PRINCIPAL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND

THE EFFECT OF A STRUCTURED MANAGEMENT

EFFECTIVENESS PROFILE

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the

University of North Texas in Partial

Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Mark L. Jackson, B.S., M.Ed.

Denton, Texas

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An activity for principal improvement that has not received much attention is the structured management effectiveness profile. The concept is to provide the principal and a group of teachers at that campus with an opportunity for assessment of the principal's management and leadership skills. A comparison between the two provides the principal with information on their perceived management strengths and weaknesses. One such profile, available through the American Association of School Administrators is the <u>Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile</u> (EAEP). The EAEP was originally given to 66 principals in Tarrant County, Texas. This study reports the results of reassessment of 40 of those principals after a five year period.

On the first assessment of the EAEP, the principals perceived their skills as much lower on the subtests setting goals and objectives, improving instruction, and developing staff than did their teachers. On the second assessment, the principals perceived their skills as much lower on the subtests setting goals and objectives, planning, managing business, assessing progress,

professional commitment, and improving instruction than did their teachers.

The principals and the teachers generally rated the principals higher in all subtests on the second assessment than on the first. The principals' skill at planning was rated significantly higher on the second assessment.

The principals considered the items on the EAEP to be relevant and easily understood. The results were important to them and supported what they already knew about their leadership and management skills; however they expressed mixed surprise as they noted the comparison between their self-rating and the teachers' ratings of their skills. The principals affirmed that the items on the EAEP focused their attention on certain skills that they had a desire to improve and used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide to generate a professional development plan. In addition, they believed they had improved their skills as a result of the first assessment of the EAEP and recommend the instrument highly to other principals.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

School principals in Texas go through a formal certification process of credentialing in order to obtain the qualifications necessary for the position. This process and all other aspects of the job of principals have come under close scrutiny during the last ten years. "Since the reports of educational reform commissions and consortia such as the Holmes Group, the Carnegie Commission, The National Governors' Association, and the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration, national attention has focused on the educational process and the outcomes or lack of outcomes that the system was producing" (Duttweiler and Hord 1987, 3). These reports began the current reform movement in education. The challenge to create effective schools for all students focused researchers' attention on those schools whose outcomes exceeded expectations. The body of research on effective schools is extensive; however, most authors agree that five to eight conditions exist in exemplary schools. Among the conditions consistently evident in the effective schools, strong instructional leadership of the school administrator stands out as one of the conditions without which truly effective schools do not exist (Cohen 1981).

With the spotlight clearly on the school principal, how have expectations changed for the person in that role? Lezotte (1989) suggests five assumptions relating specifically to the role of the principal that must be present for educational change: (1) In the future, even more than in the past, all schools will be expected to focus on teaching for learning as their primary mission; (2) school administrators will be expected to demonstrate skills as both efficient managers and as effective visionary leaders; (3) in the future, even more than in the past, schools will be held accountable for measurable results or outcomes; (4) decision making will be more decentralized as the individual school is recognized as the production center of public education and, therefore, the strategic unit of planned change; and (5) collaboration and staff empowerment must increase if building level staff are to become meaningfully involved in the planning, problem-solving, and evaluation of their schools' programs. In this era of change when the public is demanding accountability in all areas, particularly in the area of student achievement, the current reform movement has forced the yoke of leadership on the school administrator. For principals who have been certified for several years, processes must be in place to expand their skills and competencies to include those necessary to meet the challenges before them.

Several developmental processes exist for these educators. Formal training that culminates in an advanced degree and certification is required.

Following the formal training, state certification programs typically require an

internship of one semester. Aside from this controlled experience, skills must

be attained through on-the-job training. Other developmental opportunities

include professional conferences sponsored by universities and professional

associations. Associations such as the Association for Curriculum Development

(ASCD), the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP),

and the National Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (NEPSA)

sponsor national as well as state conventions to provide information and

workshops. Principals' centers are being organized to facilitate activities

growing out of the concerns, needs, and aspirations of principals according to

Unikel and Bailey (1986).

Other developmental opportunities are less formal. Many principals

subscribe to educational journals through their associations. These journals

provide a wealth of information and research; however, it is through the

reading, understanding, and practice that skills are internalized. It is a choice

the principal must make in order to benefit from this developmental opportuni-

ty. Personal reflection on past decisions that were effective and those that were

ineffective provide another source of skill development. Formal evaluations

from superiors provide some information; however, the quality of the

information is dependent upon the skill of the evaluator in pointing up areas of

excellence and areas that require further development. Even then, the burden is usually on the principal to search out sources for attaining the needed skills.

Among the semi-formal activities that have not received much attention is an effectiveness profile. A structured management effectiveness profile compares the administrator's perceptions of their job related skills to the perceptions of subordinates about the administrator's skills. The concept of this activity is to provide the administrator with an opportunity for self-assessment on management and leadership skills. An opportunity is also constructed for subordinate assessment of the administrator on the same set of skills. Then a comparison between the two assessments provides the administrator with information on his or her perceived management strengths and weaknesses. The assessments provide administrators with valuable insight as to the direction the formal or informal skill development needs to take. One such management effectiveness profile, available through the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) and the Texas Association of School Administrators (TASA), is entitled the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP).

Given the national focus on the skills of the principal relative to school effectiveness and the opportunity for personalized information on perceived management skill strengths and areas for improvement, the EAEP warrants

further study. The cooperation of the Texas Association of School Administrators toward this end is invaluable.

Background and Significance

The Texas Association of School Administrators (TASA) markets the EAEP to Texas school districts as a tool for self-development of all central office administrators and campus principals. Through a contract with the TASA, school districts are provided this product and scoring service. Ed Manigold, Associate Executive Director for Programs and Professional Development for TASA, conducted the original assessment of the EAEP for several school districts in Texas including some districts in the Dallas-Fort Worth area. The assessments were scored by TASA and the results returned to the participants. The first EAEP assessment was administered to these districts beginning in 1988. The score information for that first assessment is available from TASA.

The choice of this instrument is based on a desire to conduct research in the area of principal skill development and TASA's desire for an appraisal of this product. The results of this study will be considered in TASA's decision to continue to market this instrument.

Purpose of the Study

A purpose of this study was to provide some exploratory information on the use of the EAEP as a management and leadership self-development and

improvement tool for school principals. Also included in the purposes of this study were the following: (1) analysis of the extent that principals are aware of their management and leadership skills compared to their teachers' perceptions of those same skills measured by an initial administration of the EAEP; (2) analysis of the difference in principals' perceptions of their management and leadership skills compared to the teachers' perceptions of those same skills as measured by a subsequent administration of the EAEP; (3) provision of information concerning how this professional development assessment information relates to the objective measures of school effectiveness listed on the "Campus Report of the Academic Excellence Indicator System" for that campus; and (4) provision of a basis of further research into the use and understanding of structured feedback as a tool for improving the management skills of school principals.

