on the bureaucratic and hierarchical structures of academic councils alone. In fact, one principal made use of her ad hoc committee to survey staff, selected groups of parents, and the entire student body in the curricular revision process. The point, then, is that those principals who were creative enough to develop multiple strategies to include wide participation and those principals who utilized only one method which also encouraged wide participation were the same principals who identified more human and material factors as positive resources.

On the other hand, the converse also seemed to be true. That is to say, the principals who employed limited strategies and/or limited participation in the goal achievement process were the same principals who identified more

negative factors than positive human and material resources. Also, that negativity primarily revolved around a feeling of dissatisfaction with staff. For instance, one principal concerned about building up a community spirit on staff focused her remarks on the negative effect one influential staff member was having on faculty morale. That principal identified four negative factors and only two positive factors in the course of her discussions. Furthermore, she attempted to employ only one strategy to solve her problem, that of consulting with certain staff members for suggestions to improve the situation.

Along the same lines, two other principals concerned with curricular revisions relied heavily on a single bureaucratic and hierarchical structure, an academic council, to accomplish their goals. They too identified more negative factors than positive resources. Another principal who developed a formal routine of supervision of teachers also listed more negative than positive factors in her discussion. Such factors included weak teachers in the classroom, poor department heads, and inadequate time to conduct adequate supervision. Hence, a converse pattern did emerge from the data. The principals who employed a single method to achieve their goals and who did not encourage wide participation in the goal achievement process were the same principals who identified more negative factors than positive human and material resources.

Of course, one should not, perhaps, rush to assert a causal relationship from the previous comments. Other intervening factors might have been in operation. Indeed, later discussion of other skills will point up this fact. However, the evidence did present itself in such a way as to encourage one to observe the above-mentioned relationships. Furthermore, it would seem logical to conclude that either multiple or single strategies which encourage wide participation would allow for more positive resources to surface in a group. Indeed, such encouragement of wide participation has found theoretical support in the work of many authors such as Argyris, Sergiovanni, and Shaw, all discussed in the literature review.

Leadership Resources - Summary Comments

The rich data sources relating to human and material resources, the context of skill engagement, did lead to a number of important conclusions. The conclusions are based on close and detailed analysis of on the job behaviors of the principals in the study. The conclusions are listed below.

1. The most significant positive resources for goal achievement identified by the principals included in the study were assistant principals, key faculty members in the position of department head or in committees, and teachers in general.
2. While principals viewed their faculties overall as

key positive resources, a large minority, some five principals, also indicated that their teachers were negative factors or stumbling blocks to goal achievement.

3. In the matter of resources employed to achieve goals, a number of factors were conspicuously absent from the data furnished by the principals, namely: parents, students, experts in the field of education, theoretical frameworks, and formal educational training.
4. The fact that the principals under study did not articulate a theoretical or research-based frame of reference indicated a possibly less than professional approach toward educational administration. The literature pointed to such a theoretical or research-based frame of reference as an essential ingredient of professionalism.
5. While the principals under study did not demonstrate that they operated from a theoretical base or frame of reference, they did demonstrate a practical analytical ability. This ability was evident in their awareness of both positive and negative consequences or implications of their actions or of the actions of their subordinates in the goal achievement process.
6. Those principals who noted more positive factors or

resources in their efforts to accomplish their goals were the principals who employed multiple strategies with wide participation or single strategies with wide participation to accomplish those goals.

7. Conversely, those principals who noted more negative factors in their efforts to accomplish their goals were the principals who employed single and often bureaucratically oriented strategies to accomplish those goals. Such strategies did not include wide participation in the goal achievement process.

Organizational Ability Subskills - Preliminary Remarks

In the preliminary remarks concerning leadership behavior and organizational ability, the assertion was made that general leadership skill and the specific skill of organizational ability were very much logically related. Indeed, literature from the NASSP Assessment Center Program often placed these skills together. There was and is a logic to this placement precisely because a leader must move a group towards the accomplishment of a goal with some organizing strategies. Otherwise, chaos can ensue. Therefore, the previous discussion of leadership skill already did implicitly assess the ability of the principals to organize their faculties to accomplish their goals. Analysis of such aspects of leadership behavior as strategies and resources utilized for goal achievement did already reflect the principals' organizational ability - since focusing on

methods and resources provided an insight into the manner in which the principals allocated resources and communicated their wishes to staff. These very things, the allocation of resources and the development of a communication network or structure, were essential components of organizational ability in the eyes of Knezevich and others cited in the literature review.¹⁰ The finding that many of the principals made extensive use of committee structures of various sorts to organize faculties to accomplish goals thus served the twofold purpose of answering the general research questions concerning leadership skill and of providing additional insight into the organizational abilities of the sample members. Therefore, the second NASSP skill under study, that of organizational ability, was supported.

However, the NASSP definition of organizational ability was also more specific in terms of listing several sub-skills such as planning, coordinating, controlling, and time management as essential to good organizational ability. The following sections of the data analysis look into the possible presence of these specific organizational ability sub-skills in the principals' behaviors. Such analysis further supports the principals' facility with the NASSP skill of organizational ability.

10. Stephen J. Knezevich. *Op.cit.*, 29, 34

Planning Subskill - Analysis

While the NASSP definition did delineate specific organizational ability subskills, that same definition was rather general in terms of defining those subskills. Therefore, the effort to verify the presence or absence of those subskills in the principals' behaviors required a return to the literature review for more specific definitions. For instance, a cross-site matrix was created to examine planning ability. This matrix was based on McFarland's definition of planning as cited in the literature review.¹¹ That definition reflected a rational or objective approach to planning, much as Griffiths and others reflected a rational or objective approach to problem-solving or decision-making. Such an approach would be as structured and objective as possible to insure the most valid prediction of results. McFarland, for example, saw rational or objective planning in terms of the following five steps: evaluating present conditions, evaluating the time element - long or short range, employing a forecasting strategy such as "oaks from acorns" or "stacking the deck," collecting and analyzing data, and communicating to staff. The principals' behaviors in this study were set up against the McFarland measuring device or step-by-step process to determine the extent to which the principals made use of objective or rational plan-

11. Dalton E. McFarland. *Op.cit.*, 123ff

ning in their leadership behavior. The summary results of that comparison appear in Table VI, the cross-site matrix. Again, and parenthetically, this method of analysis served not only to verify skill engagement but also to illustrate methods and resources employed in that skill engagement. In this way, all three research questions were answered in the analysis.

Overall, an examination of the cross-site matrix indicated that the principals did not follow a rational or objective approach to planning. That finding would be in line with the findings of McNeight who found that her sample members were not adept at strategic planning either.¹² The general pattern that emerged from the behaviors of the present sample was that of subjectivity. Overall, the principals did not make use of many hard facts or "objective" data to enhance their planning ability. In fact, much of the planning activity was based upon subjective discussions at both the team and committee levels. The matrix bears this finding out.

In terms of evaluating present conditions, most of the principals did so through discussions with assistants and various committees. For instance, one principal was alerted to recommended curricular changes when his assistant presented him with a copy of a recent reform report, A Nation

12. Kay Ann McNeight. Op.cit., 42

Table VI
Planning Strategy by Site

Site #.	Evaluate Present Conditions	Time Frame	Forecast Strategy	Data Analysis	Communication to Staff
#1.	Informal observation of teachers during rounds.	Long range.	None	Formal observations with pre-established evaluation form.	Private conferences with teachers.
#2.	Assistant and principal compare curriculum with new guidelines.	Long range.	None	Principal and assistant discuss proposed changes discussed by curriculum committee.	Principal communicates with committee via assistant.
#3.	Assistant and principal confer on national reform report.	Long range.	None	Curriculum committee discusses possible changes.	Principal communicates with committee via assistant.
#4.	Principal's past experience in negotiating salaries makes her aware of poor staff morale.	Long range.	None	Principal and faculty representative discuss perceived problems.	Faculty representative serves as principal's conduit to rest of staff.
#5.	Principal and assistants meet to set goals and plan.	Long range.	None	Team discussions. Quality circle discussions in departments.	Team members divide up departments and serve as conduits for the principal.

Table VI - Continued

Site #.	Evaluate Present Conditions	Time Frame	Forecast Strategy	Data Analysis	Communication with Staff
#6.	Principal analyzes enrollment statistics in relation to congregation mandate to educate the disadvantaged.	Long range.	None	Enrollment statistics, populations in possible feeder schools are analyzed.	Principal personally sells program of recruitment to affected parties.
#7.	Principal sets up ad hoc committee to study curriculum.	Long range.	None	Committee analyzes and plans for curricular changes.	Principal communicates with committee and department heads via assistant.
#8.	Informal administrative team discusses goals for staff development.	Long range.	None	Principal and informal team and faculty reps plan in-service program.	Principal communicates to faculty in general faculty meetings and through representatives.
#9.	Principal sets up ad hoc committee to study curriculum.	Long range.	None	Committee discusses possible changes. Committee and principal make use of survey instruments in data analysis.	Principal and administrative team communicate decisions on recommended changes.

Table VI - Continued

Site #.	Evaluate Present Conditions	Time Frame	Forecast Strategy	Data Analysis	Communication with Staff
#10.	Principal hears informal gossip regarding teacher conflicts.	Long range.	None	Principal and assistants discuss problem of staff and plan to invite consultant.	Principal communicates plans of in-service at general faculty meetings.
#11.	Principal discusses morale problem with various audiences.	Long range.	None	Principal and team analyze discussed complaints and develop plan.	Principal sets up various mechanisms to deal with problem of morale - major mechanism is monthly faculty grievance and information sessions.
#12.	Principal discusses disruptive teacher problem with key informants.	Long range.	None	Informal discussions with individual staff members.	Principal discusses problem with recalcitrant teacher.

at Risk, to examine. Another principal and his assistant compared his school's curriculum to new state graduation guidelines before handing over the task of discussing curricular modifications to his academic council. One principal who attempted to deal with a morale problem in his school spent much time listening to assistants, department heads, and numerous faculty members in his effort to evaluate the situation. Another principal concerned with building school spirit discussed possible morale problems with a number of staff members informally before she tackled the problem of dealing with a recalcitrant teacher. While the principal who sought to develop a routine of classroom supervision did not listen to assistants or committees per se, she did informally attend to the classroom behavior of her teachers in her process of making rounds. Such informal observation led her to conclude that her teachers were not all practicing sound pedagogical strategies. In fact, only the principal who attempted to recruit minorities in his school actually did make use of hard data, enrollment figures, to analyze his situation. Thus, evaluation of present conditions was done primarily in mostly informal group discussions. Many of the principals relied heavily on their assistants in this stage of planning. Much of the discussion was based on perceptions and feelings concerning a given situation. Very little hard data was evident in this stage.

In terms of analyzing the time element, long or short range, all of the principals were perceptive enough to realize that their goals were primarily long range in nature. They were realistic enough to accept the fact that curricular revisions, staff development, and community building were goals that needed much time to bring to fruition. However, in terms of step three, none of the principals made use of any forecasting strategy in their planning. This fact was of particular interest precisely because the goals of the principals were fundamentally long range in nature. Some of the principals set benchmarks. However, they made no objective attempt to forecast in their planning strategies.

In terms of data analysis, the element of subjectivity again appeared as a predominant pattern. In terms of method and resources, most principals relied on discussions in which differing opinions were shared to analyze data. Indeed, the data for analysis were often the conversations of various committees or the conversations of principals with assistants. While one principal concerned with supervision did establish an objective evaluation form which she followed, and while two other principals surveyed faculty and interested parties concerning their goals, most of the principals relied on group discussions to analyze and plan.

Finally, in terms of communication with staff, the primary mode was that of following the established bureau-

cratic structure in the school. For instance, the principal would often confer with an assistant. That assistant would serve as a conduit to the various committee structures that were in place in the schools. This was the case in nine out of the twelve or seventy-five percent of the sites studied. The very fact that the principals often used their assistants as conduits highlighted the importance of the assistants as positive resources available to the principals. In the few cases where a bureaucratic structure was not employed, such as in the case of the supervising principal who communicated via direct conferences, the uniqueness of the goals served to require different modes of communication.

Planning Subskill - Summary Comments

In the matter of the organizational subskill of planning, the key pattern which emerged was that of subjectivity often accompanied by informal reliance on the advice and support of assistant principals. Hard data such as survey responses or various sorts of statistics did not appear to have high priority with the principals as they planned. One particular instance illustrated this fact rather well. A principal who was attempting to upgrade graduation requirements was frustrated by several members of his curriculum committee who insisted that their students "could not do a third year of math!" Neither the principal nor the teachers on the committee relied on any hard data to back up their positions. The teachers "just knew" that the students were

incapable. The principal "just knew" that the students were capable. In that case, the principal won in the short term because he mandated the change. However, he feared that the teachers would win in the long run by acting out the self-fulfilling prophecy with the students in question. In any event, there did not appear to be a structured or objective approach to planning in the principals' repertoires of behavior as the following summary statements attest.

1. Overall, the principals under study did not demonstrate mastery of an objective or rational approach to the organizational ability subskill of planning.
2. More specifically, planning activity was primarily subjective discussion in which personal opinions served as the basis for said discussion. This was the case in terms of evaluating conditions and data analysis. Hard data were analyzed only minimally.
3. There was no evidence of the employment of any forecasting strategy by any principal under study.
4. In terms of methods or strategies, the employment of committee structures was the predominant pattern among the principals under study.
5. In the matter of resources employed in planning, the principals under study relied greatly on their assistants to develop and implement plans.

Coordinating and Controlling Subskills - Analysis

In reality, it was very often difficult to separate

planning from the other two organizational ability subskills of coordinating and controlling. The principals considered planning and carrying out those plans as all of a piece. For instance, evaluative questionnaires appeared in some principals' discussions of planning as well as in discussions of controlling or monitoring movement toward goal achievement. Even McFarland saw the interrelationship of the subskills when he pointed to communication with staff as a key element of planning as well as of coordinating. Knezevich echoed this same theme when he asserted that organizational ability was essentially the ability to set up a communication network to insure movement along a path to goal achievement.¹³ Planning would require coordinating the actions of others and evaluating their progress.

In any event, as in the case of planning, McFarland's writing was again of value because he specified the coordinating and controlling subskills into concrete behaviors which could be used to verify the principals' skill engagement. Those behaviors were discussed in the literature review and became the basis for the cross-site analysis appearing as Table VII. Simply put, this matrix, like Table VI, served as another checkpoint to ask if the principals made use of McFarland's three coordinating and controlling behaviors, delegation, monitoring or checking mechanisms,

13. Stephen J. Knezevich. Op.cit., 34

Table VII
Coordinating and Controlling by Site

Site #.	Delegating	Checking	Communication Network
#1.	Assistant principal shares burden of teacher evaluations.	Each teacher is formally evaluated annually.	Faculty meeting sets evaluation expectations. After evaluations, principal conducts individual teacher conferences.
#2.	Assistant chairs academic council.	Principal confers with assistant principal privately during course of curricular revision process.	Academic council with assistant as conduit to and from the principal.
#3.	Assistant chairs academic council.	Principal confers with assistant principal privately during course of curricular revision process.	Academic council with assistant as conduit to and from the principal.
#4.	Principal uses faculty representative to forward information to staff.	Monthly meetings with faculty representative to discuss pre-set agendas.	Faculty and staff council with faculty representative as principal's conduit.
#5.	Administrative team shares clinical supervision task. Team members also monitor select department.	Team meets regularly to share supervision progress. Academic departments meet in quality circles to share department burdens. Team members inform principal regularly of progress of assigned departments.	Administrative team and departments in quality circles. General faculty meetings and weekly "stand-up" meetings for faculty recognitions.

Table VII - Continued

Site #.	Delegating	Checking	Communication Network
#6.	No delegation. Principal bears burden of recruitment plan.	Principal monitors enrollment statistics and patterns. Principal personally communicates with feeder schools along the process. Principal seeks support of staff and central office.	Personal communication with "affected" audiences, i.e., central office, feeder principals, staff, parents, etc.
#7.	Principal appoints ad hoc curricular revision committee.	Principal confers with assistant, department heads and curriculum revision committee members periodically.	Principal meets with assistant for curriculum regularly. Principal meets with department heads and ad hoc committee regularly.
#8.	Principal has informal administrative team. Principal seeks assistance of faculty representative on input.	Principal and informal team meet regularly. Principal surveys faculty via representative regarding topic, speaker at in-service. Principal and team evaluate in-service with data from follow-up survey of faculty.	General faculty meetings. Informal team meetings. Principal meets with faculty representative.
#9.	Principal appoints ad hoc curricular revision committee.	Principal confers with assistant, department heads and curriculum revision committee members periodically.	Principal meets with assistant for curriculum regularly. Principal meets with department heads and ad hoc committee regularly.

Table VII - Continued

Site #.	Delegating	Checking	Communication Network
#10.	No delegation evident.	No checking evident.	Periodic faculty meetings held for in-service.
#11.	No delegation evident	Analysis of annual evaluation of administration by faculty. Informal conversations with faculty members. Small group meetings to discuss progress.	Administrative team meets regularly. Faculty grievance meetings held monthly. Principal conducts regular meetings with department heads and assistants.
#12.	No delegation evident.	Periodic informal and private conversations with key informants on staff.	Individual conferences.

and communication networks, in their efforts to achieve their goals.¹⁴ Again as in the case of planning, the focus of the matrix lay with concrete instances of behavior. Such an approach to analysis not only served to verify skill engagement but also to illustrate methods and resources employed in that engagement.

An overall view of the matrix of behaviors did indicate that most of the principals were adept at the organizational ability subskills of coordinating and controlling. Moreover, a close analysis of the principals' behaviors reinforced the pattern of reliance on assistant principals and various committees within the schools to accomplish goals. This pattern was evident in the analysis of planning skill and also in the analysis of principals' leadership behaviors in general. Thus, in terms of method and resources, the predominant patterns were those of reliance on assistants, key staff members, and committee structures not only to accomplish goals overall but also to organize resources within the schools.

The matrix analysis of delegation, one of McFarland's subskills of coordinating and controlling, revealed that most of the principals were comfortable delegating tasks to assistant principals. In most cases, assistant principals served as sources of support and advice for the principals

14. Dalton E. McFarland. *Op.cit.*, 193ff

as well as conduits to the various committees set up to accomplish goals. More specifically, eight of the principals in the sample either made use of assistants or faculty representatives to chair committees, to act as sounding boards, or to assist in the classroom supervision process. For example, even the principal whose goal was to set up a standard and routine teacher evaluation program made use of her assistant to share the burden of classroom observation.

Principals failed to delegate in only a handful of cases, cases that were unique because of the goals that they had set. For instance, the principal concerned with recruitment of minorities bore the greater part of the burden of developing and implementing the plan himself because he considered such a task part of his job description and because of a congregational mandate. Another principal investigated problems in spirit building among the faculty because her assistants were either novices on the job or not competent to deal with sensitive situations. Still another principal failed to rely heavily on assistants in his attempt to solve a faculty morale problem precisely because he felt that such a problem developed because the previous principal in the school had isolated himself from the staff by overdelegating. Yet, this principal still did rely on his team of assistants as a source of support and a sounding board. In the majority of cases, however, principals generally employed delegation to coordinate the activities of

others. In that employment, they made use of assistants, fellow team members, key staff, and committee members as positive resources for goal achievement.

In terms of checking, again most of the principals utilized the talents of their assistants and committees to monitor the progress of the group toward goal achievement. Such behaviors as formal classroom evaluations, monthly or regularly scheduled meetings with faculty representatives, small group meetings of staff, and survey analyses all indicated that the principals monitored progress.