Statement of the Problem

Three problems are addressed in this study. The first is whether the EAEP affects the management skill development of selected principals. The second is a comparison of the perceptions of the principals' management and leadership skills and selected teachers' assessment in the initial administration of the EAEP and a second administration. The third is whether the effectiveness profile relates to the objective measures of school effectiveness listed in the Academic Excellence Indicator System for Texas public schools.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are tested in this study:

1. There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the first administration of the EAEP.

2. There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the second administration of the EAEP.

Hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 were used to compare a measure of self-awareness of the principals' management and leadership skills with the teachers' assessment of the principals' skills along those same eleven subtests for each administration of the EAEP. This is the within-subtest correlation between self-ratings and the mean of subordinate ratings across managerial and leadership skills.

3. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate mean of the principals' self-assessment on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

4. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate means of the subordinates assessment of their principals on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

Hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4 were used to compare the EAEP results of the first administration with the results of the second. This is the between-subtest correlation between the aggregate principals' self-rating on the first with the self-rating on the second administration. The aggregate subordinate ratings of their principals on the first administration were compared to the aggregate subordinate ratings on the second administration.

5. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate difference scores on the first EAEP administration with that of the second administration.

The difference score was the self-rating score for each subtest subtracted from the mean of the subordinate score for each skill subtest. The difference scores were then averaged across each subtest to obtain a single difference score for each principal rated. The difference score is an indication of whether managers view themselves at the same level as do their subordinates.

6. There will be no significant relationship between any subtest mean or a group of the eleven subtest means of the principals' self-assessment scores and of the teachers' assessment scores on the second administration of the EAEP and the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills grade three, seven, or eleven mean scores on all tests.

Each Texas public school campus received information from the test scoring center about the standardized, criterion referenced tests taken by

students earlier in the year. The mean score of the appropriate campus level

tests provided an indicator of the academic effectiveness of the total campus.

Research Questions

The following research questions are tested in this study:

1. Does the EAEP meet its stated purpose by increasing self-awareness

of management and leadership skills?

2. Does the EAEP provide direction and assistance to the user to

improve selected managerial or leadership skills?

Basic Assumptions

It was assumed that the participants responses on the EAEP were true

reflections of their perceptions of such behavior. It was also assumed that each

participant completed the instrument without coercion or fear of reprisal from

colleagues or superordinates. It was expected that principals would choose

teachers to complete the EAEP who had favorable rapport with the principal.

To issue the instrument to a teacher with whom the principal had conflict would

prejudice the attitude of the respondent and the survey results.

Limitations

Data compiled and analyzed from this study are limited in scope and

describe only the selected population under investigation. Because the sample

was not random, findings and conclusions may be a result of the selection

process and the possibility that the respondents do not represent the population of school principals in Texas.

The list of possible respondents was generated from a list of administrators and campus principals who participated in this activity because of a decision by the superintendent of their school districts. Individuals who were campus principals at the time of the first administration of the EAEP may not have continued in that position; therefore, the selection of the sample was limited to those who were still in that same role.

The research design was a limitation. Even though the study was longitudinal, the time between the test and retest did not control for treatment. The results of the assessment, the developmental activities after needs were pointed up in the results, and state or local staff development emphases were all blended in the treatment. For this reason, statistical analysis was used for a portion of the data collected and summary statistics were used to report survey results for the research questions.

Definition of Terms

Because of the restricted meanings used for the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined.

Academic excellence indicator system is a designed compilation of all reports of information relative to campus, district, and state effectiveness that previously were sent to districts and campuses in piecemeal fashion through the

Texas Education Agency. The report includes information on the following categories: student test scores on all standardized tests, attendance information, demographic information, personnel information, and financial information. Each campus is grouped with one hundred similar campuses across the state. Campus reports are sent to each campus with information comparing that campus' student demographics, student test scores, attendance, personnel information, and financial information with the same information about the group of similar campuses. Districts are grouped into fifteen categories of loose similarity. Each district report contains information comparing that district to the similar group in the reported categories.

The Educational administrator effectiveness profile is an instrument and support material published by the American Association of School Administrators for school administrators that provides self-assessment and assessment by three to five individuals who know the target administrator's behavior. Eleven key skill and behavior areas are evaluated.

Elementary school is a regular public school which encompasses any combination of grades chosen from kindergarten through six.

Middle school is a regular public school which encompasses any combination of grades chosen from grades six through nine.

High school is a regular public school which encompasses any combination of grades chosen from grades nine through twelve.

Target principal is the subject of the self-evaluation on the EAEP and the subject of the three to five individuals who assess that administrator's behavior and skills.

Texas Assessment of Academic Skills is the Texas State Board of Education approved criterion-referenced standardized test that is administered at selected grade levels in writing, reading, and mathematics..

Texas Education Agency is the State of Texas Department of Education that administers, regulates, and accredits school systems in Texas.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

Introduction

The development of management and leadership skills of public school principals is complex and is the subject of much discussion at many different levels, both within and beyond the education community. To provide a satisfactory review of the background and significance of this issue, the literature of the following four main areas was investigated:

1. role theory and the changing role of the school principal;

2. management and leadership theories relative to the role of school principal;

3. the management/leadership skill development opportunities; and

4. a focus on the self-awareness opportunity for skill development.

These areas are discussed individually; however, collectively, they focus on the problem addressed in this study.

Role Theory

Role theory is an attempt to explain and predict how actors will perform in a given role, or the circumstances under which certain types of behaviors can

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be expected. The word role has its roots in theatrical usage, and refers to a part one plays or is assigned in a drama. Role theory began to appear in behavioral science literature in the 1920s (Thomas 1966). The two perspectives in role theory are functionalist and interactionist approaches. The functionalist approach has the assumption that roles are more or less fixed positions within society to which are attached certain expectations and demands. Further, these roles are enforced by sanctions, either negative or positive. The interactionist perspective's name is derived from the interpretation of human behavior as a response to the symbolic acts of others, notably gestures and speech. The response role is an interpretation of those acts. Symbolic interaction acknowledges society and its institutions as a framework within which actors create their roles contingent on the feedback of others during interaction.

From the functionalist perspective, social action is learned responses that are communicated during the process of socialization and reinforced in individuals by the approval or disapproval of significant others such as parents, teachers, or employers (Hardy and Conway 1978). From the interactionist perspective, relevant cues for action are taken during interaction with others or from the environment.

The general concept of role stress or role problems can be grouped into six general areas: role ambiguity, role conflict, role incongruity, role overload, role incompetence and role overqualification. In the role ambiguity, norms are

vague, ill-defined, or unclear. Disagreements over role expectations are generally associated with lack of clarity in role expectations rather than conflicting role expectations. Role conflict is a condition in which norms are contradictory or competitive. An example of role conflict is a school principal who is in a supportive role for all school students, yet must make a harsh recommendation about a student who does not meet behavioral expectations. Role incongruity is a source of difficulty when the expectations for the role run counter to self-perception, disposition, attitudes, and values. The school principal who must deal with fixed assets, budget, and finance issues the first time may experience role incongruity. Role overload occurs when the norms for the role are excessive within the time constraints. Role incompetence develops when the norms for a role exceed the resources of the participant. Role overqualification occurs when the participant's resources far exceed the expectations for the position.

School principals primarily determine their role from the functionalist perspective. They know their role from the study of that function while enrolled in school as a student and while employed as an teacher under the direction of a principal. In addition, the sanctions pointed out above occur when the principal conforms or does not conform to role expectations. This discussion is centered on the change in role expectations for school principals

and the effort that must be made by persons in that role to react and conform to these new expectations.

Role of the School Principal

In recent years, our nation's schools have suffered a serious loss of public confidence. According to Dwyer, Barnett, and Lee (1987, 30), "The public's support of public schools dwindled as a steady stream of stories emerged about violence in the schools, declining student achievement, and poor preparation and performance of teachers." National reports on the effectiveness of the educational system such as "A Nation at Risk" from the National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983 and Governor's Conferences have focused the attention of the public on accountability for educational progress (Duttweiler and Hord 1987). The results of these reports support the conclusion that schools have little effect on student performance. In other terms, performance is more closely related to factors of student experience prior to attending school than to the experience while in school. This was a tremendous indictment of public and private school systems. Motivated by these findings, Lezotte (1989) identified and examined schools where students were performing better than expected and compiled a number of studies called "effective schools" research.

Others such as Evans (1982) followed this strand of thought and investigated schools where student progress was the exception, given the student

profiles. In a review, Evans found several themes recurring in the effective schools literature. Among those qualities of effective schools frequently cited are (1) a strong sense of mission, (2) strong leadership, (3) high expectations for students and teachers, (4) a focus on specific instructional goals, (5) sufficient opportunities for learning, (6) parent and community involvement, and (7) a positive learning environment. It is significant that the management and leadership of schools embodied in the principal is accountable for many if not all the qualities of effective schools. Daresh (1991, 1) points out that "Many researchers indicate that the behavior of educational leaders is the single most important factor supporting high quality programs in schools." Stated simply, an effective principal has an effective school. The coupling of the effective schools research and the declining confidence in the educational system has created a demand for change from the status quo to a new role for school principals.

According to Dwyer, Barnett, and Lee (1987, 30), "The public embraced this image of strong leadership, partly because it was eager for a solution to schooling's apparent plight, partly because of its persistent belief that great men and women do make history." The result is that school principals are expected to take major responsibility for school reform toward effectiveness and quality.

Several authors have been explicit about the new role expectations for principals and have expanded the definition of instructional leadership. "In

addition to the managerial tasks required, the new age principal has to provide coherence to the instructional programs, work with teachers to conceptualize instructional goals, set high academic standards, stay informed of policies and teacher problems, make frequent classroom visits and provide both diagnostic and prescriptive input to the teacher, create incentives for learning, and create a climate that fosters student learning" (Bossert 1982, 37). According to Jacob (1989), new demands for processes that encourage collaborative decision making, new community and business expectations for schools, and the increased demand for putting together teaching teams within which peer coaching occurs call for administrative abilities in facilitation and communication strategies as well as teacher selection and development strategies.

Cawelti (1987) believes the essence of instructional leadership centers around four technical tasks or processes: (1) curriculum development, (2) supervision of teaching, (3) staff development for improved teaching, and (4) teacher evaluation. He also points out four leader behaviors: (1) a sense of vision, (2) organization developer, (3) instructional support, and (4) monitoring learning. Further, Crisci, March and Peters (1991, 3) state that "Without the knowledge of the teacher effectiveness research and accompanying supervisory skills, the principal is unable to provide adequate and consistent support to help teachers maintain those skills acquired in preservice training." Rothstein (1986, 3) identifies five areas that school principals need to know. They are a

knowledge of (1) human development and learning theory, (2) group processes, (3) organizational and management theory, (4) problem solving skills, and (5) conferencing skills. The combinations and lists of new leader behaviors, management tasks, skills, and essential information that principals need to know in order to be successful seem to be limited only by the number of authors on the subject.

Other authors see problems with the new role expectations. Daresh (1991) who studied beginning principals, found problems in role definition such as understanding who they were, now that they were principals, how they were supposed to use their new authority; limitations on technical expertise such as how they do the things that they are supposed to do; and difficulties with socialization to the profession and individual school systems or learning the ropes. In a study of how seasoned principals use their time, Martin and Willower (1981) concluded that the principal's work is characterized by variety, brevity, and fragmentation and that most of the principal's activities (84.8 percent) involve purely verbal elements. Whether a new principal or seasoned principal, the role is neither simple nor one dimensional. As Strother (1983, 291) states, "The principal is often the person in the middle, caught between the school board and superintendent and between the teachers and parents."

Management Theory and Leadership Theory

As noted from the preceding discussion, the management and leadership skills of public school principals are essential to fulfilling that role. From the vast body of literature on management and leadership, the development of management theory, the development of leadership theory, and some management and leadership issues pointed out in the literature that are affecting educational management thought and practice are discussed.

Management Theory

Management, management skills, and management behavior are topics that have inspired a tremendous number of authors. Although thorough review of this literature is not within the scope of this project, a chronological review of selected authors and theorists provides an enlightened understanding of management theories. A chronological examination of the topic is used in the discussion of management history beginning with a section on scientific management. In the next section, the social man era is considered. In the final section, the modern era of management thought is examined.

Scientific Management

The history of management thought is rich, with its beginnings in the civilizations of the Greeks, Romans, and Chinese. In early civilizations, it was accepted that organizations could be run on central authority by the divine right

of the king or monarch, on the dogma of religious faithfuls, or the rigid discipline of the military. The Industrial Revolution, with its pressures on economic, social, and political attitudes, replaced the domestic system and posed managerial problems of organization of resources, technology, and people. These problems gave rise to the ideas of Frederick Taylor (1911).