An interesting point, however, did emerge from a close analysis of the data concerning this aspect of organizational ability subskill: those principals who were identified as more positive in their assessment of resources and more encouraging of wide participation in goal achievement were also the same principals who employed more than one method or approach to monitoring their staffs. For instance, one of the principals concerned with improving morale made use of annual written evaluations of the administration by the teaching staff, informal small group discussions, monthly faculty meetings, and team discussions to assess his progress. Another principal discussed staff development plans with his informal administrative team, surveyed the faculty concerning in-service topics and guest speakers, and further surveyed the faculty after the in-service to determine the effectiveness of that staff development program. Further-

more, he and his informal team took time to analyze the faculty responses in an effort to prepare better for the next in-service day. The principal who sought to recruit minorities pointed out that he personally spoke to principals in feeder schools and central office staff all along the process that he developed to encourage minority enrollment. He further coupled this personal or subjective approach with an analysis of enrollment patterns and statistics. Another principal concerned with staff development monitored her quality circles by assigning several departments to each member of her administrative team. The team members would then monitor their selective departments and report back to her in regular team meetings. She also surveyed her faculty regarding their satisfaction with the quality circle concept and its implementation.

On the other hand, those principals who did not tend to encourage wide participation also did not appear to adopt multiple monitoring methods. For instance, two of the principals who sought to revise curricula relied entirely upon committees to carry out that process. Furthermore, and more to the point, they did not communicate with those committees directly. Rather, they relied heavily on what their assistants told them of the committees' progress. The assistants were truly conduits. Another principal who did not encourage great participation relied solely on monthly meetings with one faculty representative to share information and to

deal with grievances. Ironically, she established a "faculty and staff council" for the sake of morale improvement. However, she only met with one representative from that council on a regular and formal basis. Two other principals with different goals, staff development and spirit building, either did not display any real checking mechanism or relied solely on periodic and informal conversations with selected key informants to monitor progress.

Thus, it would seem that there appeared to be consistency in the patterns of behavior that the principals displayed. Those who were more "positive" and encouraging of wide participation were also the very same principals who seemed more adept at monitoring progress toward goal achievement in the sense that they employed multiple and non-isolating monitoring mechanisms. The converse again seemed to be true. Just as some of the principals employed single methods and narrow participation in the general goal achievement process, they also appeared limited in their approach to monitoring or checking the progress of their faculties along that process of goal achievement.

The final behavior included in the cross-site matrix was that of utilizing a communication network or networks to organize or allocate resources. Analysis of this part of the matrix indicated rather clearly that the principals did make use of various communication structures to organize their staffs toward goal achievement. Indeed, every princi-

pal operated with and through a network. Such networks included various committee structures such as regular faculty meetings, academic councils, ad hoc committees, quality circles, administrative teams, and individual conferences with assistants and key informants on the staff. Also, in terms of resources, the role of the assistant principal as conduit was again reinforced in general instances of communicating.

In those cases where committee structures were not employed, the principals relied on personal communication or individual conferences because of the sensitive and unique goals they had set for themselves. For instance, the principal concerned with recruitment went directly to his affected audiences to market his program. The principal who set up a standard supervision schedule made use of individual conferences to process evaluations. The principal who sought to build up community spirit among her faculty members sought the advise of various key informants to deal with a recalcitrant staff member who was hampering spirit building. Yet, overall, the dominant method was committee work. The underlying theme of staff as the key resource was again highlighted in this section of the data analysis. Thus, assistants, committee members, and key staff members appeared over and over again as significant human elements essential to organization for goal achievement.

One other final pattern again emerged from the data

analysis. Just as certain principals in the sample made use of multiple checking mechanisms in the organizing process, those same principals also made use of multiple communication structures in that process. Again, these were the very same principals who encouraged wide participation in the general goal achievement process. For instance, one principal who sought to improve morale employed a number of checking mechanisms from evaluative questionnaires to informal group meetings. That same principal also set up such communication networks as team meetings, general faculty meetings, meetings with department heads, and informal meetings with assistants to insure that clear lines of communication were open. Another principal who employed survey evaluations and team meetings to monitor progress in staff development and in-service also communicated to staff through general faculty meetings, through informal team meetings, through personal interviews with staff, and through conversations with faculty representatives.

On the other hand, those principals who did not encourage wide participation in general also did not establish multiple checking mechanisms or communication networks. Rather, they relied heavily on assistant principals as conduits to bureaucratically oriented committees, usually academic councils of various sorts. Hence, there was again a consistency in the patterns of behavior of the principals under study in terms of general leadership skill and specif-

ic organizational ability. The data from each section, then, tended to support each other. Furthermore, there was a certain element of logic in such patterns since multiple approaches to checking and communicating as well as to leadership in general would "fit" better with a wider participation of faculty in achieving goals. Truly, Argyris and the human relations oriented theorists would support such a logic. Conversely, heavy reliance on "channels" such as bureaucratic structures with assistants as conduits tended to lessen staff participation and isolate principals from their faculties in general.

Therefore, in summary, the data did permit these patterns of behavior to emerge from analysis of leadership behavior in general and from analysis of organizational ability in particular. All principals demonstrated some facility as organizers just as all principals demonstrated some facility as leaders in general. However, the quality of that facility varied with the degree of participation that the individual principals invited in the goal achievement process.

Coordinating and Controlling Subskills - Summary Comments

The following summary comments or conclusions were synthesized from the above discussion of coordination and control behaviors of the principals included in the study. Such synthesized comments found their concrete base in the specific behaviors of the principals which were illustrated

in Table VII.

1. Overall, the principals under study did demonstrate mastery of the organizational ability subskills of coordinating and controlling the work of others toward goal achievement.
2. Delegation to assistants and committees appeared to be the predominant methods employed by the principals under study both to coordinate and to control the goal achievement process.
3. Those principals who employed multiple checking mechanisms and multiple communication networks as coordinating and controlling devices were the same principals who encouraged wide participation in the goal achievement process.
4. Conversely, those principals who employed a limited number of checking mechanisms and communication networks were the same principals who did not encourage wide participation in the goal achievement process.
5. Assistant principals appeared to be essential human resources for coordination and control. Assistant principals served both as conduits to various committees and as informal sources of support or "sounding boards" for the principals.

Time Management Subskill - Analysis

While all of the principals under study did display some ability in terms of planning, coordinating, and con-

trolling the process of goal achievement, none of them appeared particularly adept at the final NASSP organizational ability subskill, that of time management. Indeed, all principals expressed the sense of frustration that often accompanies the administrator in general and the principal in particular who suffer from Kozall's "battered mind syndrome."¹⁵ The time management problems that surfaced are listed by site in Table VIII. No table of solutions appears because the principals' responses did not exhibit a significant number of strategic solutions to time management problems. What they did exhibit is explained in the discussion below.

A cursory glance at the table of time management problems identified by all of the principals would point up the fact that the principals were beset by the same sorts of problems that Kozall, Stevens, Partin, and Van Loozen addressed in the literature review. In this way, the principals were very typical of other administrators. Indeed, a very predominant pattern of frustration with control of their time - rather, lack of control of their time - did appear. When asked the question about time management problems, all of the principals immediately bemoaned the fact that "there just weren't enough hours in the day!" to deal with all that they had to face. When pressed further to ex-

15. Charles E. Kozall. *Op.cit.*, 12

Table VIII
Time Management Problems

Site #.	Problems
#1.	Maintenance responsibilities Crises of individual teachers Open door policy Phone interruptions Unexpected parent visits Unexpected teacher visits
#2.	Teaching responsibilities Paperwork Inappropriately routed information
#3.	Teachers shift classroom behavior problems to principal Teachers conferences regarding personal and professional problems Telephone calls Unexpected parent visits
#4.	Conflicts with and among personnel Public relations duties, e.g. formal meetings
#5.	"Workaholic" personality type Close proximity of home (convent) to school office Unexpected crises Failure to delegate, i.e., assumes more duties when others fail Unexpected interruptions from parents, staff, and students
#6.	Large school size limits accessibility Telephone calls Unexpected interruptions from parents, teachers, and students Paperwork "Chief of State" functions requiring attendance at meetings, dinners, etc.
#7.	Open door policy "Dependent" assistants not confident in their own ability to make decisions

Table VIII - Continued

Site #.	Problems
#8.	Failure to delegate Telephone calls Faculty conflicts
#9.	Conflicts of personnel Assumption of too many duties
#10.	Unexpected crises Unexpected parent visits Open door policy
#11.	Parent complaints Crises that are not really crises, e.g., teacher hysteria Improperly routed problems
#12.	Open door policy Telephone calls Unexpected interruptions from parents, teachers, and students Failure to delegate

plain such an exclamation, the principals then provided the list which is reproduced in Table VIII. Such problems as unexpected visits from parents, lengthy telephone conversations, failure to delegate adequately, the "open door," unexpected crises, irate teachers, and student discipline problems were all time-consuming and, often, time-wasting activities in which the principals were engaged. Also, there was great similarity in the types of problems which the individual principals identified. In other words, many of the principals cited the very same time-wasters such as staff crises and parental interruptions. A number of interesting points could and should be made concerning the principals' time management problems.

One key point which surfaced in the analysis was the fact that the types of problems which the principals encountered could be classified as either external or internal in nature. Some if not most of the problems were rooted in various external "interruptions." Yet, other problems developed because of the very personalities of the principals under study. In the matter of the first type, there were a number of external interruptions which the principals encountered during their time on the job. One such interruption was the "sudden personal crisis" which might call for a principal to search for a teacher and to provide for an immediate substitute so that the teacher could return home. Then, there were also "crises that were not crises" as one

principal put it. For instance, a principal supervising in the cafeteria was accosted by an irate teacher who demanded immediate attention to her problem, a problem which could easily have been resolved at another more convenient time. Other examples of external interruptions were unannounced parent visits, most of which were related to complaints about individual teachers, numerous telephone calls from various people, and teacher complaints about recalcitrant students. Oddly enough, students themselves were rarely the source of interruptions. They provided the substance for many parent and teacher interruptions. However, students themselves rarely interrupted the work of the principals directly. Hence, external interruptions provided for the vast majority of time management problems faced by the principals.

However, there were internal forces or personality characteristics of some principals which hindered time management also. A number of principals pointed out that their open door policy invited time management problems. Such a policy appeared to be based on the principals' perception of their role as "people" persons. As was mentioned above, some of the principals bemoaned the fact that their jobs often isolated them from students and staff. Therefore, they pursued an open door policy to help overcome that isolation. However, the open door cut down on available time to accomplish myriad tasks. Also, a number of principals

admitted that they often failed to delegate responsibilities adequately. One principal admitted openly that she was a "workaholic" and that she often found herself assuming more and more responsibilities when others on staff did not meet her expectations. In both of the above cases, external interruptions were not the only sources of time management problems. Rather, some principals "set themselves up" for time management problems because of their own personality or style of operating.

Another key idea which could be inferred from the analysis of the principals' time management problems was the fact that such problems highlighted the very political nature of the principalship. Soothing irate parents, settling faculty conflicts, attending various meetings and formal functions in the larger community, and responding to telephone calls from various audiences were all time-consuming activities which required real human relations skill or political acumen. As an example, it took much time and much personal communication for the recruiter principal to sell his plan to central office personnel, to parents in key positions, to feeder school principals, and to staff. Moreover, as a number of principals pointed out, many human relations or political problems were not easily shifted to assistants. Because of the political nature of the principal's job as "chief of state," many principals were beset by angry audiences who insisted upon "going to the top" in

spite of the fact that selected assistants could and should have dealt with the problems. For example, the angry parent who felt that his tuition statement was incorrect would often refuse to speak to a business manager even though the business manager was the person to see. This particular pattern of behavior would then result in time wasted by the principal because he or she would have to listen to the parent, investigate the problem with the business manager, and then return to deal with the parent again. Such a pattern was typical whether the problem was as mundane as an incorrect tuition statement or as significant as the possible misuse of revenues by a particular staff member. Therefore, the principal's political expertise in interacting with the local and broader community was highlighted as a time-consuming management problem.

One final point regarding the time management problems encountered by the principals actually takes on the nature of a possible relationship. That is to say that it is quite possible that parents and students were not viewed by most principals as positive resources for goal achievement because the principals often found themselves dealing with parents in a negative way. In other words, parental complaints regarding their children were often a great source of time management anxiety. Indeed, they were the primary source. It is perhaps for this reason that the principals failed to describe parents as positive resources. Further-

more, it is quite possible that some principals did not see their faculties as positive resources either because faculty members often served to interrupt principals with "crises that were not crises" or to shift student behavior problems to the principal's office. More than one principal bemoaned the fact that some teachers were unskilled at solving their own problems. Again, this possible relationship merely highlights the need for good political acumen on the part of the principal.

While the principals under study were quick to describe some of the time management problems that they encountered on the job, they failed to demonstrate many real strategies or methods to overcome those problems. In this sense, then, the principals under study failed to provide much evidence to verify facility with this organizational ability subskill. Moreover, the few methods or approaches that they did employ often did not really solve the problems of interruptions or crises.

An example of a "non-solution" approach would be the principals' patterns of dealing with paperwork. Every one of the principals indicated that their solution to paperwork problems required spending extra time in the office in the evening and on the weekend. It would not be surprising to see the principals return to the school after dinner or spend a number of hours in the office on a given Saturday. Interruptions and "people" problems often forced the princi-

pals to put off necessary paperwork or quiet planning time until the school was closed. This solution was often employed because the principals' residences were usually in close proximity to the schools. It was easy to return to school to continue work. In fact, one principal noted that she arrived at school every day at 6:30 a.m. in order to accomplish her daily goals. She would also return at night to "catch up."

A number of the principals also indicated that they made up daily lists of goals. The literature did point to such an activity as a good time management strategy. However, as one principal pointed out, examining the list at the end of the school day was frustrating because few if any of the items on the list were actually accomplished. Also, when pressed for time or when required to meet a deadline, the principals did point out that the open door was closed. In most cases, assistants, secretaries, and faculty respected that strategy. Yet, many principals did indicate that closing their doors to accomplish a specific task was something that they rarely did. Also, while some of the principals did indicate that they were sometimes hesitant about delegating responsibilities and specific duties overall, a few did indicate that they were able to delegate some tasks, particularly paperwork tasks. In fact, one principal indicated that he had to resort to delegation or be overwhelmed.

One final strategy and resource was indicated by all

of the principals. That strategy was a heavy reliance on an efficient secretary. In fact, one principal whose tenure included many years on the job pointed out that she "cleaned house" with the secretarial staff shortly after she assumed the principalship precisely because the clerical staff on hand was inefficient. Good secretaries were seen as essential resources who not only screened calls and appointments but also served to lessen the burden of paperwork. Thus, overall, the principals did not appear to be particularly adept at time management. They indicated similar problems in many cases. They did not indicate a significant number of solutions to those problems.

Time Management Subskill - Summary Comments

One very clear finding of this research was the fact that the principals under study were "typical" of many principals cited in the literature on time management. The principals noted many time management problems and few time management solutions. The following summary comments serve to synthesize the analysis of the behaviors of the principals in the present sample.

1. Overall, the principals did not exhibit mastery of the final organizational ability subskill of time management.
2. The principals under study demonstrated frustration with such external "time robbers" as crises, interruptions, complaints from parents and teachers, and

shifted student-teacher conflicts or classroom management problems.

3. The principals also suffered from such internal "time robbers" as failure to delegate sufficiently and the self-initiated open door policy.
4. The fact that the principals spent so much time dealing with various audiences such as parents and teachers highlighted in a negative vein the essential political nature of the principalship and served to demonstrate why many of the principals failed to see faculty members and parents as positive human resources.
5. In terms of time management strategies, few were applied by the principals under study. The few that were applied appeared to be inadequate. Such strategies included spending time at school after hours, limited delegation of tasks, closing one's door only when absolutely necessary, and retaining an efficient secretary.
6. The employment of an efficient secretary was the only positive resource for the solution of time management problems indicated by the principals under study.

Problem Analysis and Judgement - Preliminary Remarks

Interview Questions

1. As principal, what are three major problems that you

- have encountered in your school?
2. Using one of those problems, what strategies did you employ to solve that problem?
 3. What human and material factors either positively or negatively affected the strategies that you employed to solve that problem?
 4. Much of the literature speaks about participatory decision-making. What do you understand that concept to mean?
 5. If you have employed a participatory decision-making process in your school, could you illustrate the process that you employed?
 6. What were some strengths and weaknesses that you discovered in following a participatory decision-making process?

In this section of the data analysis, the concrete problem-solving behaviors of the principals under study were examined to determine the extent to which those principals employed the NASSP skills of problem analysis and judgement on the job. Furthermore, as in the case of the analysis of leadership skill and organizational ability, the effort was made to examine the context of such skill engagement. Thus, the research questions concerning verification, methods, and resources were again asked of the sample members for two other essential NASSP skills.

For the sake of clarity, certain preliminary remarks about the data analysis in this major section should be made. One remark would be that the two skills of problem analysis and judgement were placed together in the data analysis because of their logical relationship to one another. Just as leadership skill and organizational ability

were logically related, so too were problem analysis and judgement. The NASSP definition of problem analysis emphasized the purposeful search for information. The NASSP definition of judgement emphasized logical decision-making based upon that search. In other words, judgement is the essential action phase of decision-making or problem-solving, an action phase which begins with problem analysis. In reality, much of the literature unites both skills under one basic process, that of problem-solving or decision-making.

Another preliminary remark is the fact that every effort was made to follow up on the two major perspectives which emerged from the analysis of the literature. Those two perspectives reflected a concern for following a "rational" model of problem-solving and a concern for employing participatory decision-making. Consequently, the questions asked of the sample members and the structure of the data analysis do reflect these two perspectives. Also, whenever possible, every effort was made to structure the analysis along lines similar to the structure employed in the preceding sections. Appropriate summary comments are placed in the text after section analyses much as they were in the preceding pages.

Problems - Analysis

The first step in any problem-solving process is that of identifying the problem or problems to be solved. The principals under study were quite capable of making that

identification as is evidenced by the cross-site matrix, Table IX. Just as in the case of goal identification, the problems were classified as primarily educational or managerial in nature. The same rule was applied to this classification as was applied to the classification of goals.

Those problems that were unique to the school setting were classified as educational in nature. Those problems that were typical of any management situation were classified as managerial in nature. For example, a school setting would give rise to such problems as student tardiness, student discipline, and declining student achievement. However, many managers must deal with such general management problems as disruptive staff members, communication failures, and morale issues.

An overall analysis of the problems which the principals cited permitted three important generalizations to emerge. First, there was a sharp contrast between the principals' goals and problems in one special sense. While the goals of the principals were primarily education in nature, their problems were primarily managerial in nature. A review of the summary table indicates that some twenty-two or seventy-one percent of the thirty-one problems listed were classified as managerial. Furthermore, ten out of the twelve problems chosen for in depth discussion were managerial in nature. While the principals demonstrated an educational orientation toward goals, their orientation toward

Table IX
Problems of Sample Members

Site	Problems	Type
#1.	Student tardiness * Individual staff	Educational Managerial
#2.	* Interaction with students, teachers, and parents Student discipline cases Dissatisfied teachers (with assignments)	Managerial Educational Managerial
#3.	* Teacher supervision of study halls Professional mediocrity Public relations image of school	Managerial Educational Managerial
#4.	* Communication with the faculty Teacher supervision Fundraising	Managerial Educational Managerial
#5.	Time limits for supervision * Spirit building	Managerial Managerial
#6.	* Morale of staff Paperwork	Managerial Managerial
#7.	* Burned-out teacher Balancing the budget	Managerial Managerial
*8.	Monitoring maintenance of school plant Developing a well-defined re- cruitment program * Computerizing business office	Managerial Managerial Managerial

NOTE - The "*" indicates the problem chosen for further discussion by the principal.

Table IX - Continued

Site	Problems	Type
#9.	* Communication with board of trustees	Managerial
	Budgeting	Managerial
	Following office procedures	Managerial
#10.	Changing staff attitudes	Managerial
	* The changing student population	Educational
	Lack of religious presence in the school	Educational
#11.	* The religious identity of the school	Educational
	Curricular revision	Educational
#12.	Teacher morale	Managerial
	Select teachers' grading policies	Educational
	* Public relations image of the school	Managerial

NOTE - The "*" indicates the problem chosen for further discussion by the principal.

problem-solving was more managerial. A few illustrations from the table will underline this point. One principal found himself dealing with a number of teachers who failed to perform their contractual duties, the supervision of students. Many managers are faced with similar contractual problems. Another principal found herself dealing with a gym teacher who was surreptitiously placing suggestive or pornographic literature in faculty mailboxes. Such action caused agitation among the staff in general. Certainly, this was not an educational problem. Another principal found himself dealing with an efficiency problem in his business office. His efforts to install a computer system in that office reflected a management concern for efficiency as well as a management need to sell the installation to those staff who were employed in that office. Another general management problem, that of communication, was faced by a principal who found herself dealing with a divided board of trustees and by another principal who found herself dealing with a poor public relations image. Hence, while some principals did point up educational problems such as poor student achievement or curricular concerns, the majority of the problems which surfaced were managerial in nature.

A second point of importance which emerged from the data was the fact that many of the principals found themselves primarily embroiled in faculty problems. Dissatisfied or problematic teachers played a large role in the

principals' discussions. In fact, eight out of the twelve problems chosen for in-depth discussion involved teachers in some way. Again, some examples from the table verify this point. One principal found herself confronting a disruptive gym teacher. Another principal identified a "burned-out" teacher as problematic. Teachers who failed to perform their supervision assignments were problematic to another principal. While the acquisition of a computer for one principal's business office was not directly a "teacher" problem, that acquisition would have a potentially significant effect on those staff members who would be required to operate the computer. Also, the morale problems encountered by another principal were directly related to staff dissatisfaction. Thus, while the principals made the very definite effort to point up the importance of staff as resources for goal achievement, they also pointed to staff members as major problem sources in their schools.

A third and related point which emerged from the data was the fact that a close analysis underlined the importance of good communication in problem-solving processes. In every case under study, the ability to communicate effectively figured largely in problem-solving whether the problems were with staff or with the larger community of parents, boards of trustees, or feeder schools. For example, the principal concerned about poor communication with feeder school principals had to put into place a mechanism to cor-

rect false rumors. Another principal faced with a "burned-out" staff member had to communicate clearly and frequently with assistants, department heads, the teacher himself, and the larger staff who were affected by the final solution, a modified teaching schedule. Also, a principal faced with a morale problem had to set up an elaborate communication network to deal with that problem. It was fairly evident from this first level of data analysis that communication skill was essential for solving problems. This point was made in the literature and will again be referred to in the later discussion of methods.

Problems - Summary Comments

In summary, four important points surfaced from the analysis of the data thus far. Such points were inferred from the information depicted in Table IX or the list of the principals' major problems.

1. The principals readily identified their major problems.
2. In contrast to identified goals, the problems which the principals identified were primarily managerial in nature.
3. School personnel or faculty members served as the primary sources of problematic situations.
4. Good communication skill surfaced as an important ingredient of the problem-solving process.

Problem-solving Methods - Analysis

In this particular section of the data analysis, an effort was made to answer the research questions concerning skill verification and method by comparing the behaviors of the principals to a rational problem-solving approach. In this way, the exploration of the problem-solving methods employed by the principals would not only serve to verify skill engagement but also to illustrate whether or not the principals followed a rational approach to problem-solving. Therefore, the structure employed in this section had the twofold effect of answering the dissertation research questions and of addressing one major concern which surfaced in the literature review, that of a preference for rational decision-making.

There certainly was ample support for a rational method or approach to solving problems in the literature review. Newman and Sumner, Griffiths, Simon, Sergiovanni, and Stufflebeam, all cited in Chapter II, did emphasize the importance of developing an objective or rational approach to problem-solving. Likewise, many of the models followed similar steps. A simplified and synthesized checklist based upon such models was utilized in the present study to analyze the problem-solving behaviors of the principals and to compare actual behaviors to a rational model. This checklist approach had the effect not only of verifying skill engagement, but also of illustrating method or methods for

problem-solving. That checklist approach is depicted in the cross-site matrix, Table X. The rational steps of problem awareness or recognition, information sources, exploration and analysis of alternatives and their consequences, and solutions are all included in the table. Again, such steps reflect the NASSP definitions with their emphasis on a purposeful search for information and a logical judgement based on that search as well as the rational models from the literature review.

The first step on the matrix of rational problem-solving is that of problem awareness or recognition. Although it is true that the information in Table IX already proved that the principals were indeed aware of their problems, data were also placed on the matrix, Table X, to illustrate not only awareness but also the manner by which the principals became aware of their problems. In the matter of this first step of the matrix, an interesting pattern of problem awareness emerged from the data. Reaction to complaint was the predominant pattern for problem awareness.

There were many examples of the above-mentioned behavior pattern. For instance, one principal was confronted by complaining faculty members whose sensitivities were offended by the discovery of pornographic literature in their mailboxes. Another principal became aware of a supervision problem when a lead supervisor complained to him about the the problem. Another principal was confronted by an irate

Table X
Rational Decision-making by Site

Site #./ Problem	Problem Awareness	Information Sources	Alternatives	Solutions
#1. Gym teacher and suggestive literature.	General complaints of the faculty.	Teacher colleague. Handwriting analysis.	Not evident.	Private conference with offending teacher.
#2. Counselor-parent conflict.	Parent complaint.	Parent and director of guidance.	Not evident.	Delegation of problem solution to guidance director.
#3. Supervision problem among teachers.	Lead supervisor complaint.	Lead supervisor.	Not evident.	General faculty meeting held to air complaints followed by the appointment of an ad hoc committee to explore solutions.
#4. Communication with faculty.	Informally delivered faculty complaints.	Faculty in general.	Self-reflection: possible general sharing meetings with faculty as a whole or in small groups.	Solution plan not finalized

Table X - Continued

Site #./ Problem	Problem Awareness	Information Sources	Alternatives	Solutions
#5. Building community spirit.	Faculty com- plaint.	Congregational evaluator apprises principal of un- reasonableness of time demands on faculty.	Team discus- sions of alternatives.	Small group meetings with faculty to allow frustration venting. Open door policy of principal. Faculty socials such as picnics. Catholic Education Week Program. Cessation of parent phone-a- thon requirement of faculty.
#6. Faculty morale.	Activities director alerts principal.	Activities direc- tor and faculty in general.	Not evident.	General faculty meeting to vent frustrations. Ad hoc committee appointed to explore solutions. Committee polls faculty on pos- sible solutions. Flexible meeting schedule created to insure faculty com- munication.
#7. Burned- out teacher.	Assistant alerts principal.	Assistant, depart- ment head, and teacher himself.	Principal and advisors confer on possible solution.	New techniques in classroom attempted. Modified teaching/office schedule created for burned-out teacher.

Table X - Continued

Site #./ Problem	Problem Awareness	Information Sources	Alternatives	Solutions
#8. Inefficient business office.	Principal's perception of possible prob- lem when for- mer business manager dies.	Business office staff, accounting expert, and com- puter expert.	Principal per- forms analysis of manual and computerized methods.	Principal opts for computeri- zation and sells plan to business office staff.
#9. Communica- tion with board of trustees.	Principal ob- serves under- lying conflict in meetings.	Individual board members and central office expert (facilitator).	Alternatives evident in solutions column.	Principal initiates informal gatherings of board members after formal meetings for purpose of dynamics analysis. Principal arranges for group self-evaluation under direc- tion of Archdiocesan facili- tator.
#10. Declining educational ability of students.	Faculty com- plaints about declining achievement levels.	Faculty in general, test scores, elemen- tary school evalua- tions.	Not evident.	Principal delegates problem to academic council. Council initiates study skills program and math program after consult- ing other schools, textbooks available, and curriculum ex- perts.

Table X - Continued

Site #./ Problem	Problem Awareness	Information Sources	Alternatives	Solutions
#11. Possible loss of religious identity in the school.	Principal fears decline in number of religious faculty will lead to identity loss.	Statistics from religious congregation.	Alternatives evident in solutions column.	Screening process in hiring new lay faculty. Orientation program for new teachers using "mentor." Congregational colloquia. Days of recollection for staff and students. Curriculum improvement process initiated.
#12. Public relations image of school.	Complaints from prospective parents and feeder school principals.	Parents and elementary school principals.	Principal, administrative team, and recruiter discuss possible alternatives: Principal's Forum, meetings with feeder principals, appointment of community leader to Advisory Board.	Solution plan not finalized.

parent who wanted to know why a guidance counselor accused her son of drug abuse. Another principal was informed by a supervisor that her phone-a-thon program to parents was becoming burdensome to her teachers. Still another principal was required to address the problem of declining test scores and student achievement when her teachers formally and informally complained to her at faculty meetings and in the halls. Another principal concerned with public relations found herself responding to telephone challenges from prospective parents and feeder school principals. The principals under study were respondents to complaints in all of these cases.

In point of fact, in only two instances did principals take a more proactive approach to possible problem situations. One principal saw the decline of religious presence in his school as a possible threat to the school's future identity and acted to combat the threat. Another principal saw that the loss of a former business manager would possibly require a new computerized approach in his business office. Overall, however, the predominant pattern was that of reaction to complaint. The principals' awareness or recognition of a problem found root in the dissatisfaction of teachers, parents, and/or the larger community.

In the matter of seeking information to solve their problems, step two on the matrix, various approaches unique to each problem situation were employed. No one pattern

emerged. Yet, overall, the principals did seek information with a purpose. For instance, one principal spoke at length with a colleague of the gym teacher who was disseminating pornographic literature in order to "get at the root of the problem" and to gain needed information. Furthermore, and rather manipulatively, she compared handwriting on the disseminated literature with that which she found in the gym teacher's file so as to identify the offending teacher. In another instance, the principal who found himself dealing with an irate parent went to the chairman of the guidance department to investigate the problem concerning the counselor-student relationship. Also, the principal who had to deal with a "burned-out" teacher sought information and advice from the assistant principal, the department head, as well as the teacher himself in the effort to solve that problem. Another principal who sought to modify the operation of his business office went to accounting and computer experts for relevant and reliable information. Another principal who experienced morale problems made use of a general faculty meeting to surface grievances which his activities director warned him of privately. As the above examples and others on the matrix illustrated, the principals did seek out pertinent information to deal with their problems. Moreover, the sources which they utilized were varied and logically related to the individual problems which they confronted. While the principals were primarily

reactors in terms of problem awareness, they did "tackle" the problems once they were apprised of problem situations.

While the principals included in the sample were very much aware of problematic situations and made efforts to seek information to solve problems, they did not all explore and analyze alternatives. This fact is evident from the data illustrated in step three of the matrix, alternatives. Parenthetically, it should be noted that the "rational" steps of exploring and analyzing alternatives were combined in step three of the matrix simply because one would be hard pressed to analyze the alternatives if one did not explore them in the first place. It should also be noted that evidence of alternatives exploration and analysis was often inferred from the principals' solutions precisely because thoughtful analysis of alternatives often appeared to be a self-reflective process for many principals. In any event, a narrow majority of the principals did display some facility with exploration and analysis of alternatives. In fact, seven out of the twelve principals or some fifty-eight percent of those under study displayed this facility. In this manner, then, these principals were in line with a "rational" approach to problem-solving. As an example, one principal who sought to build community spirit in her school made use of weekly administrative team meetings to explore and analyze possible alternatives. Her possible alternatives became such concrete solutions as small group meetings with

faculty members to vent frustrations, a full-blown Catholic Education Week Program, and various informal faculty events, i.e., picnics and parties, to build spirit.

Another principal displayed in-depth analytical ability in his efforts to deal with the problem of a "burned-out" teacher. The principal consulted at great length with his assistant principal, the department head, and the teacher himself to develop an equitable solution to the problem. The principal and his advisors made specific prescriptions for changes in the teacher's classroom techniques. When such prescriptive changes did not serve to alleviate the problem, the principal actually modified the teacher's daily schedule to include some classroom responsibility as well as some office work with the school computers. This solution was beneficial both for the teacher and the school in that it enlivened the teacher's interest in his job and served to fill a void in the office. Furthermore, the principal made this schedule change fully aware of its consequences and implications for the rest of the staff and for the budget. The message that a veteran teacher experiencing "burnout" would not be "put out to pasture" was a very reassuring one for a faculty approaching middle age. In this case, an ethical consideration was compared to a financial consideration in the study of alternatives. Certainly, this principal displayed the ability to explore and analyze alternatives.

Another principal displayed this same ability when he related his detailed cost analysis of computerizing his business office. He found that the benefits of such computerization far outweighed his office staff's satisfaction with the traditional manual method. He noted that computerization not only saved man hours with the office staff but also made student scheduling more efficient for himself. Thus, his analysis illustrated real awareness of the consequences of different alternatives.

In another instance, analysis was evident in the effected solutions of the principal who sought to safeguard the religious identity of his school in the face of declining religious presence. For instance, his screening process for interviewing prospective lay teachers made provision for selecting teachers with a philosophy and goals in line with those of the school. That principal also developed a well-conceived orientation program for new teachers. The program included the assignment of "mentor" teachers to novices so that the novices would gain needed institutional support and direction. That same principal encouraged staff development projects such as annual colloquia with staff from other congregational schools in order to reinforce the religious mission of the schools. He also made provisions for days of recollection with staff and students to reinforce the religious dimension of the school. Finally, his long range curriculum improvement process had as its focus curricular

alignment with the school's philosophy and mission. As the above evidence demonstrates, this principal's efforts to solve the problem of continuity of identity clearly reflected an analytical approach to solving his problem. In summary then, the above cases, as well as others placed on the cross-site matrix, served to verify the fact that a majority, albeit a slim majority, of the principals did indeed display the ability to explore and analyze alternatives in their efforts to solve problems.

On the other hand, an analysis of the matrix also indicated that some five out of the twelve principals or some forty-two percent of those under study, a rather large minority, did not display evidence of alternatives exploration or analysis. In this way, then, these principals behaved much like the sample members whom Lundquist interviewed in her study. Her sample displayed little facility with the exploration of alternatives also.¹⁶

A number of cases in point from the present study would demonstrate this similarity to Lundquist's findings. For instance, the principal dealing with the gym teacher who distributed pornographic literature simply confronted the teacher with evidence and rather directly demanded that the offending teacher cease her disruptive behavior. Likewise, the principal confronted by an angry parent because of

16. Margaret Boyian Lundquist. *Loc.cit.*, 4231

a guidance counselor's accusations simply referred the matter to his director of guidance. The director then dealt with the problem. Similarly, the principal who discovered that some members on his staff were not fulfilling their supervision duties handed the problem over to an ad hoc committee of faculty members to solve. This delegatory stance figured largely in two other cases under study also. The principal with the problem of faculty morale also delegated problem-solving to an ad hoc committee. Likewise, the principal confronted with teacher complaints about declining achievement also referred the matter to an academic council. While the various committees may have served to explore alternatives - as the academic council certainly did when it investigated new texts and courses - the fact remains that these principals themselves relied on a single and rather standard approach. Thus, in a large minority of the cases under study, the principals did not display facility with either exploring or analyzing alternatives.

The final step of a rational decision-making process, the arrival at a preferred solution or solutions, also appears on the cross-site matrix. Many solutions of the principals were already mentioned in the above discussion of alternatives because many alternatives did become the chosen solutions. In this final step, however, the solutions appear not as chosen alternatives but as specific strategies for problem-solving. Consequently, this part of the matrix

very clearly and specifically points to the second research question of method. Several important considerations were obtained from this part of the analysis.

One major consideration that emerged was the fact that the greater majority of the principals either solved their problems or made concrete efforts to solve their problems. For instance, the principal who found herself dealing with an offensive gym teacher did put the distribution of suggestive literature to rest. Also, the principal who was confronted with an irate parent was able to pacify that parent through the good offices of his guidance director. The principal who sought to build up community spirit by asking her teachers to carry on a phone-a-thon to parents ceased that demand when she found it burdensome to teachers. The principal with the morale problem found that both his ad hoc committee recommendations and his modified schedule to insure greater faculty communication improved morale. Also, the principal who sought to make his business office more efficient did settle upon a computerized system which he installed and "sold" to his staff. Concrete steps toward insuring a continuity of religious identity were taken by the principal with that particular concern. Likewise, specific curricular reforms were put into place to meet the needs of a changing student population in another school. Hence, the solutions listed in Table X did verify the fact that the principals did solve their problems overall.

In reality, principals failed to solve their problems or failed to take concrete steps towards solutions in only two cases. Oddly enough, these two principals did display the ability to explore alternatives. However, they did not act. Thus, they displayed the ability to analyze problems but not to make and carry out logical choices or decisions. For instance, a principal seeking to improve communication with staff did analyze possible strategies such as general faculty meetings and voluntary small group discussions. However, she did not put either strategy into effect. Another principal who sought to improve her school's public image discussed possible alternatives with her administrative team and recruiter. Such alternatives included possible "Principal's Forum" meetings, visits to feeder school principals' meetings, and the appointment of a prominent community leader to her board of advisors. However, in reality, her only concrete solution was to combat false rumors with personal telephone responses. Yet, these two instances were the exception. Overall, the principals under study did demonstrate the ability to solve their problems.

Another point of interest lay in the fact that the data analysis of both alternatives and solutions underlined the basic unity or consistency of behavior of the principals in a very special sense. Those principals who demonstrated greater leadership skill and organizational ability in terms of such factors as multiple strategies, wide participation,

and effective planning, coordinating, and controlling for goal achievement were the very same principals who appeared more adept both at analyzing alternatives and at arriving at solutions for problems. For example, one principal had as his goal the improvement of morale in his school. He developed multiple strategies and encouraged wide participation to achieve that goal. He also provided for multiple coordinating and controlling mechanisms to achieve that goal. The same principal also displayed the ability to bring multiple strategies to bear upon his efforts to solve his problem of the continuity of religious identity in his school. These strategies, all listed in Table X, surely reflected an exploration and analysis of alternatives.

Similarly, another principal who demonstrated a well-developed plan for his goal of staff development, a plan that included multiple strategies, concrete checking mechanisms, and faculty participation, also displayed the ability to analyze alternatives and effect a preferred solution to his problem of computerizing his business office.

Still another principal with the goal of staff development displayed the same sense of creativity in her efforts to solve her problem, building community spirit, that she displayed in her efforts to improve staff. Indeed, she viewed her goals and problems as very much similar and interrelated. Her creativity and analytical ability were both evident in her goal achievement and her problem-solving pro-

cesses.

Likewise, another principal who displayed real analytical ability in his attempt to deal with the problem of a "burned-out" teacher also experienced success with his goal of improving academic achievement in his school. Thus, there was a consistency of behavior for those principals who appeared more adept at leadership skill, organizational ability, and problem-solving.