At Midvale Steel in Philadelphia during the late 1800s, Taylor developed his ideas about management and production. A time and motion study was used to lay foundations for what he called task management. The two important parts to task management were the development of the science of work; and the selection of workers who could meet those standards when motivated by a differential piece rate (Wren 1979). The workers were organized according to function rather than the military hierarchy style. This arrangement did not violate the unity of command idea but did focus the management task on the work rather than the worker. Taylor recognized the mutual interests of the manager and the worker and identified four underlying principles of his system: (1) the development of a true science of work, (2) the scientific selection of the workman, (3) the scientific education and development of the worker and manager, and (4) intimate friendly cooperation between the manager and the worker. This philosophical framework and systematic approach to management problems deemed him the Father of Scientific Management.

On the technique side, proponents of the scientific approach analyzed existing practices, studied them for standardization and improvement, and searched for rational resource utilization. On the human relations side this approach sought to develop and reward the individual worker and scientifically match the worker to the work.

Other writers during the early years of scientific management thought also contributed to the theory. Frank Gilbreth and Lillian Gilbreth (1918) studied task analysis and studied work for efficiency of movement. The Gilbreths also studied the psychological aspect of the worker and sought to use the scientific management framework to develop each person by strengthening personal traits, special abilities, and skills for the mutual benefit of the worker and organization. Emerson (1917) called for organization of the business to further the advantages of scientific management. He outlined four subgroupings of staff under the chief of staff. The support staff included: (1) a staff member to plan, direct, and advise employees, (2) a staff member to advise on technology, (3) a staff member to supervise material purchase and handling, and (4) a staff member to develop standards and keep financial records.

Administrative Theory

Fayol (1949), a French manager-engineer, fathered the first theory of administration through his study of the management process. He was concerned about the teaching of management science to managers. Fayol

determined that managers develop their own set of management skills through practice and experience. He is noted for setting out administrative theory by recognizing that management is a separate activity applicable to all undertakings, that management ability is needed as a manager moves up the hierarchy, and that management can be taught. Fayol describes five elements of management: planning, organizing, command, coordination, and control. Of the five, planning and organization received the majority of his attention (Wren 1979). Fayol (1949, 19) also outlined the following fourteen principles of management to be used as organizational guidelines:

Division of work	Discipline
Authority	Unity of command
Unity of direction	Remuneration
Subordination of individual interests	Centralization
Scalar chain	Order
Equity	Stability of tenure
Initiative	Esprit de corps.

Bureaucratic Theory

Max Weber (1947), a German economist-sociologist, developed a theory of organization through the concept of bureaucracy as the ideal of technical efficiency. He furthered scientific management by identifying the pure form or normative model of large scale professional administrative organization. Weber also identified three types of legitimate authority: rational-legal, which rests on the rights of those in authority to issue commands; traditional, which rests on the person in the position; and charismatic, which rests on the trust of the

followers in the virtue of the leader. Weber's administrative system is strikingly analogous to that of Taylor (1911) (Wren 1979). The essential elements of Weber's (1947, 329) ideal bureaucracy include the following:

1. Division of labor in which authority and responsibility are clearly defined.

2. The positions are organized in a hierarchy of authority resulting in a chain of command.

3. Organizational members are selected based on technical qualifications or training.

4. Officials are appointed, not elected.

5. Administrative officials work for fixed salaries and are career officials.

6. The administrative official is not an owner of the unit being administered.

7. The administrator is subject to strict impersonal rules, discipline, and controls regarding his conduct of duties.

According to Weber (1947), bureaucracy is conceived as a blueprint for efficiency which emphasizes rules rather than men and competence rather than favoritism. Weber's thrust for efficiency in organization ultimately ushered in the next phase of management thought.

Social Man Era

Hawthorne Research

In 1924, the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences attempted to use scientific management techniques to determine the precise relationship between illumination and the individual efficiency at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric. Independent variables of illumination, shortening the work week, giving five minute breaks, and removing privileges all produced increased results. Scientific management techniques were not producing the expected results. Mayo (1960) noted that change in mental attitude in the group was the key factor in explaining the Hawthorne mystery. Mayo's solution was an intimate style of management. "Nurturant supervision could adjust workers to bureaucratic life and get informal groups of workers to accept the formal goals of managers. This style of management was to convince workers that managers were their friends and that the bureaucracy was a community thus increasing their desire to cooperate" (Waring 1991, 15). Scientific management and organization were not discarded; however, the difference between Taylor's (1911) approach and Mayo's (1960) approach was more a difference of means to the same end, the recognition of a mutually beneficial relationship between the worker and management (Wren 1979).

Formal Organization Theory

Chester Barnard (1968) surmised that there are three universal elements in formal organizations: (1) willingness to cooperate, (2) common purpose, and (3) communication. Willingness to cooperate means the organization must provide physical and social inducements to offset the sacrifice of participating in a particular organization. Purpose means the workers know what efforts will be required of them and the possible satisfactions that can occur as participants in the organization. Communication channels must be the means to accomplish the other two conditions.

Another aspect of the formal organization theory was that authority is not defined by the person in authority, rather by the willingness of subordinates to accept or reject the authority. Barnard's (1968) theory was chiefly concerned with the professional, moral management of the organization to enhance both the effectiveness of the organization and the well-being of individuals.

The Modern Era

Management by Objectives

In contrast to the process functions of management defined by scientific management, Peter Drucker (1974) identified three broader managerial functions: (1) managing a business, (2) managing managers, and (3) managing workers and work. According to Drucker, in every decision a manager must

put economic considerations first. He recognizes the possibility of noneco-nomic consequences of these decisions, such as worker happiness and welfare; however, the economic considerations must be primary.

By managing the business, Drucker (1974) stresses the entrepreneurial character of the organization in creating markets and products rather than being passive and adaptive. The managing managers introduces the notion of man-agement by objectives. This concept is the negotiation, clarification, and agreement on specific measurable objectives between a manager and his or her superior. The contract recognizes the social needs of the manager to be self-controlled rather than controlled from above. Managing workers, the third task of management, is to make the work productive and the worker achieving. Drucker (1984) points out that workers are the most vital resource of an organi-zation.

Management by objectives is far from revolutionary. Managers like the clear goals and priorities, the easy communications, but do not like the red tape. Perhaps top managers consider it too time consuming, too threatening to their authority and power, or senseless given their own limited autonomy (Waring 1991).

Other Associated Theories

Abraham Maslow (1970) paved the way for humanist psychologists who argued for better employee mental health through improved organizational

practices. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory describes a list of needs to be satisfied. The hierarchy progresses from lower physiological and safety needs through higher social needs for love and esteem to the highest ego need for self-actualization. His call for organizational change was for job enrichment to satisfy these needs.