On the other hand, the converse also seemed to be true. Those principals who adopted a more narrow approach to goal achievement, by and large, demonstrated less facility with problem-solving. For instance, the principal who relied on a single method to achieve her goal of improving morale was the very same principal who effected no solution to her problem of communication with her faculty. Perhaps, the problem of communication was the underlying cause of poor morale. Likewise, one principal whose goal was to build community spirit with her faculty relied solely on informal private conversations with key informants to deal with a recalcitrant faculty member partly responsible for damaging that community spirit. Interestingly, she was the very same principal who was able to explore alternatives for her public relations problem but who was unable to put a solution into place for better public relations. Also, two principals who delegated their goals of curricular reform to bureaucratically oriented committees also delegated prob-

lem-solving. They did not demonstrate any real facility with exploring or analyzing alternatives. In one such case, a principal delegated his human relations problem of counselor-student conflict to the director of guidance. In another case, a principal delegated his supervision problem to an ad hoc committee to solve.

Thus, there was a certain consistency or unity of the data in the sense that similar patterns of principals' behavior were evident across the NASSP skill dimensions. This was the case in spite of the fact that some minor deviations in the data did exist. However, such deviations were not so much the result of real pattern variations as they were the result of unique situations. For example, a principal may have encouraged wide participation for goal achievement but not for problem-solving since some problem situations were individually-oriented. This was the case with the principal confronted with the "burned-out" teacher. He dealt with an individual's problem confidentially. Yet, he did consult with others when he set up an ad hoc committee to achieve his goal of curricular reform. So, in spite of minor variations based on unique situations, those principals who were more adept at leadership and organizational ability demonstrated greater ability in terms of problem analysis and judgement. Conversely, those principals who were less adept at leadership and organizational ability demonstrated less ability in terms of problem analysis and judgement. This is

not to say that some principals did not demonstrate NASSP skill facility while others did. However, some principals - again, one half of them - demonstrated greater facility than the others.

Another point of importance emerged from the analysis of the principals' strategies for problem-solving. That point was related to overall style, a factor also analyzed in the previous section on leadership skill. Previous analysis led to the conclusion that the principals usually employed a consultative style to achieve their goals. If one were to search through the strategies employed by the principals for problem-solving, one would not find consultation to be such a predominant pattern. Indeed, there were a number of patterns in evidence.

While consultation was not as predominant a pattern as it was for the exercise of leadership skill, it certainly was a pattern for a number of the principals under study. Five of the solution approaches were consultative. For example, the principal who dealt with a supervision problem consulted with his faculty in general and with an ad hoc committee in particular to solve his problem. Similarly, the principal who sought to improve morale also consulted at a general faculty meeting as well as with an ad hoc committee to deal with his problem. Another principal who sought to build community spirit consulted with faculty in small groups to share information and to hear grievances.

The principal faced with a burned-out teacher did extensive consultation before he decided upon his course of action. Also, one principal made use of expert consultants from the fields of accounting and computer technology before he installed his new computer in his business office. Thus, consultation, the predominant style of choice of leadership skill, was also one style which emerged from the analysis of problem solutions.

However, other principals employed different styles. For instance, the principal who delegated his counselor-student conflict to the director of guidance was nondirective. The principal who delegated the problem of declining student achievement to an academic council was also non-directive. Similarly, the principal who sought to insure the continuity of religious identity in his school employed several nondirective techniques or strategies. Such strategies included days of recollection, congregational colloquia, and a long range curricular improvement process. That same principal was also more directive in his screening/hiring process. Finally, full collaboration as a style really emerged only in one instance, that of the principal concerned about her board of trustees. The board members and she agreed to meet periodically and informally to analyze the poor dynamics of the formal board meetings. Furthermore, she and the board members together sought the assistance of an archdiocesan facilitator to help solve the

problem of poor communication. Therefore, while consultation, the predominant style orientation for goal achievement, did surface more often than any other style for problem-solving, it was not the pattern in the majority of the cases. Rather, a variety of styles were evident. Such styles appeared to be a function of the nature of the problems dealt with by the individual principals.

One final point should be made regarding the principals' methods or strategies for solving their problems. While there was no predominant style, and while the strategies of some principals reflected more analysis than those of others, the essential importance of communication skill for solutions was highlighted by the data. One need only glance at the list of solutions on Table X to verify this assertion. Moreover, the literature review also pointed up this centrality of communication skill to problem analysis and judgement. Blumberg and Greenfield asserted that the effective principals whom they studied all demonstrated good communication skill as well as facility with problem-solving strategies.¹⁷ Also, Karen Angello's dissertation study pointed up the importance of communication within the organization for reducing problems and/or conflict.¹⁸

Certainly, the concrete strategies employed by the

17. Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield. *Op.cit.*, 257

18. Karen S. Angello. *Loc.cit.*, 27

principals in the present study highlighted that same need for communication skills and mechanisms to solve problems. Several brief examples would demonstrate this finding. The principal dealing with the disruptive gym teacher made use of private conferences or face to face communication to investigate and solve her problem. The principal concerned about morale set up a general faculty meeting structure to air grievances, established an ad hoc committee to investigate solutions, provided for questionnaires to analyze alternatives, and developed a flexible meeting schedule to insure continued communication between the various factions within his faculty. His solutions entailed communication on many levels. Another principal concerned about building community spirit communicated her concern for and appreciation of her staff in a variety of ways from faculty picnics and "banana split parties" to weekly small group meetings of administrators with staff. Also, the principal who developed an alternate schedule for his "burned-out" teacher certainly applied communication skill in dealing with the teacher and with those who provided input to and were affected by the final decision. Likewise, another principal who sought to make his business office more efficient communicated on two different levels in his efforts to solve his problems. First, he communicated with experts in the fields of accounting and computer technology to gain useful information. Secondly, he communicated with his office

staff in his efforts to sell computerization and allay any and all fears of change. Communication was also both the problem and the essential ingredient for solution in the case of a principal in conflict with her board of trustees. Therefore, the above-mentioned solutions, as well as others listed on the matrix, certainly reinforced the essential role of communication skill in problem-solving. While different solutions often required different styles of operation, all styles underlined the very necessary role that communication skill played in the development and execution of problem-solving strategies.

Problem-solving Methods - Summary Comments

The rich sources of data which were synthesized and illustrated in Table X served to provide concrete examples of principals engaging the NASSP skills of problem analysis and judgement. The data did verify that the principals made concrete efforts toward following a rational approach to decision-making, particularly in terms of identifying problems and in terms of seeking out information to effect solutions. Also, the data served to indicate that some principals were more adept at exploring and analyzing alternatives than others. The data also served to answer the second research question of methods or strategies since the methods or strategies employed by the principals were evident in their effected solutions. The following specific summary comments, then, serve to synthesize the rather lengthy dis-

cussion of the previous pages.

1. The principals under study did display facility in problem identification. Furthermore, the predominant pattern for problem awareness was reaction to complaint.
2. The principals under study did display facility in seeking out information to solve their problems. Furthermore, the sources of information tapped were appropriate to the problems the principals encountered.
3. A narrow majority of seven of the principals under study displayed facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives.
4. Conversely, a large minority of five of the principals under study did not display facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives.
5. The greater majority of the principals under study, ten out of the twelve in the sample, did succeed in solving their problems or did succeed in taking concrete steps in the direction of solving their problems.
6. Overall, the solutions effected by the principals were appropriate to the problem situations. That is to say, individual problems were dealt with individually and confidentially. Group problems were dealt with in appropriate groups.

7. Those principals who were more adept at analysis of alternatives and effecting a preferred solution were the same principals who displayed greater facility with the NASSP skills of leadership and organizational ability.
8. Conversely, those principals who were less adept at analysis of alternatives and effecting a preferred solution were the same principals who displayed less facility with the NASSP skills of leadership and organizational ability.
9. No one general problem-solving style predominated in the behaviors of the principals under study. Rather, style appeared to be a function of problem type.
10. Communication skill was central to all problem solutions employed by the principals under study.

Problem-solving Resources - Analysis

There is no doubt that an answer to the third research question, that of human and material resources for problem-solving, was implied in the data which appeared in Table X, since sources and/or intervening factors cannot easily be separated from methods or strategies. As an example, one would be hard pressed to discuss the problem of a "burned-out" teacher without also pointing to the significant positive role that an assistant principal and a department head could play in discovering a solution. Thus, resources al-

ready surfaced in an indirect fashion. However, for the purpose of greater clarity and thoroughness, the human and material factors involved in problem-solving were placed on another matrix, Table XI. One should note that the basic structure of Table XI is the same as that which was employed in Table V, resources and/or factors affecting goal achievement or leadership skill. The same notation "+" for a positive factor and "-" for a negative factor was employed. Positive factors were viewed as positive resources for problem-solving by the principals. Negative factors were seen as hindrances to problem-solving. Summaries for each site as well as for the entire sample have also been indicated on the table.

Several important considerations were inferred from the analysis of Table XI, the cross-site matrix of human and material resources for problem analysis and judgement. An over-riding consideration was the fact that the principals again noted more positive than negative factors overall. This fact was especially interesting because one would assume that the discussion of problems would have a more negative tone. However, that was not the case. A specific count would indicate that the principals identified some twenty-seven positive factors and some twenty-three negative factors. As in the case of leadership skill factors, the principals under study were able to see both positive and negative aspects of their problems. In this sense, then,

Table XI
Resources By Site

Site #1.	Site #2.	Site #3.	Site #4.
Problem: Disruptive gym teacher	Problem: Student-counselor conflict	Problem: Supervisors failure to supervise	Problem: Communication with staff
Gym teacher distributing pornographic literature "-"	Individual counselor "-"	Individual teacher-supervisors "-"	Faculty in general "-"
Colleague teacher who informs principal "+"	Complaining parent "-"	Ad hoc committee "+"	Principal's time "-"
	Director of Guidance "+"		Principal's energy "-"

Total "+" - 1	Total "+" - 1	Total "+" - 1	Total "+" - 0
Total "-" - 1	Total "-" - 2	Total "-" - 1	Total "-" - 3

Total "+" for entire sample - 27
Total "-" for entire sample - 23

Table XI - Continued

Site #5.	Site #6.	Site #7.	Site #8.
Problem: Spirit build- ing	Problem: Staff morale	Problem: Burned out teacher	Problem: Comput- erization of business office
Staff in general "+"	Staff in general "-"	Individual teacher "-"	Death of business manager "-"
Parents "+"	Size of school "-"	Assistant principal "+"	Office staff "-"
Assistant principals "+"	Budget limits "-"	Department head "+"	Financial con- siderations "+", "-"
Experts from congregation "+"	Time of year "-"	Consequences "+", "-"	Experts in accounting and computers "+"
	Activities Director "+"	Ethics "+", "-"	
	Ad hoc com- mittee "+"		
	Modified schedule "+"		

Total "+" - 4
Total "-" - 0

Total "+" - 3
Total "-" - 4

Total "+" - 4
Total "-" - 3

Total "+" - 2
Total "-" - 3

Total "+" for entire sample - 27
Total "-" for entire sample - 23

Table XI - Continued

Site #9.	Site #10.	Site #11.	Site #12.
Problem: Communication with board of trustees	Problem: Changing student population	Problem: Continuity of religious identity in school	Problem: Public relations image of school
Board members "-"	Expert consultants "+"	Staff in general "+"	Parents "-"
Congregational bureaucracy "-"	Student ability "-"	Department heads/mentors "+"	Elementary school principals "-"
Archdiocesan expert "+"	Complaining teachers "-"	Experts from congregation "+"	Administrative team "+"
	Department heads "+"	Committees for curricular revision "+"	Recruiter "+"
	Academic council and department structure "+"		
	Texts, standardized scores, written evaluations "+"		
Total "+" - 1	Total "+" - 4	Total "+" - 4	Total "+" - 2
Total "-" - 2	Total "-" - 2	Total "-" - 0	Total "-" - 2
Total "+" for entire sample - 27			
Total "-" for entire sample - 23			

the principals were realistic in their perceptions. They saw both good and bad aspects of their problem situations.

Another key point of consideration in the analysis of resources was the fact that human factors/resources far outweighed material factors/resources in the minds of the principals. Furthermore, and more specifically, individual teachers or groups of teachers appeared to be the major negative human factors involved in the problem situations. This point was already alluded to in previous pages. However, a specific discussion of factors influencing the problem-solving process would certainly necessitate a reiteration of this point. Individuals such as a gym teacher, a guidance counselor, and a "burned-out" teacher as well as groups such as supervisors and faculty in general all served as problem sources or negative factors affecting the problem situations. Moreover, while many of the problem situations were related to teachers directly, some of the other problem situations were related to teachers more indirectly. For instance, the matter of continuing religious identity reduced itself to a staff selection problem. The problem of computerization of a business office eventually became a problem of encouraging individual staff members to accept change. Thus, a predominant pattern appeared to be that of the principal dealing with "people" problems and, more specifically, the principal dealing with teacher-related conflicts. Teachers were truly the major human factors - in-

deed, the major negative factors - in problem situations.

While teachers were the major sources of problems for many of the principals, they also served to assist the principals in problem-solving in many cases. In this way, then, a principal's staff often took on the image of the "two-edged sword." This finding was consistent with the finding on leadership which pointed to staff members in various roles as positive resources for goal achievement also.

There are a number of instances of the positive role of staff members in problem-solving illustrated in Table XI. For instance, a fellow gym teacher served as a source of information for the principal dealing with a disruptive gym teacher. Also in another school setting, a director of guidance settled the problem of counselor-student conflict in a satisfactory manner. Likewise, an assistant principal and a department head provided information and possible alternative solutions to the principal confronted by a "burned-out" teacher. Administrative team members were instrumental in developing alternatives to spirit building in another school.

In addition to individual staff members, groups of teachers served to help alleviate problem situations in many instances. For instance, the principal concerned about continuing the religious identity of his school relied on department heads and "mentor" teachers to orient and guide new faculty members and to carry out a curricular improve-

ment project. Ad hoc committees of teachers and an academic council of department heads served to explore alternatives to morale problems, supervision problems, and curricular revision problems. Thus, the principals under study did rely on their faculties in various roles to alleviate problem situations. While teachers may have been described as negative factors in many instances, they were also certainly cited as positive resources.

The above-mentioned finding along with other findings pointed to in previous sections of the data analysis again highlight the crucial nature of a principal's relationship with his or her staff for carrying out goals and solving problems. In a real sense, this finding reinforces the very political nature of the principalship. Indeed, if one were to examine the other human factors noted in Table XI, factors such as irate parents and problematic principal colleagues, one would agree further that political acumen is an important asset for educational leadership and problem-solving.

While human factors such as teachers figured largely both as sources of problems and resources for solutions, non-human factors did not figure largely in the discussion. Factors such as budgetary considerations played a minimal role in the principals' discussions of their problems. This finding was somewhat surprising since Catholic school budgets have a reputation for being rather limited. Yet, only

the principal committed to computerization of his business office and a principal concerned about morale issues made note of budgetary constraints as negative factors of consideration. In analysis, it is quite possible that the ever present realization that finances are limited may have indirectly forced the principals to rely on their staffs as the primary resources for problem-solving. This may have been the case quite simply because the principals have learned to accept the fact that they cannot rely on financial resources to help solve problems. At any rate, very few non-human and/or material factors were noted by the principals in their discussions. The few factors which did surface, factors such as time constraints and school size, did not appear to have a significant effect on the principals.

One final consideration concerning resources was the fact that a number of the principals, five of them, did point to outside sources or experts in various fields as positive factors for problem-solving. Oddly enough, this number of experts called upon to assist in problem-solving was larger than the number of experts called upon to assist in achieving goals. It must be remembered that the assertion was made that the principals appeared to be somewhat "provincial" in their approach to goal achievement because of their heavy reliance on local staff rather than educational experts. Yet, in the case of problem-solving, there

appeared to be a somewhat greater willingness to look to the advice of experts. For instance, one principal sought out accounting and computer experts to assist him in modernizing his business office. Indeed, computer software and accounting experts served as consultants for an entire year after he installed his computer system. In two other instances, principals relied on their congregational experts in education to provide them with information and assistance. In one of those instances, a principal relied on yearly staff colloquia with congregational experts as a key part of his set of solutions for the continuity of the school's religious identity. Also, the principal facing declining student achievement noted that her academic council sought the expert advice of curriculum specialists, feeder school principals, and fellow colleagues in neighboring schools in order to develop adequate and effective study skills and math programs. Finally, another principal and her board of trustees turned to the good offices of an archdiocesan facilitator to help alleviate the problem of poor communication at board meetings. Thus, there did appear to be some effort on the part of a large minority of the principals to call upon the advice of experts to help solve problems.

However, as in the case of leadership skill, there again appeared to be no articulated theoretical framework or base from educational or social science research con-

sciously operative in the problem-solving behaviors of the principals under study. Indeed, as one principal pointed out during the course of her discussion, she "supposed" that she followed "some sort of a process" to solve her problems. So, the benefits of "expert" knowledge were applied minimally for problem-solving just as they were applied minimally for goal achievement. Also, a theoretical framework or problem-solving model was again not consciously articulated.

Problem-solving Resources - Summary Comments

In conclusion, a number of summary comments can be made with regard to the resources or factors involved in the problem-solving behaviors of the principals under study.

1. As in the case of the analysis of leadership skill resources, the principals identified both positive and negative factors influencing problem-solving. While more positive factors were identified by the principals, the inclusion of a significant number of negative factors indicated that the principals did have a realistic view of their problem situations.
2. Human factors influenced the principals' problem-solving behaviors much more than non-human or material factors. Indeed, material factors seemed to have little influence.
3. The predominant negative human factors in the prin-

cipals' problem situations were teachers, either as individuals or as groups.

4. As in the case of the analysis of leadership skill resources, the principals indicated that teachers in various roles served as the most predominant positive resources for problem-solving. The teachers served as resources either as individuals or as groups.
5. A large minority of the principals noted that "experts" from various fields served as positive resources for problem-solving. Yet, no principal pointed to a theoretical framework or educational and social science research as a basis for developing and executing a problem-solving process. In this regard, the principals' exercise of both leadership and problem-solving skills were similar overall.

Participatory Decision-making - Preliminary Remarks and Analysis

Much of the literature reviewed in Chapter II concerning problem-solving or decision-making focused on the benefits of dealing with problems in a participatory or shared manner. For instance, Argyris' "double looped learning" or Model II of leadership invited a real sharing between the leader and the followers in a decision-making process. Other writers also cited in the literature, such as Shaw

and Sparkes, echoed this same theme. Shaw asserted that group decision-making permitted leadership from within to be maximized and errors in judgement to be minimized. Speaking from a more pragmatic perspective, Sparkes pointed to shared decision-making as a political weapon to be used to minimize conflict between principal and staff in a school community. Also, researchers such as Burleson and Weber found shared decision-making to be the best approach for solving problems in experimental settings. On the other hand, researchers such as Lundquist, Angello, Dunstan, and Greenleaf discovered that there were real limits to shared decision-making in actual practice.¹⁹

In any event, any fairly complete examination of the principals' problem-solving behaviors on the job certainly should address this theoretically preferred methodology even though the NASSP definitions of problem analysis and judgement did not make a direct reference to such a method. However, those definitions as well as others among the NASSP skill dimensions would certainly apply to such a method of leadership activity. Problem analysis or seeking information with a purpose would admit of the suitability of shared decision-making as at least one approach toward gaining valuable insight into a problem situation.