Douglas McGregor (1960) challenged the classical management theories as being inappropriate for modern man. The human assumptions underlying the classical theory he considered to be Theory X, or the traditional view of direction and control. The three assumptions he attributed to Theory X were the following:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike for work and will avoid it if he can.

2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all (McGregor 1960, 33).

In direct contrast to the assumptions underlying Theory X, McGregor (1960) posed assumptions of his Theory Y which he believed more closely match the needs of modern workers. The assumptions of Theory Y were the following:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play and rest.

2. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized (McGregor 1960, 47).

"Under Theory Y, it was the essential task of management to unleash employees' potential so that they could achieve their goals by directing their efforts toward those of the organization" (Wren 1979, 485).

Frederick Hertzberg (1968) set forth the motivation-hygiene theory of motivation. The hygiene factors describe those attributes of the job that remove health factors from the environment. They remove dissatisfaction by modifying supervision, interpersonal relations, salaries, company policies, and administrative practices. Hygiene factors are not satisfiers; they remove dissatisfaction. Motivator factors satisfy workers' needs for self-actualization. The modification of achievement, recognition, challenging work, and increased job responsibility produce satisfiers and improved production.

General Systems Theory

"General systems theory was an attempt to provide a synthesis and a systems point of view which would enable the manager to have a conceptual framework for relating different specialties and parts of the company to one another" (Wren 1979, 523). General systems theory is an interdisciplinary compilation of organization theory, management process theory, information theory, decision theory, the behavioral sciences, and operations research. This theory allows a holistic approach to an organic, open system organization. The original idea is attributed to Bertalanffy (1969) who believed an organization is an interacting, complex of physical, human, and information resources which can be viewed conceptually and managed as an input-output system. The organization must be responsive to its environment with inputs, through-puts, outputs, and a feedback loop. This theory takes into account the production/operations management, functional control techniques including computers, and general management theory. General systems theory includes cybernetics, the use of computers to process large amounts of information, and communication theory. In this way, the theory concentrates study on the parts of a situation, their relationships, and the integration of the parts into a whole. From this discussion of the relationship between the organization and its environment comes the idea that management is made more difficult by

environmental factors. This leads to the last modern era theory, contingency theory.

Contingency Theory

Contingency theory, developed by Lorsch and Morse (1973), stresses the concept that there is no one best way to manage. Instead, management depends on identification of the variables in each situation, an understanding of the relationships between the variables, and recognition of the complexities of cause and effect in every managerial situation (Wren 1979). Stability of the environment means management that is different than management in an unstable environment. The rapid change in technology also requires adaption of the organization to its environment.

Lorsch and Morse (1973) used the term differentiation to describe the degree of segmentation in organizational subunits with how they relate to the external environment. The greater the degree of differentiation, the greater the complexity of the organization. Integration was the term used to describe the coordination in achieving unity of effort. Two approaches to integration were (1) use of formal management hierarchy of authority, plans, procedures, and rules; and (2) crossfunctional teams with teams and team leaders based on open communication using knowledge and expertise rather than formal authority.

Waring (1991) points out that contingency theory is another idea in the management discussion. Rather than support contingency theory as the most

up-to-date theory, Waring contends that all theories since Taylor's (1911)

scientific management have substantiated Taylor's beliefs. Waring divides

theorists into two philosophical camps, the post-Taylorite bureaucratic thinkers

and the post-Mayoist corporatists. He suggests that the post-Taylorite bureau-

crats believe in the basic rationality and legitimacy of centralized power and

specialized tasks. Post-Mayoist corporatists question some aspects of the

rationality and legitimacy of bureaucratic forms of management. They point up

the conflict between managers and professional, educated, affluent workers.

Post-Mayoists explain the dysfunction and offer solutions such as democratic

styles of leadership, job enrichment, and participative management methods to

reduce the conflict (Waring 1991).

Examples of post-Taylorites include Taylor (1911), Frank and Lillian

Gilbreth (1918), Fayol (1949), and Weber (1947). Examples of post-Mayoists

include Mayo (1960), Barnard (1968), Drucker (1974), Maslow (1970),

McGregor (1960), and Hertzberg (1968). Waring (1991) contends that none of

the post-Mayoists have refuted the organization structure and general tenets of

Taylor and that they conveniently forget the emphasis that Taylor places on the

relationship between the worker and the organization. Citing no general

examples of corporatist participatory management, democratic leadership, or

Japanese methods to replace the bureaucrats structure, Waring concludes that

the political, economic, legal, and Western cultural demands require reliance on the bureaucratic philosophy.

Leadership Theory

Leadership, leader style, and leader behavior have prompted an almost inexhaustible supply of published material dealing with the study of each. A comprehensive analysis and review of these studies is also beyond the scope of this project. The emphasis for this study is on the chronological development of leadership theory as it pertains to an enhanced understanding of leadership style and behavior. Leadership concepts that gave rise to early leadership theories are discussed first. In the next section, the focus is on leader behavior research which seeks to identify styles of leadership. In the final section, contingency-situational leadership theories are examined.

Early Leadership Concepts

The historical concept of leadership was based upon a leadership role in a religious, political, or military setting. Inspirational leaders in all these arenas mobilized thousands of followers. Regardless of culture or nationality, the following attributes of a leader emerged: justice, wisdom, counsel, authority, valor, and judgment (Konnert and Augenstein 1990, 40). However, the inspirational ability of an individual was considered the essence of leadership.

The concept of the personalization of leadership contributed the ideas of leader status and hierarchy. A leader had power through status and position (Stogdill 1974). Consequently, early literature on leadership suggests the image of a leader as an entity endowed with magical attributes and occupying a status position in relation to other individuals.

Great Man Theory

Because history is personalized through stories of leadership by which outstanding leaders determined the course of history, the earliest accepted theory of leadership was the great man theory. This theory supported the idea that a superior leader emerges to lead a society no matter how intelligent, energized, and moral the society may be. A society cannot be led by the masses; therefore, a leader must always emerge. Great leaders throughout history have possessed the dissimilar characteristics of task-oriented behavior and the ability to be concerned for their followers (Konnert and Augenstein 1990); thus, individuals showing both of these qualities were revered as great men who would be great leaders regardless of the situation. This theory assumes that great leaders are born with these qualities, which indicates that leadership is not a behavior to be learned.

The idea that great man qualities cannot be learned and the work of early behavioral psychologists led to studies of great men in an effort to identify traits which were common to great leaders. In the 1920s and 1930s, researchers

attempted to isolate the superior qualities of great men and in the process explain leadership in terms of personality and character traits (Bass, 1981). This led to the trait theory of leadership.

Trait Theory and Environmental Theory

The trait approach to leadership was based on the notion that there are certain personal characteristics or qualities that separate natural leaders from the general populace. These early studies focused on a search for universal traits related to leadership. It was believed that universal traits were physical, mental, and personality-based.

Proponents of the trait approach grouped all successful leaders together without concern for the specific situations of each and were plagued with weak and inconsistent findings. Because of this, researchers began to question the existence of leadership traits and the necessity for further study. Jennings (1972) points out that after fifty years of research, no single leadership trait, or set of traits could distinguish leaders from non-leaders.

The environmental theory of leadership also emanated from the great man theory. However, it is distinguished from the trait theory in that the environmental theory claims that leaders emerge not necessarily because of their own inherent greatness, but because time, circumstances, and place surround them. The situation and group are significant factors in determining the type of leader who emerges. Leadership is seen as residing not in the

person, but in the occasion confronting the leader (Konnert and Augenstein 1990). Stogdill (1974) notes that in several studies to measure situational factors, researchers have found evidence that the relative importance of each trait depends upon the situation. He concludes: "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, . . . the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (Stogdill 1974, 64).

Because the trait approach or the environmental approach had almost no analytical or predictive value, researchers began to focus not on the character of a leader but on what a person does that makes that person an effective leader. Many of the resulting studies focused on the behavior of a leader's interactions with subordinates. The research sought to identify leadership styles and the relationship between style and subordinate satisfaction.

<u>Behavioral Theories of Leadership</u>

The Iowa Studies

Many consider the studies of Kurt Lewin (1948) and his associates at the University of Iowa to be the most widely known works in leadership and to have launched the scientific study of leadership (Yukl 1981). The focus of Lewin's studies was to analyze the effects of laissez-faire, democratic, and

autocratic styles of leadership on the behavior of boys in boys' clubs which were organized to make theatrical masks. The group leaders employed the leadership style while being observed by graduate students and psychologists.

The laissez-faire leader abdicated responsibility to lead and only provided help when asked. The democratic leader involved the group in the decision-making process and encouraged upward communication. The authoritarian leader decided what was to be done and how, and directed the group to implement orders. Thus the Iowa studies showed that the groups led by democratic leaders had more group commitment and unity and less aggression and apathy than did the other two groups (Waring 1991).

The Ohio State Studies

The Ohio State University Leadership Studies, beginning in the late 1940s, focused research on the identification of leadership behavior that is instrumental for the attainment of group and organizational goals (Yukl 1981). The instrument developed by the project staff, the <u>Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire</u> (LBDQ), was designed to describe how leaders carry out their activities. Leadership was defined as the behavior of an individual when directing the activities of a group. Leader behavior was described in terms of initiating structure and consideration.

Initiation structure defined the relationship between the leader and work group in terms of communication, procedures, and organizational patterns.

Consideration referred to the affective relationship between the leader and members of the work group. The results of the LBDQ survey indicate that leadership behavior is not along a single continuum; rather, the survey indicated that initiating structure and consideration are separate and distinct dimensions. The Ohio State studies provided researchers with the ability to plot leadership behavior on a two dimensional grid as illustrated in Figure 1.

```
(High) _____
C
o      High              High
n   Consideration      Consideration
s      and               and
i      Low              High
d    Structure         Structure
e
r      _____
a      Low              High
t   Consideration      Structure
i      and               and
o      Low              Low
n    Structure         Consideration
(Low) _____
       (Low)    Initiating Structure    (High)
```
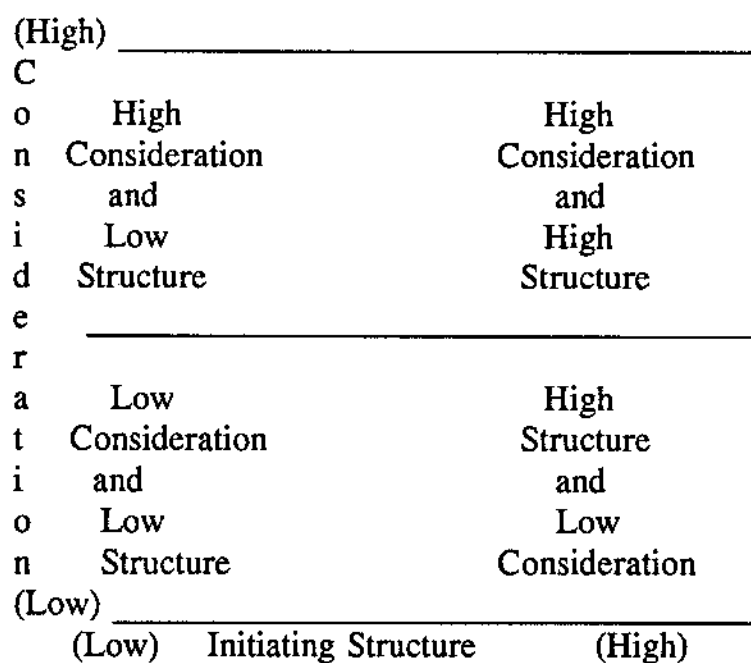
Fig. 1. Ohio State Leadership Grid (Gagne and Fleishman 1959, 328)

The Michigan Studies

A second major program of research on leadership behavior was carried out by researchers at the University of Michigan at approximately the same

time as the Ohio State Leadership Studies (Yukl 1981). The research led to the identification of two independent dimensions called employee orientation and production orientation. An employee-orientation leader stresses the relationships aspect of the job, whereas a production-oriented leader emphasizes the technical and production aspects of the job. These two orientations parallel the initiating structure (task) and consideration (human relations) concepts.

Seashore and Bowers' Four-Factor Theory

In 1966, Seashore and Bowers (1963) proposed a theory to explain managerial effectiveness in terms of four categories of leadership behavior. Their four categories came from redefining the results of the Ohio State studies and the Michigan studies (Yukl 1981). Their analysis yielded four dimensions of leadership behavior: support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, and work facilitation.

Support behavior enhances another's feeling of personal worth and acceptance. Interaction facilitation encourages members of a group to develop close, mutually satisfying relationships. Goal emphasis stimulated an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance. Work facilitation helped achieve goal attainment through such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and providing resources.

The Ohio State (1948) and Seashore and Bowers (1963) studies suggest that there are multidimensional leadership styles. These styles have been given several names including: task-oriented, instrumental, initiating-structure, employee-oriented, people-centered, expressive, and initiating-structure. Do all styles produce equally effective results? Does a particular leadership style produce better goal attainment in given situations or circumstances? These questions were the stepping stones into the next major area of leadership research called contingency-situational theory of leadership. Essentially, leaders engage in behaviors that reflect characteristics of the situations they are in, including the types of subordinates, decisions, tasks, and organizations involved.