The structure employed in this section of the data

19. A fuller discussion of these authors and their perspectives appears in Chapter II, pages 55 to 85.

analysis, the exploration of shared or participatory decision-making, followed from the interview questions asked of the principals under study. Those questions focused on the principals' own understanding of participatory decision-making, their applications of such a method, and their estimation of its strengths and weaknesses. The responses of the principals provided insights into the structures which they employed in participatory decision-making as well as the human resources involved in those structures. Thus, as in the case of other sections, their concrete behaviors served as the basis for analysis. The data obtained from their responses were synthesized and illustrated in the cross-site matrix, Table XII.

There was one rather strong and clearly evident finding from this section of the data analysis. All of the principals under study employed only a limited brand of participatory or shared decision-making on the job. Indeed, their overall understanding of shared decision-making could be summarized in a synthesis of two statements made by two of the principals. Participatory or shared decision-making was "getting input from those affected by the decision" in order to make "an intelligent choice based on the information available." This statement substantially reflected the point of view of all of the principals under study. In fact, only two of the principals really worked "toward consensus" for decisions or completely shared the decision-

Table XII
Participatory Decision-making by Site

	Site #1	Site #2	Site #3
Structures Employed	Weekly administration meetings.	Weekly meetings of principal's advisory council.	Weekly administration meetings.
Example	Principal consults administration concerning wearing honor stoles at graduation.	Principal consults council regarding fund raising activities.	Principal consults administration regarding recommended changes of graduation requirements.
Human Resources	Assistant principals.	Assistants and general area department heads.	Assistants and general area department heads.
Strengths	Training for assistants. Greater certitude in decisions. See the "bigger picture."	Cross-section representation.	Less opposition from staff. Decision has a better chance of success.
Weaknesses	Time-consuming. Not enough parent consultation.	Members of council inherited, not selected by the principal.	Those in opposition are free to lobby against a decision.

Table XII - Continued

	Site #4	Site #5	Site #6
Structures Employed	Weekly meetings of executive council. Monthly meetings of academic council.	Weekly meetings of administrative team. Department meetings with team members. Faculty forum.	Weekly meetings of principal's advisory council. Monthly faculty meetings. Monthly meetings of academic council.
Example	Principal consults with academic council regarding curricular modifications but executes changes with assistant alone.	Principal and team permit academic departments to select assignments.	Principal consults with academic council concerning band credits. Principal consults with faculty in general concerning senior exam schedule.
Human Resources	Assistants. Academic department heads.	Assistants. Department heads. Faculty in general.	Assistants. General area and academic department heads. Faculty in general.
Strengths	Investment of staff in decision.	Ownership of decision. Broader perspective. Great amount of input.	Ownership of decision.
Weaknesses	Time-consuming. Staff has narrow perspective or unsound data.	Some staff have narrow perspective.	Vocal minority are free to lobby against a decision.

Table XII - Continued

	Site #7	Site #8	Site #9
Structures Employed	Weekly administration meetings. Monthly faculty meetings.	Meetings of informal administrative team. Regular faculty meetings. Regular meetings of academic council.	Regular meetings of administrative team. Regular meetings of academic council and curriculum committee.
Example	Principal consults faculty in general concerning change in discipline code and school calendar.	Principal consults with academic council and team concerning curricular changes.	Principal and team consult with academic council concerning curricular changes.
Human Resources	Assistants. Faculty in general.	Assistants. Academic department heads. Faculty in general.	Assistants. Academic department heads. Curriculum committee members.
Strengths	Training for assistants. Greater certitude in decisions. Ownership of decision.	Great amount of input. Peoples' "feelings" are heard.	Team members demonstrate a "united front." Team members support each other. Greater amount of input.
Weaknesses	Time-consuming. Those with delegated responsibilities can "cut corners" if not monitored.	Some staff fail to "take a stand."	Time-consuming.

Table XII - Continued

	Site #10	Site #11	Site #12
Structures Employed	Weekly administration meetings process faculty recommendations.	Weekly staff meetings. Weekly team meetings. General faculty meetings. Meetings with student council and parent organization.	Weekly administration meetings. Regular faculty council meetings.
Example	Principal and administration consult with faculty concerning grading policy of the school.	Principal consults all concerning modified semester exam schedule and school calendar.	Principal consults with administration concerning expulsion case but reverses recommendation.
Human Resources	Assistants. Faculty in general.	Assistants. Faculty in general. Students. Parents.	Assistants. General area department heads. Faculty in general.
Strengths	Great amount of input. Small group (department) meetings allow the more retired faculty members to participate.	Process incorporates everybody in decisions.	Broader perspective.
Weaknesses	Indifference of some staff.	Time-consuming. Cumbersome. Redundant.	Information acquired confidentially. Cannot be shared openly.

making process. Even in those two cases, such a process was employed within the small circle of a close-knit administrative team. Such a process was not employed with the faculty at large. Thus, in their understanding and in their practices, the principals truly limited the participatory nature of decision-making or problem-solving. Quite simply, participatory or shared decision-making was "consultation" with those affected by the direction a decision might take.

The above-mentioned major finding was fairly evident in the answers made to the first question in the pertinent section of the interview schedule. In fact, when the principals were asked for their understanding of participatory decision-making, they very often did not respond with a cognitive definition but rather with an explanation of the structures within their schools which, to them, gave evidence of participatory decision-making in action. Hence, the first part of the matrix is a listing of structures rather than a listing of definitions from the principals.

An examination of this first part will verify that the principals, by and large, considered their administrative organizations or advisory councils to be the predominant arenas for sharing in the decision-making or problem-solving process. All of the principals noted that they held weekly administration meetings with their assistants and their general department heads (as opposed to their academic department heads). Such meetings allowed the principals to

receive input and advice from curriculum directors, activities directors, athletic directors, and others responsible for general areas in the school. Although some of the principals did ordinarily operate such weekly meetings in a collaborative or collegial manner, "advisory" is the proper term to use to describe the general pattern. In fact, two such administrative structures were actually called "Principal's Advisory Councils." While the principals usually accepted and followed the advice that was given, they still did reserve the final decision-making prerogative to themselves if they so chose. As one principal put it rather succinctly, "I tell them - we'll talk about it - but we're not going to vote here." While many of the principals did actually carry on voting in their administration meetings, and even sometimes lost in the voting process, the principals did point out that they could over-rule vote results. One rather graphic example might illustrate this point. One of the principals under study told the members of his administrative team that they could vote to retain a faculty member on staff. However, regardless of the final outcome of the vote, he had already decided to dismiss the teacher. Even though the team voted to retain the teacher, the principal actually did dismiss him. While this example was admittedly extreme, the fact remains that the principals retained their ultimate authority to decide. Again, only two principals and their teams made use of a completely shared

approach to decision-making on a regular basis. When these two teams made a decision, that decision was truly the result of consensus. However, overall, the administrative structures employed by the principals under study were primarily consultative in nature. In this sense, then, participatory decision-making was limited.

One need only look to some of the principals' concrete examples of consultation with their administrative organizations or councils to verify the above assertion. One principal consulted with her council on the matter of wearing graduation stoles before deciding to prohibit such a practice. Another principal consulted with his advisory council concerning appropriate fund raising activities before deciding on a "walk-a-thon." Two other principals used their councils as arenas for the discussion of modifying graduation requirements. The limited nature of participation was certainly evident in one instance of modifying requirements. When some members of a principal's administration objected strongly to his proposals for modification, he responded by telling those members that the modifications, the inclusion of higher level math requirements among the general graduation requirements, would take place despite their objections. Another principal consulted with her council concerning a discipline case. The council recommended expulsion. However, when she received further information about the case, she retained the student. To her

credit, she did explain the rationale for her change of decision to the council members. Thus, these concrete examples of decision-making certainly do illustrate the consultative and limited nature of much participatory decision-making.

The principals did not always limit consultation to the arenas of administrative organizations or councils. Participatory decision-making was somewhat expanded at times. In fact, some principals demonstrated that they not only consulted with their councils but also with the faculty at large or with appropriate committees. Faculty and committee meetings sometimes served as the arenas for sharing advice. In this way, then, the principals' actions were in line with the findings of the Greenleaf study cited in the literature review. Greenleaf pointed out that the level of participation in shared decision-making was affected by the nature of the decision. In other words, those who would be affected by a change were consulted.²⁰ In some cases, the principals followed this line of behavior. Furthermore, some principals even invited general voting to make global decisions. For instance, one principal allowed his faculty to vote on modifications of the discipline code in the school. Other principals permitted the faculty to vote on the school calendar. However, much as in the case of the

20. Robert Greenleaf. *Loc.cit.*, 1767

Greenleaf and Dunstan studies, those principals set general parameters for participation at the start of the meetings.²¹ One principal and her team allowed departments to decide on teaching assignments within pre-established parameters. Other principals made use of academic councils to process recommendations for curricular changes. Again, however, the councils made recommendations. The principals reserved the right to make final decisions. Thus, while the principals utilized participatory decision-making in the sense that they listened to the parties affected by decisions, their primary mode of operation was limited to consultation. The sample data on Table XII verified this point. Moreover, if one were to return to the data on leadership methods, one would also find that consultation was the predominant style of operation there. While consultation was not the predominant style for problem analysis and judgement, it was still evident in many cases of problem-solving. Thus, there was a certain overall consistency of style in the principals' behaviors.

In the matter of resources engaged in participatory or shared decision-making, assistant principals, general and academic department heads, and faculty members in general all served to provide advice and assistance to the principals under study. The assistant principals and general

21. Robert Greenleaf. *Ibid.*, 1767
Jeffrey Dunstan. *Loc.cit.*, 1396

department heads were the primary resources since they served as members of the administrative structures in which most decision-making took place. Again, there was a certain unity or consistency of the data in the sense that assistants in various roles provided resource support for decision-making as well as for the other leadership skills such as planning, coordinating, and controlling. Assistants also certainly played a large consultative role in problem-solving. One need only review the role of assistants in exploring alternatives for such problem situations as the "burned-out" teacher and spirit building to verify this point. Thus, assistants were essential resources in participatory decision-making as well as for other skill dimensions.

While assistants were the primary resources in participatory decision-making, faculty members in general were also resources consulted in what one principal called "global issues," issues in which the entire faculty had a direct stake. Principals consulted faculty members in general for advice concerning calendar, discipline codes, exam schedules, and the changing of grading standards. Also, principals consulted groups of teachers in committees to deal with such problems as curricular modifications. Again, there was a certain consistency in the data for participatory decision-making as well as for other leadership skills explored in this study. Such an emphasis on the important role of staff as resources emerged for all skills under analysis.

Furthermore, the crucial nature of a principal's relationship with staff in participatory decision-making not only again highlighted the political nature of the principal's job but also reinforced the Sparkes and Angello assertions that such a methodology serves to minimize organizational conflict.

Another point of importance, relating both to methods and resources employed in participatory decision-making, emerged from further analysis of the data in Table XII as well as in other tables in the study. That point not only reinforced the consistency of the behaviors of the principals across skill dimensions but also strengthened the assertion that shared decision-making was limited in nature.

As was mentioned above, consultation was a predominant style for the principals under study. Furthermore, assistants in particular and faculty in general were the major positive resources for engaging skills. It was also asserted earlier in the discussion of skills that one half or fifty percent of the principals encouraged wider participation in the goal achievement process, provided for multiple organizing mechanisms, and displayed greater facility with analyzing alternatives for solving problems. If one were to examine Table XII closely, one would find that those principals also appeared to be less limited in their approach to participatory decision-making. They were the principals who opened decisions up to faculty groups, com-

mittees, and administrative councils for consultation. While those principals did still see shared decision-making as consultation, they consulted with a wider audience than other principals.

Some specific examples would verify the above-mentioned point. The principal who employed a number of strategies and consulted with a number of audiences in his school in his efforts to reach his goal of improving morale was the very same principal who provided for a number of organizing mechanisms to accomplish his goal. He also displayed facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives for solving his problem of continuing religious identity in his school. That same principal indicated that weekly staff meetings, administrative team meetings, faculty meetings, and consultation with his student council and parent organization served as the arenas for his brand of participatory or shared decision-making. A concrete illustration will reinforce this point. When an assistant came to him late in the year to discuss the possibility of modifying the daily bell schedule in the school, the principal refused to consider such a change. He did so because he felt that such a change would affect not only teachers but also students and their parents. Therefore, he found it necessary to consult with the student council, his parents, and his teachers before he made such a change. His preference for consultation and wide participation not only appeared in his exercise of

leadership skill but also in his exercise of decision-making.

Another principal who employed the support of an administrative team, "stand-up" meetings for staff recognition, and quality circles to develop her staff also demonstrated facility with organizational ability and the development of various strategies to solve her problem of building spirit. She was the principal who employed a Catholic Education Week Program and faculty picnics as part of her efforts to build community spirit. This same principal pointed to her administrative team, meetings of team members with academic departments, and a Faculty Forum as arenas for participatory decision-making. This was the same principal who set the parameters for teaching assignments and then permitted the individual departments to make the teaching assignments within those parameters. As a point of interest, this principal noted that the Faculty Forum structure was established to air grievances and complaints. However, such a structure fell into some disuse after a time because the spirit in the school was so good and because the quality circles and meetings with team members were so fruitful. Yet, the initiation and employment of the forum did indicate that the principal was open to advice. She consulted extensively.

Four other principals under study also gave evidence of this consistency of behavior with a less limited approach

to participatory decision-making. They encouraged wide participation, created multiple organizing mechanisms, and explored and analyzed alternatives. They were the very principals who consulted widely in such decision-making situations as modifying exam schedules, modifying discipline codes, making curricular changes, etc. However, the other half of the principals limited their participatory decision-making primarily to consultation with administrative organizations and councils. These same principals took a more narrow approach toward goal achievement and staff organization. These principals also displayed little facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives for problem-solving. In this sense, these principals were very much like Lundquist's managers and principals who limited alternatives exploration and shared decision-making.²² Thus, the converse pattern again appeared in the data.

Some examples will also verify the converse pattern discussed above. For instance, one of the principals whose goal was to improve morale relied solely on one structure to achieve that goal - monthly meetings with a faculty representative to share information. She was also the principal who displayed some ability to analyze alternatives for her communication problem. However, her analysis did not lead to any concrete solutions. That same principal cited her

22. Margaret Boyian Lundquist, *Loc.cit.*, 4231

executive council as the forum for shared decision-making and also pointed to an academic council as a forum for discussing curricular change. Yet, she employed neither forum to make final plans for curricular change. Rather, she and her first assistant decided upon and communicated changes to her staff. Participatory decision-making was as limited as other skill engagement.

In another instance, a principal achieved his goal of modifying his school's graduation requirements by relying on the work of only one bureaucratic and hierarchically oriented committee, his academic council, for recommendations. Also, in terms of organizational ability, this same principal again displayed heavy reliance on his academic council and his assistant principal to plan, coordinate, and control his goal achievement process. This principal also displayed little or no evidence of alternatives exploration for his supervision problem. He was the same principal who told members of his administrative council, his vehicle for shared or participatory decision-making, that they would have to accept his decisions regarding curricular changes and regarding the dismissal of an unsatisfactory teacher despite opposition from some members of that council. Thus, he consulted in a limited manner.

In another instance of pattern consistency, the principal who sought to deal with the problem of a recalcitrant or disruptive teacher by seeking the advice of a few key

informants on her staff also found it difficult to arrive at a fixed plan of action to combat a poor public relations image. She was also the same principal who consulted with her administration concerning an expulsion case, followed the advice of her council on that case, and then reversed her decision when she was apprised of further information. Therefore, her behavior patterns were consistently limited across skill dimensions much like the behavior patterns of the other principals discussed directly above.

In summary then, a close examination of the data did indicate that half of the principals were less limited in their consultative approach to participatory decision-making than the others. They encouraged wider participation in the decision-making process. They also were the same principals who demonstrated greater facility in the engagement of the other skills under study. However, and conversely, one half of the principals demonstrated less facility in overall skill engagement as well as in participatory decision-making.

A final example will serve to illustrate clearly the decision-making approach of the second half of the principals. One of those principals indicated that he consulted with his advisory council each week about various decisions. Yet, in the course of discussion, he pointed out that he would not even bring issues to the council when he knew that his position on such issues would not be supported. His

shared decision-making was truly limited indeed.

The final aspect of the analysis of participatory or shared decision-making was really a matter of perspective or judgement on the part of the principals. This was the case because the principals were asked to give their estimations of the strengths and weaknesses of the participatory decision-making processes or methods which they employed on the job. Their responses or estimations were also placed on the cross-site matrix. Such responses did demonstrate some similarity of perspective among the principals both for strengths and for weaknesses.

If one were to examine the list of strengths, one would observe some different responses. For instance, two principals under study found shared decision-making to be excellent training strategies for their assistant principals. Another principal pointed out that shared decision-making within the context of a small group process gave the more reticent teacher or staff member a certain level of confidence and freedom to contribute to group discussion. Also, some principals found that sharing decision-making broadened perspectives. Two principals pointed out that there would be a greater confidence in the correctness of the shared decision. This perspective was in line with the Shaw point of view mentioned above.²³ Thus, the principals

23. N. E. Shaw. *Op.cit.*, 64

did note a number of strengths.

However, most principals - in fact, eight out of twelve - felt that the greatest strength of participatory decision-making lay in the fact that it invited ownership of the decision. While not all principals under study actually made mention of the term, "ownership," such a term aptly characterized their point of view. Most of the principals under study did demonstrate a rather practical and politically shrewd appreciation for the fact that lack of staff investment in a decision could spell disaster for that decision. The interesting irony, however, lay in the fact that the principals did see that practical and political value of a shared decision-making process or method. Yet, they still limited their own practice of such a method on the job. Indeed, some fifty percent of those principals very much limited their consultation to small groups of people, their administrative councils or teams. Hence, while the principals under study did seem to appreciate the strengths of a sharing model, they did not fully carry over their appreciation into concrete practice. This difference between perspective and practice reinforced the Argyris and Schon differentiation between espousal theory and theory in practice, a differentiation mentioned in the first chapter of this study.

Possible reasons for the difference between perspective and practice might be explained by some of the weak-

nesses that the principals saw with shared or participatory decision-making. Again, as in the case of strengths, the principals did point out a number of weaknesses. For instance, one principal pointed out that it was extremely difficult to engage parent participation in a consultation process. Another principal pointed out that his administrative council was an inherited team. The intimation was made that he would have been more comfortable sharing decision-making with a council of his own choosing. Thus, while different principals did cite different weaknesses, two major weaknesses did predominate among the principals' responses. First, some five or forty-two percent of the principals pointed out that participatory decision-making was a rather time-consuming process. Taking time out to seek information from affected sources as well as from experts and to discuss possible solutions with various audiences was considered to be an involved and lengthy process. The time element made shared decision-making less inviting to many principals.

A second weakness cited somewhat frequently (indeed, eight times) among the principals, albeit in slightly different variations, was a lack of trust in the ability of staff to share in decision-making. In other words, a number of principals - indeed, six out of twelve or fifty percent - felt that their staffs did not have a knowledge base or a broad enough perspective to contribute substantially and positively to the decision-making process. Along this

same vein, two of the principals under study also gave evidence of a lack of trust when they asserted that a shared decision-making process permitted opponents on their staff the freedom to lobby against the principals' positions. As the responses indicated, lack of time and lack of confidence in staff appeared to be the more predominant weaknesses in the principals' estimation of shared decision-making. It is, perhaps, because of these factors as well as others listed on the matrix under weaknesses, that the principals chose to limit their practice of participatory or shared decision-making in spite of its apparent political and practical benefits.