Situational-Contingency Theories of Leadership

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fiedler (1967) recognized that while one form of leadership was associated with effective group performance in some circumstances, there were circumstances in which a quite contrary form seemed most effective (Konnert and Augenstein 1990). In 1967, Fiedler advanced a contingency theory of leadership. This theory explains that effectiveness of a given pattern of leader behavior is contingent upon the demands imposed by the situation. A semantic differential scale, which is a type of questionnaire composed of bipolar items in

his <u>Least Preferred Coworker</u> (LPC) instrument was used to measure leader attitudes.

Fiedler (1967) defined leadership style as the extent to which a leader is task-oriented versus relationship-oriented. Leadership style is contingent upon three critical situational determinants. These were identified by Fiedler as (1) leader-member relations, (2) task structure, and (3) position power. He concluded that if the situational determinants or variables are very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader, then a task-oriented leader is most effective. On the other hand, a relationship-oriented leader performs best in situations that are intermediate in favorableness (Stogdill 1974).

Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory of leadership, developed by Filley and House (1969), was based on the expectancy-motivation theory and the concepts of consideration and initiating structure. Their theory proposes that leader behavior is viewed as acceptable to subordinates to the extent that the subordinates see such behavior as either an immediate source of satisfaction or as instrumental to future satisfaction (Stogdill 1974).

An effective leader is one who clarifies and expedites the path to a subordinate's goal. The theory suggests that the following four leadership styles are used by the same leader in different situations : (1) supportive leadership, (2) directive leadership, (3) participative leadership, and (4)

achievement-oriented leadership (Yukl 1981). Some aspects of Filley and

House's theory were borrowed from Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of

motivation which described work motivation in terms of a rational choice

process in which workers decide how much effort to devote to the job.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory contains three elements: expectancy,

valence, and instrumentality. Expectancy is a belief that if one exerts a certain

amount of effort, a certain level of performance can be expected. Valence is

the value one attaches to a reward, be it monetary, advancement, prestige, or

power. Instrumentality is the belief that a certain level of performance will

result in receiving the desired reward. The concept of Vroom's expectancy

theory is that motivation is the product of expectancies, instrumentalities, and

valences. The belief is that one chooses the expectancy that leads to the highest

instrumentality for the highest valence or valued reward.

Managerial Grid Theory

A variation of the two dimensional approach was developed by Blake,

Mouton, and Tapper (1981). The authors conceptualize leadership in terms of

a managerial grid on which concern for people represents one axis and concern

for production represents the other axis (Stogdill 1974). The concepts of their

theory correspond to consideration and initiating structure. The leader who

rates high on both axes develops followers who are committed to the

accomplishment of work and whose sense of interdependence develops trust and

respect. The managerial grid is illustrated in Figure 2.

```
(High) _____
C
o   1-9                              9-9
n
c   (Country Club)                   (Team)
e
r
n

f                    5-5
o   _____
r                    (Middle of the Road)


P
e
o
p   (Impoverished)                   (Task)
l
e   1-1                              1-9
(Low) _____
       (Low)   Concern for Task      (High)
```
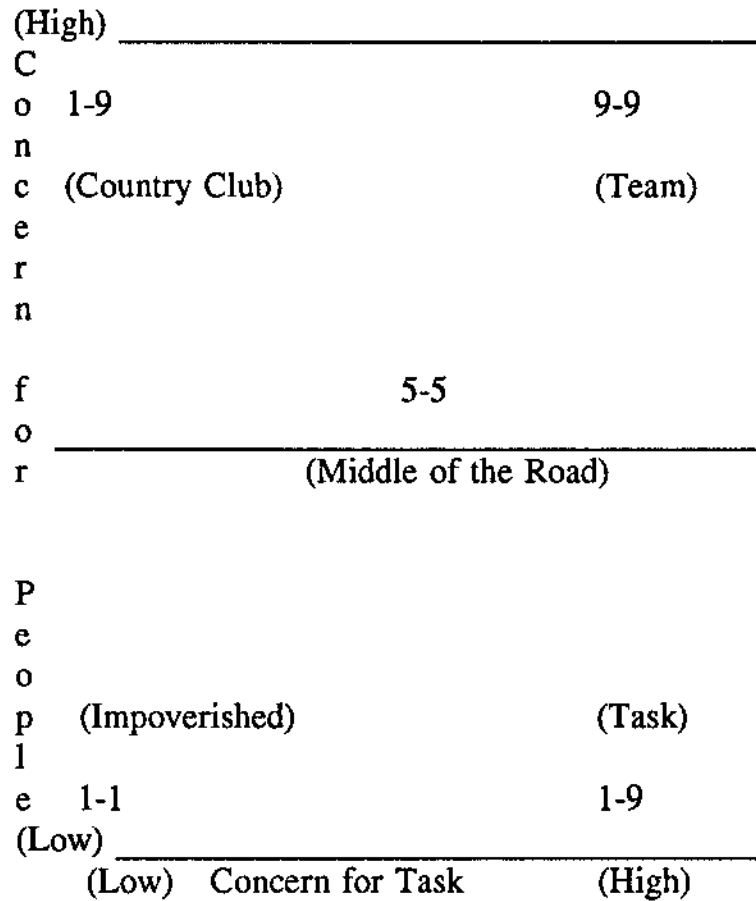
Fig. 2. Grid of Leadership Styles (Blake, Mouton, and Tapper 1981, 2)

Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) theory concerns two broad categories of

leadership behavior: task behavior and relationship behavior. These categories

correspond approximately to the initiating structure and consideration in the

Ohio State studies (Yukl 1981). Their model deals explicitly with only one situational moderator variable, called follower maturity. Maturity was found by evaluating the following: (1) the workers' level of achievement motivation, (2) the workers' level of willingness to accept responsibility, (3) the ability of workers to accept responsibility, and (4) the experience level of the workers. Maturity was measured only in relation to a particular task that the subordinate is expected to perform.

According to their theory, leaders engage in either high or low levels of task and relationship as determined by the maturity level of their subordinates. Therefore, four different leadership situations are plotted along a continuum divided into four sections, as shown in Figure 3.