Participatory Decision-making - Summary Comments

Much of the literature has supported a participatory or shared approach to decision-making, and the principals under study were themselves quite capable of pointing out its strengths. However, the actual practices of those principals limited participatory decision-making in job situations. That point as well as other points of significance are summarized below. Such summary statements again were based upon an analysis of the responses made by the principals under study.

1. Overall, the principals under study viewed participatory or shared decision-making primarily as consultation with those affected by a decision. In this sense, their perspective was limited.

2. Assistants, general area and academic department heads, and the faculty in general were the principals' major resources for consultation. While assistants were the primary resources, the faculty in general were consulted on more "global issues."
3. Those principals who demonstrated greater facility across all the skill dimensions under study were the same principals who appeared less limited in their consultative approach to participatory decision-making.
4. Conversely, those principals who demonstrated less facility across all the skill dimensions under study were the same principals who appeared more limited in their consultative approach to participatory decision-making.
5. The principals saw "ownership" or investment in the decision as a major strength of participatory decision-making.
6. The principals saw heavy time expenditure and lack of confidence in the ability of staff as major weaknesses for participatory decision-making.

Decisiveness - Preliminary Remarks

Interview Questions

1. What do you consider to be some key characteristics of decisiveness?
2. As principal, could you illustrate some concrete ex-

amples wherein you acted in a decisive manner?

3. In those examples, what human and material factors required you to act in a decisive manner?

The final skill analyzed in this study was the NASSP skill of decisiveness. The NASSP definition of that skill was rather simple and straightforward. Decisiveness was seen as the ability to act, to make a decision regardless of the correctness of that decision. In one sense, this definition implied a certain urgency or crisis orientation for decision-making. If one were to act regardless of the correctness of that action, it would seem logical that such action would be grounded in circumstances that would require a quick response. However, a less than "urgent" reading of the skill of decisiveness would most probably point to the fact that leadership behavior requires an action orientation, a tendency or bias for action. As was pointed out in the section of the literature review devoted to the skill of decisiveness, leadership behavior must be a blend of analysis and action. A leader who can analyze a situation but who cannot put his or her analysis into positive action is ineffective. Conversely, the leader who acts without thoughtful analysis can be accused, quite rightly, of a "seat of the pants" approach to decision-making. Thus, decisiveness is the action phase of the decision-making process. It follows logically from problem analysis and judgement, the two skills analyzed in the previous section.

It is because of this logical relationship to both

problem analysis and judgement that this particular section of the data analysis is not quite as lengthy as the preceding sections. Every effort was made to complete a thorough analysis of the skill of decisiveness without becoming overly redundant. When asked the questions concerning decisiveness, many of the principals pointed back to their responses to other questions about problem-solving and leadership behavior in general in order to demonstrate their decisiveness. They saw the skill of decisiveness as the essential action component of both leadership and problem-solving behavior. Yet, when asked to provide further examples of their decisiveness, they were able to illustrate other instances of behavior and, thus, provide the study with "fresh" data for analysis.

Prior to the actual data analysis, some preliminary and clarifying remarks should be made. As was mentioned above, every effort was made to avoid redundancy in the analysis. Also, the general structure of the data analysis in this section is similar to that employed in the other sections. In other words, the effort was made to determine verification of skill engagement, methods employed in skill engagement, and resources or factors influencing such skill engagement. Thus, the data analysis focused again on the three major research questions of the study. Also, a summary matrix, Table XIII, was created to display the data. Finally, it should be noted that the first question asked

Table XIII - Decisiveness Skill Summary Matrix

Site #.	Characteristics	Example Behavior	Resources/Factors
#1.	Do not procrastinate. Follow through. Stick to decision.	Students are not permitted to wear "stoles" at graduation. - Principal consults with assistants. - Principal monitors students at ceremony and confiscates stoles. Overall method - Consultation.	Assistants + Students - Moderators -
#2.	Stick to a decision once it is made.	Students expelled for disciplinary reasons are not re-admitted. - Discipline board recommends expulsion. - Principal accepts recommendation and communicates decision to parents. Overall method - Consultation.	Discipline board + Students and parents -
#3.	Acquire information. Make a decision and stick to it. Take chances at times.	Students expelled for disciplinary reasons are not re-admitted. - This is in spite of fact that some faculty disapprove of the decision. Decision of discipline board is final. Overall method - Consultation.	Discipline board + Students - Disapproving faculty members -

Table XIII - Continued

Site #.	Characteristics	Example Behavior	Resources/Factors
#4.	Have a vision. Have reliable information. Withstand criticism and stick by a decision.	Movement of date for graduation. - Principal finds early graduation date problematic. - Principal consults with executive council and decides on a date.	Executive council + Senior teachers freed up early - Effects on rest of faculty -
		Overall method - Consultation.	
#5.	Do not procrastinate. Be action oriented. Be clear in explanation. Give a rationale for decision. Get reliable information.	Investigation of a graduating senior's failing grade. - Senior and parent make a complaint. - Principal investigates grade with senior's teacher. - Grade is changed because of error discovered.	Parent and student complaint - Teacher mistake - Consequences for graduation observed +
		Overall method - Consultation.	

Table XIII - Continued

Site #.	Characteristics	Example Behavior	Resources/Factors
#6.	Do not procrastinate. Have reliable information. Know consequences. Not afraid to make mistake.	Opening of school in-service. - Some faculty dislike date of in-service (Sunday). - Principal consults with staff, especially coaches. - Principal retains opening date.	Faculty member dissatisfaction - Coaches - Consequences of changing date +
		Overall method - Consultation	
#7.	Direct confrontation. Not afraid to decide. Action orientation. Take risks. Have a long range vision.	Landscaping issue. - Principal sees need for landscaping. - Principal monitors budget to determine funds available. - Principal contracts for landscaping job.	Finances, budget +,-
		Overall method - Directive.	
#8.	Weigh evidence. Set priorities. Get data as quickly as possible. Stick to a decision. Take risks.	Computerization of business office. - Principal investigates merits and decides.	Assistants - Experts +
		Overall method - Consultation.	

Table VIII - Continued

Site #.	Characteristics	Example Behavior	Resources/Factors
#9.	Sort out ramifications. Do not give in to pressures. Research for data.	Presenting salary benefits Package to board of trustees. - Investigate proposals from staff. - Comparisons with other school salaries. - Presentation to board for approval.	Staff + Financial data +,- Board 0
		Overall method - Consultation.	
#10.	Seek advice. Consider ramifications.	Acquiring a batting cage for the gym. - Coach approaches principal. - Principal investigates costs and logistics. - Principal makes purchase.	Students 0 Parents 0 Teachers 0 Implications +
		Overall method - Consultation.	

Table XIII - Continued

Site #.	Characteristics	Example Behavior	Resources/Factors
#11.	Get reliable information. Consult with "invested" parties. Communicate decision and rationale clearly. Stick to decision.	Calendar change. - Assistant requests modi- fication of calendar. - Principal denies request un- til interested parties are consulted, i.e., parents and students as well as staff.	Students 0 Parents 0 Teachers 0 Implications +
		Overall method - Consultation.	
#12.	Weigh facts. Take time to decide.	Issue of new state graduation requirements. - Academic council pushes principal to modify curricu- lum. - Principal decides to hold off decision.	Implications of curricular - change
		Overall method - None (Delay)	

of the principals under study called for their estimation of the key characteristics of decisiveness. This approach was employed because the scant amount of literature available on decisiveness pointed to characteristics of decisive leaders rather than to specific decisiveness subskills. For instance, in Ford's study, which was discussed in the literature review, the findings pointed to the importance of certain personality characteristics for decisive behavior. Ford found that his decisive executives were leaders who demonstrated a certain "crux sensitivity" to problem situations.²⁴ Such leaders were able to cut through the peripheral and get to the "heart of the matter." The first question asked of the principals assisted in the skill verification process by providing data to be held up to such findings as those of Ford for comparison. Also, as a side effect, the principals' responses could also be held up to the actual behaviors of the principals to determine a level of consistency between perceptions or estimations and on the job actions.

Decisiveness - Analysis

In the matter of verifying the engagement of the skill of decisiveness, a number of important points could be made. For instance, if one were to take the base line definition of the NASSP skill of decisiveness to be a bias for action,

24. Charles H. Ford. Loc.cit., 16ff

an ability to put the results of analysis and choice into effect, one would certainly conclude that the great majority of the principals under study proved themselves to be decisive. In all cases of behavior save two, the principals did act. For instance, one principal decided that students could not wear honor stoles at graduation, and she monitored the students at the graduation ceremony to make sure that the students followed her directive. Two other principals fully supported their discipline boards in the matter of expulsions even though parents and some staff members were not in agreement with the decisions. Another principal responded to a parent and student complaint about an unfair grade. That particular grade was important because it would have served to deny graduation to the student. The principal investigated the problem with the student's teacher and brought the matter to a positive conclusion. The teacher modified the grade after she investigated the student's scores for the semester. Another principal saw the need for some landscaping work to be done at his school and investigated its costs and effects on the budget. When he found the costs of such work to be acceptable to budgetary limitations, he contracted for the work to be done. Another principal investigated the costs of a batting cage for her gym and purchased such a cage when she found funds for said purchase. As the cross-site matrix of behaviors illustrated, other principals under study also demonstrated their bias

for action.

In fact, only two principals under study failed to act. However, even in these two cases, that failure to act was not the result of indecision as much as it was the result of a real concern for making the correct or the best decision. In one instance, a principal failed to effect a calendar change because he wished to consult those parties or audiences who would be affected by the change, parents and students. In another instance, a principal's concern for the far-reaching effects of curricular modifications tempered her efforts to comply with newly established state graduation requirements. Since she felt that time constraints were not pressing, she preferred to approach curricular modification from a more rational and relaxed perspective. She chose not to act immediately. In fact, she noted that decisiveness can sometimes be displayed in the conscious choice not to make a decision. Thus, the two principals who did not act, who did not display an elementary level skill of decisiveness, perhaps demonstrated their decisiveness in their very choice of inaction.

In terms of a base line verification, then, the vast majority of the principals did prove themselves to be decisive. The data did give evidence of that finding. Furthermore, the principals' actions were generally consistent with the characteristics of decisiveness noted by them. In other words, identified characteristics were carried out on the

job. There was evidence of a strong behavioral pattern of seeking reliable and pertinent information, making a choice based on that information, and sticking with that choice in spite of pressures and opposition. Thus, there was a consistency between attitude and on the job behavior.

A number of examples would certainly verify the above point. For instance, the principal who decided that students would not be allowed to wear stoles at graduation proved to be consistent with her listed characteristics when she monitored the graduation ceremony to insure that the students followed her directive. In other words, she followed through with her decision. In another instance, a principal dealing with an expulsion case "stuck to his decision" in spite of the fact that some faculty members disapproved of that decision. This same principal noted that his understanding of decisiveness included that key characteristic of "sticking with a decision" once it is made. Another principal pointed to an action orientation and the reliability of information as key characteristics or components of decisiveness. She applied those very components in her investigation of a senior's failing semester grade. Similarly, another principal demonstrated this same consistency as he attempted to modernize and computerize his business office. He searched for necessary information, weighed evidence, and made the decision to computerize the office. He made this decision fully aware of the fact that he was

taking a risk in the sense that the office staff did not fully support the decision. He, too, demonstrated a certain consistency of attitude and action on the job. Even the principals who did not choose to act demonstrated this consistency between belief and behavior. They chose not to act because of their beliefs in the importance of taking time to consult and to weigh pertinent information.

The data analysis also pointed up the fact that the principals' characteristics of decisiveness, characteristics which were played out in actual job situations, were not entirely in line with the NASSP definition. Truly, the principals under study saw decisiveness as a bias for action. However, they tempered that bias with a concern for the assimilation of information in order to insure a proper and correct decision. The NASSP definition called upon principals to act whether the decision was correct or not. The principals under study would take issue with that last clause. They felt themselves to be decisive because they could act with a practical understanding of the facts and of the ramifications that their actions would and could entail. Indeed, it was for this last qualification that two of the principals chose not to effect changes. Interestingly enough, Peterson and Peterson, cited in the literature review, pointed up that same importance of assimilation of information as a key component of decisiveness.²⁵ There-

25. Donovan and Kathryn Peterson. *Loc.cit.*, 2

fore, in terms of the listed characteristics and in terms of actual behaviors, the principals demonstrated a "tempered" bias for action. Because of this "tempered" bias, the principals were more in line with Peterson and Peterson than with the full definition of the NASSP. Yet, overall, the principals did prove themselves to be decisive in carrying out solutions to problems.

The discussion of the behaviors of the principals in the preceding paragraphs would certainly serve to verify the fact that they did demonstrate a base line mastery of the skill of decisiveness. The principals did demonstrate a bias for action in spite of the fact that they tempered that bias with a concern for assimilating reliable information. Also, there was a certain consistency between thought and action evident in the decisive behaviors of the principals. The principals did act in a manner consistent with their estimations of the key components of decisive behavior. They incorporated those components into their actions.

On yet another level of verification, further efforts to compare the behaviors of the principals to Ford's decisiveness characteristics served to strengthen the assertion that the principals demonstrated facility with the skill of decisiveness. It must be remembered that Ford found that his decisive executives displayed skill in evaluating a problem situation in terms of problem impact, in assuming a sense of responsibility for solving a problem, in reducing a

problem situation to its basic components, in approaching problems with a positive attitude, and in defining problems as opportunities. Finally, Ford's decisive executives were willing to take risks.²⁶ While the actual behaviors of the principals under study may not have favorably compared to Ford's executives for each and every characteristic, the vast majority of the principals did demonstrate a majority of the same characteristics that Ford's executive demonstrated. Thus, skill verification was also made on another level than that of the NASSP definition of decisiveness.

A number of specific examples would serve to validate some similarities between Ford's executives and the principals under study. For instance, a number of principals - indeed, eleven out of the twelve under study - certainly were able to evaluate a problem situation in terms of its impact. In doing so, the principals also demonstrated the ability to analyze problems or reduce problems to basic parts. For example, one principal refused to rush into wholesale curricular modification without examining the impact such modification would have on staffing, scheduling, and budgeting. Another principal prepared her salary and benefits package with an eye toward improving staff morale. She truly felt that the package recommended to her board of trustees would provide her staff with much deserved raises.

26. Charles H. Ford. *Loc.cit.*, 19-20

She knew the positive effect raises would have on staff morale. Another principal stood by his decision to expel a student not only because of the correctness of the decision but also because the decision served to make a public statement of disciplinary policy to the rest of the student body. Still another principal decided upon computerization of his business office because he felt such action would have the long range effect of making both the business office and his own office more efficient. Still another principal moved to delay a graduation date because of the negative impact early dismissal had on staff. She found that freeing senior teachers from classroom responsibilities early led to ill will among the faculty in general. These examples as well as others on the matrix served to indicate that the majority of the principals did see situations in terms of problem impact. The principals did demonstrate practical analytical ability. They were aware of side effects.

Likewise, the vast majority of the principals under study were quite willing to assume responsibility for solving problems. For example, the principal who decided against graduation stoles certainly assumed responsibility for her decision. She monitored the graduation procession carefully to insure that her directive was carried out. In fact, she actually confiscated stoles from some students. The principal who refused to change the school calendar without consulting parents and students demonstrated this

same sense of responsibility. The principal who took the landscaping problem in his own hands also demonstrated a sense of responsibility. He saw that work needed to be done and insured that it was accomplished. Another principal who was required to deal with a complaining parent and student about a failing grade certainly moved responsibly and quickly to investigate and solve that problem. Still another principal considered it her responsibility to fight for much deserved raises for her staff. Indeed, no principal under study shrank from his or her sense of responsibility for solving problems.

Ford's decisive executives were also "positive thinkers." While not all of the principals under study demonstrated a "positive thinker" attitude, some did. For instance, the principal who negotiated raises for her staff felt that such raises were well-deserved and would enhance staff morale. Likewise, the principal who sought to improve the school grounds felt that such efforts would present a more positive image of his school. Similarly, a principal who modified his traditional faculty meeting routine to include staff development discussions felt that his staff would respond to such a modification favorably. As the above-mentioned examples show, there was some evidence of a "positive thinker" attitude among some principals.

While not all principals were overtly positive thinkers, a majority of seven or fifty-eight percent of the

principals did see their problem situations as opportunities. Several instances would verify this finding. The one principal who chose not to modify his decision regarding an expulsion did so partly because he felt that his decision gave him the opportunity to send a strong message to the rest of the student body. Another principal saw her efforts to investigate a grade problem as an opportunity to satisfy a student and parent as well as an opportunity to provide some informal staff development for one of her teachers. Another principal saw his decision concerning an opening day in-service as an opportunity to unite staff around the spirit building activity of the season's first football game. The principal who negotiated a salary increase felt that her efforts gave her the opportunity to boost staff spirit. Finally, the principal who computerized his business office felt that his efforts would give his staff and himself the opportunity to become more efficient. Indeed, a majority of the principals did see their problem situations as opportunities much as Ford's executives did.

Ford's executives also demonstrated a propensity for taking risks. While the principals did not appear to take many high risks overall, they did note that they were willing to do so. In fact, some four of the principals did indicate that risk taking was a key component of decisiveness. Yet, overall, the principals' actual behaviors did not exhibit the high risk taking propensity that Ford's

executives did. Risk taking was on a smaller scale overall. For instance, the principal who computerized his business office and modified his faculty meeting routine did take some risks. He risked passive resistance on the part of his business office staff and on the part of his faculty in general. Yet, he acted in spite of the risks. However, the risks taken were not as far-reaching or as extreme as those of high powered business executives.

In summary then, skill engagement was further verified on another level, that of comparison of the principals' behaviors to the Ford findings. Truly, many of the principals under study demonstrated not only the NASSP bias for action but also many of the characteristics that Ford found to be operative in the behaviors of his decisive executives. The principals did see problems in terms of their impact. The principals did display a practical analytical ability. The principals did assume responsibility for problem solving. Also, a majority of the principals did see problems as opportunities. While the principals did not all demonstrate a strong "positive thinker" attitude or a great propensity for risk taking, they did, by and large, demonstrate most of Ford's decisiveness characteristics. Thus, in the matter of verifying skill engagement on a second level, the principals demonstrated their decisive problem-solving or leadership abilities in concrete behaviors.

The second general research question of the study was

that of method employed in skill engagement. An analysis of the data gleaned from the principals' responses concerning decisiveness pointed to an over-riding pattern of method in evidence. That pattern was one of consultation. Indeed, as the data on the cross-site matrix indicated, ten out of twelve or eighty-three percent of the principals under study followed a consultative mode of operation in their engagement of the skill of decisiveness. Principals failed to employ consultation in only two cases. One principal dealt with a landscaping situation directly. Another principal chose not to act at all. However, the other ten principals did consult.

A number of examples would verify this point. In illustration, one principal consulted with her administration before she decided to ban stoles at graduation. Another principal consulted with her executive council before she decided to change the date of graduation for her school. Two other principals consulted with their boards of discipline before they came to decisions concerning expulsion cases. Another principal consulted with a teacher concerning a mistaken grade for a senior. Still another principal consulted with key faculty members before he decided upon the opening in-service date for his school. Two other principals consulted extensively before they decided on a salary benefits package and on the purchase of a computer. Another principal consulted with a coach, a business manager, and

other principals before she approved the purchase of a batting cage for her gym. Finally, another principal chose to delay a decision on the modification of the school calendar until he could consult with the students and parents as well as staff members. Overall, the general method for skill engagement was consultation.

It is interesting to note that this pattern of consultation again demonstrated the principals' consistency of behavior on two different levels. In the first place, the fact that the principals did consult in the engagement of the skill of decisiveness further highlighted their voiced concern for making a correct decision. As was mentioned earlier in the discussion, the principals tempered their bias for action with the desire to assimilate reliable and accurate information before they made a choice. When they consulted, the principals tried to gain that accurate and reliable information. Again, then, the analysis of methods employed by the principals pointed to a consistency between attitude toward decisiveness and actual behavior.

On another, more global level, this same propensity for consultation as a method of choice was evident across skill dimensions. The predominant leadership style was consultation. While consultation was not employed in the vast majority of problem-solving situations - frequently because of the uniqueness of the problems - it was an often cited style for problem analysis and judgement also. Consultation

was also evident in the organizing strategies of many principals. Finally, consultation was again the predominant method for the skill of decisiveness. Thus, again, the great majority of principals under study opted for consultation across skill dimensions. In this manner, then, the principals demonstrated a real consistency in their behaviors.

The final research question of the present study was the question of resources or factors influencing skill engagement. In the course of the interviews, the principals were asked to identify significant factors influencing the engagement of decisiveness just as they were asked to identify significant factors influencing the engagement of other NASSP skills. The identified factors appear on the summary matrix, Table XIII, in much the same manner as they appeared on other resource/factor tables. As in the case of the other tables, factors were labelled as positive, "+", negative, "-", and neutral, "0". The categorization of some factors as "neutral" was made simply because such factors did not appear to have a directional effect overall. For example, a board of trustees merely served to vote on a salary benefits package. The principal in that situation pointed to finances and staff as more significant and influencing factors. Also, some factors were seen as both positive and negative. For instance, a principal may have looked upon his or her budget as a negative factor in terms

of limited spending power. However, he or she may also have looked upon the same budget as a tool for purchasing within defined limits.

In any event, an analysis of the identified factors did point to one global consideration. It was a consideration that also emerged from the analysis of methods for decisiveness. In the matter of both methods and resources, the principals again demonstrated a consistency of behavior patterns across skill dimensions. In general, the predominant method or style of operation across skill dimensions was that of consultation. In a similar vein, there were like factors and/or resources identified across skill dimensions. In other words, the very same factors that surfaced for leadership, organizational ability, problem analysis, and judgement also surfaced in the analysis of decisiveness factors. Thus, again, there did appear to be real consistency in the behaviors of the principals under study.

One point which would serve to verify the above assertion was the fact that the principals again identified both positive and negative factors of influence. In terms of specific numbers, the principals identified thirteen positive factors, fifteen negative factors, and five neutral factors. As in the case of the engagement of other skills under study, the principals appeared to have a realistic view of both the positive and negative aspects of their situations. Parenthetically, it should be noted that there was

a slight difference among the findings at this point. Positive factors did outweigh negative factors for other skill dimensions, albeit ever so slightly. This was not the case for decisiveness. This slight difference could possibly be attributed to the fact that some of the principals may have seen decisiveness in the light of crisis situations demanding urgent responses. However, there was only a slightly larger number of negative factors identified. Overall, there appeared to be a balanced and realistic perception of influencing factors.

Consistency of response was also evident on another level. Similar factors of influence were operational across skill dimensions. When speaking about decisiveness, the principals noted positive and negative factors similar to those noted for other skills. Assistants, various committees, and teachers in general appeared to be significant resources and/or negative factors. Indeed, the influence of staff members was noted some fifteen times in Table XIII. Two principals pointed to their boards of discipline as positive factors. Also, two principals pointed to their administrative teams as positive factors. On the other hand, the principals also pointed to individual teachers such as moderators selling graduation stoles, teachers failing to support an expulsion decision, teachers in conflict over an in-service date, and teachers dissatisfied with a graduation date as negative factors of influence. Also, in

terms of material factors, financial considerations again appeared in the responses of only a few principals. As in the case of the other skills, experts did not often appear as positive factors of influence. Thus, overall, the same factors of influence, both positive and negative, emerged from the discussion of decisiveness as emerged from the discussion of the other skills.

One final point of consideration - indeed, perhaps the most interesting point - was the fact that all of the principals under study noted that practical consequences or implications were significant factors influencing their choice of actions. In other words, all of the principals displayed the same practical analytical ability that they displayed when engaging the other skills. This point was alluded to above and in previous sections of the data analysis. One might recall that the principals did not indicate that they operated from a theoretical or research base in their engagement of leadership and problem-solving ability. However, they did demonstrate a practical analytical ability in terms of awareness of consequences and implications. They were aware of the importance of side effects. This same practical analytical ability was evident in the engagement of the skill of decisiveness. Indeed, this practical analytical ability was a tempering factor for decisiveness since some principals refused to act until pertinent and reliable information was available for analysis.

A number of specific examples would serve to prove the above point. The principal who decided that stoles would not be permitted at graduation realized that every club in the school could begin selling stoles to the students. Furthermore, if every student wore an honor stole, the "real" honor students, then, would be "lost in the crowd." This principal demonstrated awareness of practical consequences. Another principal supported his board of discipline in cases of expulsion because he felt that failure to support the board would render it ineffective. Another principal demonstrated practical analytical ability when he supported his board of discipline in another expulsion case partly because he felt the decision would send a strong message to the entire student body. Another principal pointed to morale implications as a factor of influence in her decision to delay graduation. Still another principal took a personal hand in investigating a senior's complaint about a grade because of implications for that student's graduation. Demonstrating awareness of ramifications, another principal noted both her concern for the logistics of installing a batting cage in her gym and her concern for purchasing the cage in the light of budget restraints. Yet another principal asked to change the school calendar looked at the implications of such a change for faculty, students, and parents. Therefore, the principals - indeed, all of the principals - did display this practical understanding of the consequences and impli-

cations of their actions. It was this practical analytical ability that tempered possibly rash decision-making. It tempered the principals' bias for action. Furthermore, this same practical analytical ability was evident across skill dimensions.

Therefore, in the matter of resources and/or factors for decisiveness, the principals under study did display a certain realism in their responses. They also pointed to positive and negative resources similar to those identified for other skills. Staff members in various roles again appeared as both positive and negative factors of influence. Finally, the principals again displayed a certain practical analytical ability as they engaged the skill of decisiveness on the job.

Decisiveness - Summary Comments

In this final section of Chapter III, the data analysis, the behaviors of the principals under study were investigated to determine their facility with the NASSP skill of decisiveness. Moreover, as in the case of the other skills under study, the principals' concrete behaviors were examined to determine possible patterns of method and resources employed in the engagement of that skill. Again, the behaviors of the principals were examined within complex contexts. A summary cross-site matrix, Table XIII, was again employed to illustrate and synthesize the findings of this part of the investigation. The following summary com-

ments or conclusions were obtained from the data analysis.

1. The principals under study did demonstrate the ability to engage the NASSP skill of decisiveness on the job. That is to say, the principals demonstrated a bias for action. This bias for action was tempered by the desire to acquire accurate and reliable information so that a correct decision could be made.
2. The principals under study demonstrated a consistency between thought and action in the sense that they incorporated what they considered to be the key characteristics of the skill of decisiveness into their decisive behaviors.
3. The majority of the principals under study demonstrated the ability to see problem situations in terms of problem impact, to separate problems into their basic parts, to assume responsibility for problem-solving, and to see problems as opportunities. In this sense, the behaviors of the principals were in line with a majority of Charles Ford's characteristics of decisive leaders.
4. In the matter of method, the predominant pattern among the principals was that of consultation. This pattern reflected the principals' concern for acquiring accurate and reliable information for decision-making. This pattern of consultation was con-

sistent with the predominant method or style of the principals for the other skill dimensions.

5. The fact that the principals under study identified both positive and negative factors influencing their engagement of the skill of decisiveness indicated that they approached their problem situations realistically.
6. As in the case of the other skill dimensions, the predominant positive and negative factors influencing the engagement of the skill of decisiveness were faculty members in various roles.
7. As in the case of the other skill dimensions, the principals under study demonstrated a practical analytical ability in the sense that they identified consequences and implications as significant factors influencing their engagement of the skill of decisiveness.

CHAPTER IV

GENERAL CONCLUDING REMARKS

Introduction

Throughout the history of education, educators in general and educational administrators in particular have always sought to enhance the professional nature of their interactions within their school communities and with the broader community in general. Principals and teachers have employed various theoretical and research based frameworks over time to enhance that sense of professionalism. Unfortunately, however, the burdens and pressures of on the job practice have often militated against the conscious and consistent application of a theoretical frame of reference to the practice of teaching and, more particularly for the present study, to the practice of educational administration or leadership. As a result, the educational community has continually encouraged principals and other educational administrators to apply the fruits of educational and social research to their job situations in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice. The National Association of Secondary School Principals, the NASSP, has contributed to this history of evolving professionalism by developing a validated theoretical framework of educational administra-

tion for its Assessment Center Program. This theoretical framework provides principals with specific and practical but theoretically validated skills to employ on the job.

It was the purpose of the present study to examine the behaviors of selected principals in the field to determine the extent to which those principals actually did bridge the gap between theory and practice by employing some of those validated skills in their school situations. The skills chosen for study were considered to be the most relevant to all aspects of the principal's job. Consequently, the problem focus and purpose of the present study has been to explore the professionalism of principals on the job. If principals' on the job behaviors did give evidence that they employed the skills of leadership, organizational ability, problem analysis, judgement, and decisiveness, all validated NASSP leadership skills, then one could assert that such principals would demonstrate a certain measure of professionalism, for the principals would be applying a practical but theoretically validated knowledge base to actual practice. Thus, the concrete behaviors of the principals chosen for the present study were compared with the theoretically validated NASSP skill definitions to determine the extent to which those principals actually did engage those skills on the job. To reiterate, then, the problem explored in the present study was one of professionalism since the purpose of the study was to examine the concrete behaviors of the

principals, to search for evidence of actual engagement of selected NASSP skills, and to examine the resources and methods employed in such skill engagement.

A qualitative or exploratory methodology was employed to carry out the purpose of the study. A qualitative methodology was employed because such an approach lent itself to a close and careful examination of both skill engagement and the context of that engagement in terms of resources and methods, for surely, methods and resources are essential contextual factors for skill engagement. A semi-structure interview schedule based on the NASSP skill definitions and on the literature review was developed and administered to twelve Catholic secondary school principals chosen purposely to insure adequate representation. Before administration, that interview schedule was analyzed and evaluated by a review panel and was field tested. Tape recordings of the interviews were transcribed and analyzed according to methods suggested by noted qualitative researchers. The data were coded and analyzed extensively. Cross-site matrices were constructed to aid in the analysis process. The results of such analysis were discussed in detail in the preceding chapter. It was from this detailed analysis that several important conclusions, recommendations, and implications for further study were developed. The conclusions, then, provided concrete answers to the questions: Did principals engage theoretically validated skills on the job? If

so, what contextual factors such as human and material resources and methods played a role in skill engagement? Those answers served to indicate the professionalism with which the principals under study approached their practice of educational leadership.

Conclusions

Some 252 pages of transcribed interview responses provided a rich data source for the study. The cross-site matrices helped to reduce, display, and verify the data which emerged from the responses. Such data were synthesized into the summary comments which appeared in appropriate sections of Chapter III. These summary comments served as specific conclusions or answers to the research questions as applied to the individual NASSP skills under study. General conclusions were distilled from the fifty plus summary comments in Chapter III and listed below.

The following is a list of the major findings related to the global skill of leadership.

1. Overall, the principals under study demonstrated a basic mastery of the skill of leadership. That is, the principals had specific goals. Those goals were primarily educational in nature. Also, the principals either achieved their goals or made concrete steps toward achieving their goals.
2. One half or fifty percent of the principals under study demonstrated facility with employing multiple

- or flexible strategies to achieve goals.
3. One half or fifty percent of the principals under study did not demonstrate facility with employing multiple strategies to achieve goals. Many of these principals relied on single, bureaucratically oriented methods to achieve goals.
 4. The overall pattern of style for the principals under study was that of consultation.
 5. Faculty members in various specific roles or in general served both as positive resources for goal achievement and as negative factors hindering goal achievement.
 6. Parents, students, expert assistance, educational training, and research findings played a minimal role as resources for goal achievement.
 7. While the principals under study did not articulate a theoretical analytical base for leadership behavior, the principals did demonstrate a practical analytical ability. They were able to see the possible consequences and implications of their actions and the actions of their staffs. They were aware of the influence of side effects.
 8. Those principals who identified more positive resources also employed multiple strategies and/or single strategies which encouraged wider participation in the goal achievement process. The converse

was also true. Those principals who identified more negative factors employed single strategies and did not encourage wide participation in the goal achievement process.

The following is a list of the major findings related to the specific skill of organizational ability.

1. Overall, the principals under study demonstrated a qualified mastery of the organizational ability sub-skills of planning, coordinating and controlling, and time management.
2. Subjective discussions rather than a rational procedure served as the basis for planning. Yet, planning ability was evident.
3. The predominant method for planning was consultation with various committees.
4. Assistant principals served as the major resources for planning, either as sounding boards or as conduits to committees.
5. Overall, the principals under study did demonstrate mastery of the coordinating and controlling sub-skills. They did delegate responsibilities to assistants and committees in their efforts to achieve goals.
6. Assistant principals served as the major resources for coordinating and controlling the goal achievement process.

7. Those principals who employed multiple checking mechanisms and multiple communication networks were the same principals who encouraged wide participation in the goal achievement process. The converse was also true. Those principals who employed few checking mechanisms and few communication networks were the same principals who did not encourage wide participation in the goal achievement process.
8. The principals under study did not demonstrate an overall mastery of the organizational ability sub-skill of time management. The principals suffered from both internal and external "time robbers."
9. External interruptions such as student, parent, and teacher complaints highlighted the essentially political nature of the principalship. Principals spent a great deal of time fielding and managing complaints from various audiences.
10. Few time management strategies were employed by the principals under study. The major resource for time management was the employment of an efficient secretary.

The following is a list of the major findings related to the specific skills of problem analysis and judgement.

1. Overall, the principals under study demonstrated a qualified mastery of a rational problem-solving process.

2. The principals readily identified major problems. Such problems were, by and large, managerial in nature. The predominant pattern for identification of problems was reaction to complaints.
3. While all the principals sought information to solve their problems, a majority of seven of the principals displayed facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives. Five of the principals did not display this facility.
4. A large majority of ten of the twelve principals did succeed in solving problems or in taking concrete steps toward solving problems.
5. Overall, the solutions effected by the principals were appropriate to the problem situations. Individual problems were dealt with individually and confidentially. Group problems were dealt with on a group basis.
6. Those principals who were more adept at analyzing alternatives and effecting a solution also displayed greater facility with the skills of leadership and organizational ability. Conversely, those principals who were less adept at analyzing problems and effecting a solution displayed less facility with the skills of leadership and organizational ability.
7. No one problem-solving style predominated in the

behaviors of the principals. Rather, style appeared to be a function of problem type.

8. Communication skill surfaced as an essential ingredient of the problem-solving process.
9. In terms of resources, faculty members in various roles served as the major problem sources as well as the major human resources for problem-solving. Material factors had a limited influence on problem-solving. Experts were noted as resources in a minority of cases. No principal cited a theoretical framework as an operational model for problem-solving.
10. The principals under study limited participatory or shared decision-making to consultation.
11. Assistant principals, department heads, and faculty members in general were consulted in participatory decision-making. While assistants served as primary resources, the faculty in general were consulted on more global issues.
12. Those principals who displayed greater facility across skill dimensions invited greater participation in shared decision-making. Conversely, those principals who displayed less facility across skill dimensions invited less participation in shared decision-making.
13. The principals cited ownership or investment in a

decision as the major strength of participatory decision-making.

14. The principals cited excessive time expenditure as the major weakness of participatory decision-making.

The following is a list of the major findings related to the specific skill of decisiveness.

1. Overall, the principals under study did demonstrate a basic mastery of the skill of decisiveness. They demonstrated a bias for action that was tempered by the desire to acquire accurate and reliable information before they acted. Furthermore, their decisiveness behaviors were in line with many of the decisiveness characteristics noted in the literature review.
2. The actual decisive behaviors of the principals were consistent with what the principals considered to be the key characteristics of decisiveness.
3. The predominant method for decisiveness was consultation. This pattern reflected the desire of the principals to acquire accurate and reliable information before they acted. This pattern of consultation was also the predominant pattern across skill dimensions.
4. As in the case of other skill dimensions, the predominant positive and negative factors influencing the engagement of the skill of decisiveness were

faculty members in various roles.

5. As in the case of other skill dimensions, the principals again demonstrated a practical analytical ability as they engaged the skill of decisiveness.

In other words, they were aware of side effects.

Certainly, the list of major conclusions distilled from the summary remarks interspersed throughout Chapter III is rather lengthy. This is the case not only because of the open-ended or exploratory nature of this qualitative study but also because of the very complex nature of the task of educational leadership. The effort was made to investigate not only skill engagement but also the complexities of methods and resources involved in that engagement.

The major conclusions listed above did point to an overall picture or image of the principals included in the study. In general, the principals appeared to demonstrate a limited or "qualified" professionalism in the sense that they did demonstrate some mastery of the major NASSP skills. However, as was pointed out in the major conclusions listed above, there were some apparent limitations in evidence. Those limitations do merit attention because they are the basis for the recommendations listed in the next section of this chapter.

In review, the principals under study did prove themselves to be leaders in the sense that they did set goals and did take concrete steps toward achieving those goals.

However, not all principals proved themselves to be flexible and creative in terms of devising multiple strategies for goal achievement. Furthermore, not all principals encouraged wide participation in the goal achievement process.

All of the principals did demonstrate some mastery of organizational ability. They were able to plan, coordinate, and control the efforts of their staffs. However, planning was limited primarily to subjective discussion. Also, some principals did not employ multiple checking mechanisms and communication networks. All principals did employ assistants and committees to insure that efforts were being made to move the process of goal achievement along, but none of the principals demonstrated any real mastery of the organizational ability subskill of time management.

In terms of problem analysis and judgement, all of the principals readily identified their problems and sought information to solve those problems. However, not all principals demonstrated full mastery of a rational approach to problem-solving since some principals did not demonstrate a facility for exploring and analyzing alternatives. Also, two of the principals were unable to effect a preferred solution for their problems. Shared or participatory decision-making was generally limited to consultation with those directly affected by the decision.

Finally, the principals under study did demonstrate mastery of the skill of decisiveness. They demonstrated a

bias for action that was tempered by the desire to acquire accurate and reliable information. This information was used to make more correct decisions. Therefore, the principals under study did give evidence of some mastery of the validated skills chosen for study. In this sense, then, they were professionals applying theoretically validated skills to actual job situations. However, as was pointed out above, that mastery was limited.

Again in review, the predominant pattern of method across skill dimensions was that of consultation, although other approaches such as collaboration or direct confrontation were applied in some unique situations. However, the principals were most comfortable with a consultative approach overall. Concerning resources, faculty members in various roles served as the major human factors involved in that consultative approach. Indeed, faculty members such as assistants, department heads, and committee members served as major resources for goal achievement and problem-solving. Also, faculty members were often the primary negative factors of influence. This fact highlighted the very political nature of the principal's job. It also highlighted the general "in-house" or provincial approach that most principals took toward goal achievement and problem-solving. Indeed, expert advice or the benefits of educational research were called upon only minimally. Material factors also played a minimal role in the principals' engagement of

skills overall. Therefore, a summary picture of the sample membership would depict practitioners employing the validated skills in a limited fashion. In the matter of context for skill engagement, consultation was the major method of choice. Also, staff members were the central positive and negative factors influencing skill engagement.

A close examination of the limitations evident in the behaviors of the principals pointed to a real dichotomy between those principals who demonstrated greater and lesser mastery of the skills overall. Indeed, that dichotomy was consistently evident across skill dimensions. Despite the fact that all of the principals demonstrated some limitations such as the inability to develop adequate time management techniques, one half of the principals certainly demonstrated greater facility with overall skill engagement. These principals were more in line with the professional approach implicit in the NASSP research in a number of ways. These principals were more creative in developing multiple strategies and/or encouraging wider participation in the goal achievement process. Likewise, they set up multiple checking mechanisms and communication networks to insure that staffs were moving toward goal achievement. These principals did not isolate themselves from committees and faculties. Assistants were not mere conduits but were employed in a more collegial fashion. These principals demonstrated the ability to explore and analyze alternatives for

problem-solving, and these principals were less limited in their view of shared or participatory decision-making. Hence, the behaviors of these principals were more in line with a full interpretation of the major NASSP skill definitions. From this perspective, then, these principals were more professional than the others in their approach to educational leadership.

Not only were the behaviors of these principals more in line with the NASSP skill definitions, their behaviors were also more in line with the findings of other research on effective principals such as those of Blumberg and Greenfield. Of course, the purpose of the present study was not to seek out and identify effective principals in action. Yet, the principals who displayed more facility with or mastery of the major NASSP skills also operated their schools in much the same manner as Blumberg's effective principals did. As was noted in the literature review, Blumberg's effective principals were committed to education in terms of time and vision. They were good listeners. They were proactive. They were effective communicators. Also, they were adept at devising problem-solving strategies.¹ The more masterful principals from the present study demonstrated these same capabilities in practice. For instance, the more masterful principals displayed a

1. Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield. *Op.cit.*, 257

sense of educational vision in their goal-setting. They further demonstrated their commitment with long hours of work. They listened to staff members, students, and parents alike. They developed multiple communication networks and did not rely on static, bureaucratic, and hierarchically oriented structures alone. They demonstrated a bias for action not only in their efforts to accomplish goals but also in their efforts to solve problems. Thus, they were proactive. Finally, these principals were able to develop multiple alternatives for problem-solving. They were able to strategize!

On the other hand, those principals who were less masterful in applying the NASSP skills also failed to demonstrate capabilities similar to those of Blumberg's effective principals. While those principals did demonstrate a level of commitment, they did not encourage wide participation and good communication. They relied on static, bureaucratic structures and showed little evidence of creativity in devising alternatives and strategies for goal achievement and problem-solving. This evident dichotomy is an important consideration for two reasons: it not only further supports the validity of the NASSP skills under study and the findings of other research but also points to specific recommendations for those principals who would choose to employ the very skills that effective principals have learned to develop and engage in on the job. In other words, the behav-

iors of the more masterful principals mirror the characteristics of effective principals and point to recommendations for the improvement of leadership skills.

Recommendations

The implications and recommendations pointed out in the following pages do flow logically from the above discussion of summary remarks and major conclusions of the present study. There are, indeed, a number of important implications which flow from the conclusions of the study. For instance, the results of the study did serve to further validate the theoretical base, the NASSP skill dimensions. The very fact that all of the principals under study did engage the NASSP skills on the job with varying degrees of facility highlighted the significance and importance of these skills for practical educational leadership. The NASSP validated these skills in theory and in the somewhat artificial confines of the Assessment Center. The principals, actual practitioners employing these skills every day, lent further credence to the work of the Assessment Center Program. Thus, there was a certain practical validation in evidence.

Another important implication is based on the fact that some principals, one half of them, exhibited greater facility with skill engagement. Furthermore, these same principals practiced their leadership skills in much the same manner as other principals considered to be effective, i.e., Blumberg's effective principals. Therefore, it would

seem logical to conclude that facility with the NASSP skills could lead to effective educational leadership. This assertion would imply that principals who desire to be effective administrators would do well to develop facility with the engagement of the NASSP skills explored in the present study.

Along this same line of thought, the other seven NASSP skills would also merit the attention of practitioners who desire to become more effective educational leaders. The other skills were also validated by the NASSP and alluded to in the present study a number of times. Such NASSP skills as communication, stress tolerance, and sensitivity were discussed by the principals along with the specific skills under study. Thus, these skills should also be developed. Moreover, the fact that the other NASSP skills did emerge in discussions merely reinforces the complex nature of educational leadership; one cannot easily separate skills from each other or from the contextual factors influencing skill engagement.

Another major implication flows from the above-mentioned points. The results of the study reinforced the importance of the NASSP skill dimensions, the theoretical base of the Assessment Center Program. Implicit in this reinforcement was a more general reinforcement of the assertion that professional educators can and should bridge the gap between theory and practice by applying the results of good

and valid research to actual job practice. In other words, the central theme of the present study, that of applying theory to practice in order to enhance professionalism, was pointed to in the concrete actions of the principals. The principals did, at least implicitly, bridge the gap between theory and practice. They employed theoretically validated skills on the job. The implication, then, would be that educational leaders would do well to make a fully conscious effort to apply the findings of research (be that research completed by the NASSP or by others) to practice on the job. Such a conscious application would only serve to enhance professional leadership because leaders could then put their plans into action with the benefit of a well-considered and well-proven theoretical base. They would not approach their jobs with a "seat of the pants" mentality.

One final and indeed crucial implication flowed from the study results. Both the strengths and the limitations of the principals under study as well as the NASSP skills themselves pointed to the fundamental importance of blending analysis and action in leadership behavior. The emphasis that the principals placed on tempering their decisive behaviors with a desire to acquire accurate and reliable information pointed up this very essential blend. The fact that over half of the principals displayed facility with exploring and analyzing alternatives before acting also pointed to this essential blend. The fact that half of the

principals were wise enough to develop multiple strategies for goal achievement and multiple communication networks and checking mechanisms again pointed to this essential blend of analysis and action. Finally, the fact that the principals did display an appreciation for the influence of side effects demonstrated that a practical analytical ability directed their bias for action. Thus, it would seem that thoughtful analysis should be combined with positive and decisive action in a principal's employment of leadership skills.

The above-mentioned conclusions and implications certainly do point to a number of important recommendations for principals and other educational leaders. These recommendations are listed in summary form below. They reflect the assertion that professionalism can be enhanced by the development of a well-conceived frame of reference such as that of the NASSP, one that is founded on good and valid research, and by the conscious application of that frame of reference to on the job practice.

1. Principals can enhance their leadership skill by setting clear goals and by developing multiple and flexible strategies to achieve those goals.
2. Principals can enhance their planning ability by employing a rational planning process which would include provisions for evaluating present conditions, evaluating the dimension of time, developing

- a forecasting strategy, collecting and analyzing hard data, and communicating plans to followers.
3. Principals can enhance their coordinating and controlling ability by developing multiple checking mechanisms and communication networks.
 4. Principals can enhance their time management ability by setting priorities, scheduling time effectively, delegating effectively, and minimizing interruptions, overcommitment, and duplication.
 5. Principals can enhance their problem-solving ability by following a rational model which would include the ability to define problems, the ability to seek out pertinent information, the ability to explore and analyze alternatives, and the ability to put a preferred solution into effect.
 6. Principals can enhance staff investment in decision-making by broadening their understanding and employment of participatory or shared decision-making.
 7. Principals can enhance their decisiveness by assimilating pertinent, reliable, and accurate information, by evaluating a problem situation in terms of problem impact, by assuming responsibility for problem-solving, by carefully reducing a problem situation to its basic parts, by taking reasonable risks, and by viewing problem situations as opportunities.
 8. Principals can enhance their professionalism by con-

sciously applying good and valid research findings to job practice.

9. Principals can enhance their leadership and problem-solving abilities by seeking the advice of experts in the field of education or in a field related to their individual goals and problems.
10. Principals can enhance their leadership and problem-solving abilities by inviting greater staff participation in the goal achievement and problem-solving processes. Greater staff participation would include more collaboration with assistants, department heads, and faculty members in general.

Therefore, the literature review, the data analysis, the major conclusions, the general implications, and the specific recommendations point to a clear picture of the professionally effective educational leader. The professionally effective leader is one who demonstrates the ability to blend thoughtful and research based analysis with positive action in concert with his followers to accomplish his goals and the goals of his school community. That blend is essential since the educational leader who only demonstrates the ability to analyze would be an indecisive leader indeed. Likewise, the educational leader who rushes to act without taking time to apply a frame of reference to that action or to explore possibilities and ramifications would be a rash leader indeed. As John Gardner pointed out in a

recent interview cited in the NASSP News Leader, leadership is "judgement in action."² Effective leadership requires that judgement be based on careful and thoughtful analysis that leads to positive action and, hopefully, growth for the principal, for the staff, for the students, and for the entire school community.

Implications for Further Study

The conclusions and recommendations listed in the previous two sections of Chapter IV certainly do provide the educational administrator with specific and research based direction for the improvement of leadership skills. The conclusions and recommendations also underline the very complex nature of the task of educational leadership. Since skills are not applied in isolation, methods and resources also figure largely in their engagement. It is because of this complexity that leadership is and has been a topic of interest and concern for the educational researcher. While the present study has delved into the topic of educational leadership in some detail, it has certainly not exhausted the subject. Indeed, good research always points the way toward further inquiry. Therefore, the final pages of this dissertation point to some directions for further analysis of this complex and intriguing topic.

2. Taken from an interview noted in an editorial by Scott D. Thompson, Executive Director of the NASSP. NASSP News Leader, 34 (October 1986) 2

Three basic lines of thought can provide direction for further study. One such line of thought would be the affirmation of the applicability of the qualitative perspective or approach to educational research. While such an approach can be costly in terms of both time and effort, it is rewarding to the researcher because of its exploratory nature. Qualitative research can not only serve to verify the presence of behaviors but also to explore the complex interrelationships of those behaviors. In the process of exploration, fresh and spontaneous data sources can serve as the bases for examining leadership behavior in actual practice. While the method of the present study limited the data source to the principals' candid responses to interview questions, further study could employ other methods and data sources. One such approach could be the use of participant observations and detailed field notes. While this approach would be very costly in many ways, it would certainly permit the investigator to see a realistic picture of behavior in action. Also, the interview technique employed in the present study could also be expanded to include candid responses from such key informants as faculty members and lower level administrators. Thus, the data sources could be expanded to provide for different perspectives or estimations of the principal's leadership behavior. Even written documents such as administration minutes could serve to broaden the research perspective. Indeed, the data sources and methods

chosen for further research would only be limited by their validity, reliability, and feasibility. Regardless of the specific methods and data sources employed, the fact remains that a qualitative approach toward educational research can be a fruitful one. Thus, those who would seek to explore educational leadership in action further would do well to consider the application of a qualitative perspective to their research efforts. The qualitative perspective can be a positive vehicle for examining complex and interrelated behaviors.

A second line of thought or implication for further study flows more directly and more specifically from the actual findings of the present study. As was mentioned in previous sections, the four specific validated NASSP skills of problem analysis, judgement, organizational ability, and decisiveness along with the more general skill of leadership were chosen for study because the NASSP Validity Study determined that those skills were most essential for all of the tasks of the principalship. The research findings, however, also pointed up the importance of the other validated NASSP skills. In particular, such skills as communication, stress tolerance, and sensitivity were alluded to in both the principals' comments and in their actions. Thus, the researcher who would seek to expand his or her analysis of leadership behavior would do well to explore the engagement of other selected NASSP skills in actual job practice.

Also, along similar lines, further research could look into the interrelationship of the specific skills. The very fact that leadership and organizational ability as well as problem analysis and judgement were analyzed jointly in the present study points up this interrelationship. Likewise, the fact that many principals stressed the importance of such skills as communication and sensitivity in their application of the five skills under study further highlighted this interrelationship of skills. Thus, further research would benefit from an analysis of the other seven validated NASSP skills in practice as well as from an analysis of the interplay among those skills when they are engaged.

A final line of thought would follow from some comments concerning the sample members chosen for the present study. Secondary school principals from a large Catholic system were chosen as sample members for reasons discussed in Chapters I and III. Yet, further study of leadership behavior could expand sample membership to include secondary school principals from public systems, superintendents, and even assistant principals. This last group was mentioned precisely because they appeared to be significant resources for the principals included in the present study. Part of the rationale for choosing Catholic school principals was the assumption that leadership behavior can be exhibited in a variety of settings. One such setting would be a Catholic school. That same rationale would assume that non-sectarian

schools would serve as valid settings also. Moreover, sample members could also be chosen from diverse socioeconomic or geographic settings. The choice of different sample members as well as different sample settings could enhance study findings.

The broadening of sample membership could lead to the enhancement of findings in two distinct ways. First, a broadened and more representative sample could further increase the generalizability of the findings. In other words, the fact that administrators on different levels and in diverse setting do actually practice the validated NASSP skills on the job would further underline their importance for effective educational leadership. Secondly, diversifying sample membership in terms of level of administration and settings might permit meaningful comparisons to be made across sample lines. Thus, the final implication for further study would point to the expansion of sample membership both to validate further leadership skills and to provide meaningful and significant comparisons between and among samples.

In summary then, the following comments provide a synthesis of the preceding remarks concerning implications for further study.

1. Educational researchers can benefit from the application of a qualitative methodology to their study because such a methodology can serve both verifica-

tion and exploration efforts.

2. Educational researchers can employ novel and fresh data sources and methods within the qualitative framework as long as such methods and sources are valid, reliable, and feasible.
3. Educational researchers can further explore the application of the other seven validated NASSP skills in concrete job situations.
4. Educational researchers can explore the interrelationship between and among the full complement of validated NASSP skills.
5. Educational researchers can expand sample memberships to include different levels of administration and different settings. Such expansion could serve to increase generalizability as well as provide meaningful comparisons across sample lines.

In final review then, the conclusions, recommendations, and implications for further study certainly point up the complex and intriguing nature of the present topic under study, that of educational leadership. The conclusions and recommendations reaffirm that essential blend of thoughtful analysis and concerted and decisive action for effective educational leadership. They also provide specific prescriptions for skill development. The implications for further study underline the fact that how an educational leader blends analysis and action can be a complex process

indeed. It is a process that was examined in great detail in this investigation. It is also a process that merits further thoughtful study, for it is in the study of leadership behavior in practice and in the conscious application of the positive findings of that study to the job that an educational leader can bridge the gap between theory and practice and, thus, enhance professionalism.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Semi-structured Interview Schedule Questions

1. As principal, what are three major goals that you have or have had for your school?
2. Using one of those goals, could you describe a planning strategy that you have used to achieve that goal?
3. Using one of those goals, could you describe some organizing strategies that you have used to achieve that goal, i.e., coordinating, controlling, and evaluating steps toward achieving that goal?
4. What human and material factors either positively or negatively affected the strategies that you used to achieve that goal?
5. As principal, what have been some time management problems that you have encountered?
6. Could you illustrate some concrete examples of strategies that you employed to solve some time management problems?
7. As principal, what are three major problems that you have encountered in your school?
8. Using one of those problems, what strategies did you employ to solve that problem?
9. What human and material factors either positively or negatively affected the strategies that you employed to solve that problem?
10. Much of the literature speaks about participatory decision-making. What do you understand that concept to mean?
11. If you have employed a participatory decision-making process in your school, could you illustrate the process that you employed?
12. What were some strengths and weaknesses that you discovered in following a participatory decision-making process?
13. What do you consider to be some key characteristics of decisiveness?

14. As principal, could you illustrate some concrete examples wherein you acted in a decisive manner?
15. In those examples, what human and material factors required you to act in a decisive manner?

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

List of Codes for Data Analysis with Brief Definitions

Goals, Problems, Methods

1. Goal-Educ. - Identification of a goal unique to education.
2. Goal-Mana. - Identification of a management goal.
3. Str-Dir. - Directive strategy wherein direct, personal intervention took place.
4. Str-NonDir. - Nondirective strategy wherein informal and often non-structured intervention took place.
5. Str-Consult. - Consultative strategy wherein staff were asked to provide recommendations while final decision-making was done by the principal alone or with an administrative team.
6. Str-Coll. - Collaborative strategy wherein the principal and staff and/or administrative team worked together in a collegial manner to accomplish a goal or solve a problem.
7. Str-Deleg. - Delegating strategy wherein the principal handed over the goal achievement or problem-solving process to assistants, committees, and/or general staff.
8. Pl-Eval. - An indication of evaluation of present conditions for planning.
9. Pl-Time. - An indication of awareness of the difference between long and short range goals.
10. Pl-Fore. - An indication of the use of a forecasting strategy for planning.
11. Pl-Anal. - An indication of data analysis in planning.
12. Pl-Comm. - An indication of the development of a communication network to implement a plan.

13. O-Eval. - An indication of the presence of a monitoring mechanism for goal achievement.
 14. O-Comm. - An indication of the presence of a communication network for goal achievement.
 15. Pr-Educ. - Identification of a problem unique to education.
 16. Pr-Mana. - Identification of a management problem.
 17. Pr-Aware. - An indication of how the principal became aware of a problem.
 18. Pr-Info. - An indication of the principal's information source for problem-solving.
 19. Pr-Altern. - An indication of exploration and analysis of alternatives for problem-solving.
 20. Pr-Decide. - An indication of a decision or solution for a given problem.
 21. Part-Dec-Weak. - An indication of a weakness in the employment of a participatory decision-making process.
 22. Part-Dec-Str. - An indication of a strength in the employment of a participatory decision-making process.
 23. Dec-Char. - An indication of a characteristic of decisiveness.
 24. Otime-Prob. - An indication of a time management problem.
 25. Otime-Solu. - An indication of a solution to a time management problem.
- Factors, "+", "-", "0"
26. Fact-Tchr. - An individual teacher or group of teachers.
 27. Fact-Comm. - A committee employed in the goal achievement or problem-solving process.
 28. Fact-Asst. - Assistant principal(s).
 29. Fact-Head. - Department head(s).

30. Fact-Fin. - Financial considerations.
31. Fact-Bldg. - Building or equipment considerations.
32. Fact-Stud. - Student(s).
33. Fact-Parent. - Parent(s).
34. Fact-Feeder. - Feeder School(s).
35. Fact-Coll. - Principal colleague(s).
36. Fact-Time. - Time considerations.
37. Fact-Energy. - Personal energy of the principal.
38. Fact-Conseq. - The influence of consequences of the actions of the principal or staff members.
39. Fact-Morale. - Staff morale.
40. Fact-Trust. - Staff trust of the principal.
41. Fact-Admn. - The influence of an administrative team or council.
42. Fact-Hist. - Past history of the staff with administrators.
43. Fact-Bureau. - The influence of bureaucratic regulations on goal achievement or problem-solving.
44. Fact-Ramif. - The influence of ramifications on goal achievement or problem-solving.
45. Fact-Exper. - The influence of a principal's educational and/or practical experience on goal achievement or problem-solving.
46. Fact-Data. - Hard data such as questionnaire results, enrollment statistics, etc.
47. Fact-Expert. - Expert resource(s).

APPROVAL SHEET

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The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

4/14/87

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