For a situation (M1) where subordinates are very immature in relation to the task, the leader should concentrate on task-oriented behavior. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) label block (M1) telling. For situations (M2) and (M3) where subordinates have a moderate amount of maturity, the leader should engage in considerable relationship-oriented behavior, labeled selling and participating, respectively. And for situation (M4), where subordinates are very mature, the leader should delegate responsibility for deciding how the work is done to subordinates and allow them to have considerable autonomy, labeled delegating (Yukl 1981).
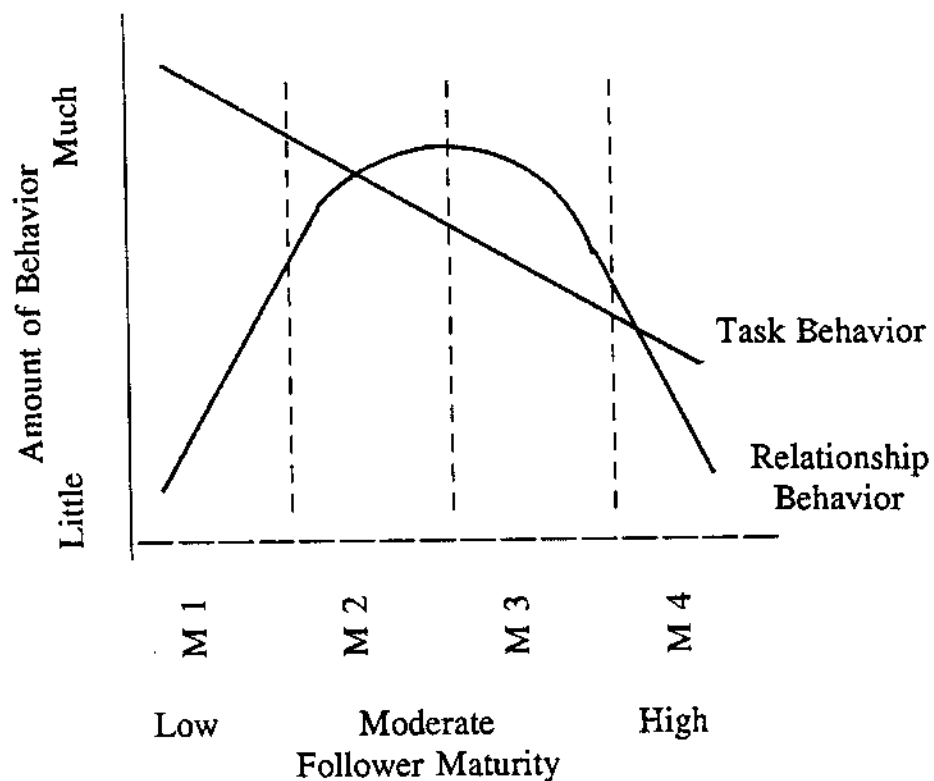
Fig. 3. Situational Leadership Model (Hersey and Blanchard
1977, 167)

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory relates style

to both self-perception and observed behavior within the leadership environ-

ment. Additionally, it specifies the need for the leader to understand the needs

of the followers first and then to adjust leader behavior rather than follower

behavior. The emphasis is on flexible, adaptable leader behavior which can be

controlled rather than on leader personality which cannot.

"As theories of leadership have evolved during the twentieth century, the

emphasis has swung from the study of the leader as an individual to an

emphasis on the transactional leader who assesses, alters, and reacts to specific situations" (Konnert and Augenstein 1990, 46). However, an important leadership theory is emerging which embraces a concept other than transactional leadership.

<div align="center">Transformational Leadership</div>

James McGregor Burns (1978) suggests that only a portion of leadership is due to an exchange or transaction between the leader and followers. In transactional leadership, leaders and followers approach each other with an expectation that an exchange will occur. In going beyond this approach, the transformational leader "looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transformational leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation" (Burns 1978, 4).

Bennis (1984) describes the following competencies common to transformational leaders: (1) management of attention--clear sense of vision, goal, or direction; (2) management of meaning--communicating the vision; (3) management of trust--constancy, and focus; and (4) management of self--knowing one's skills and deploying them effectively.

Bass (1985) details transformational leadership as motivating subordinates to do more than they ever expected to do by raising their level of awareness and consciousness about the importance and value of reaching designated

outcomes. He identifies three transformational leadership factors: (1) charisma in seeing what is really important, (2) individual consideration, and (3) intellectual stimulation to rethink old ways.

Belasco (1990), Bennis (1989), Bennis and Nanus (1985), Cohen (1990), DePree (1989), and Kouzes and Posner (1988) are all engaged in the study of transformational leadership. No explicit theory has emerged with constructs and empirical tests; however, Bass (1985) is confident that transactional leadership yields expected performance while transformational leadership yields performance beyond expectations.

Conclusion

Evidence of support for the undergirdings of Taylor's (1911) scientific management theory and constructs continue to exist in the structure of many organizations. The concern for worker needs and their relation to production is also one of Taylor's constructs. Drucker (1974) states that management is the effective, active organ and that there are specific management skills which pertain to management, rather than to any other discipline. The skills he outlines are communications, decision-making in times of uncertainty, and strategic planning. Drucker also lists several management dimensions which include managing the economics of the organization, making the work productive and the worker achieving, managing the social impacts and social responsibilities of the enterprise, and managing time. Waring (1991) and Kotter (1988)

state that modern management has evolved over the past five decades and find

at the heart of virtually all descriptions four key processes: planning, budgeting,

organizing, and controlling.   Kotter defines management as a set of explicit

tools and techniques, based on rational reasoning and testing, that are designed

to be used in remarkably similar ways across a wide range of business situa-

tions.   He emphasizes the effect of the environment on management stating:

> Making decisions in the relatively calm environment of the 1950s, 1960s,
> and 1970s does not compare to the present uncertainty of intense com-
> petitive activity.   Just as leadership in the government and the military
> becomes more important in war than in peacetime, leadership in business
> becomes more important when warfare breaks out in the economic
> sphere.   Increased competitive intensity has created just that kind of
> warfare (Kotter 1988, 11).

Leadership, as defined by Burns (1978, 18), "is exercised when persons

with certain motives and purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with

others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to

arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers."   Cohen (1990) and

Kotter (1988) define leadership as the art of influencing others to their maxi-

mum performance to accomplish any task, objective, or project.   DePree

(1989) describes leaders as the servants of their followers in that they remove

the obstacles that prevent them from doing their jobs thereby enabling their

followers to realize their full potential.   Koerner (1991, 6) states that "Leaders

tend not only to look far out ahead, but also to look out to the sides more

broadly to see the context in which their system is functioning, how it relates to other systems in the environment, to history, and to the economy."

Several authors define leadership through skills and behaviors. Bennis and Nanus (1985) discuss four strategies for effective leadership: (1) attention to vision, (2) establishing meaning for the organization through communication, (3) establishing trust and consistency, and (4) deployment of self through positive self-regard. Bennis (1989) furthers the discussion by pointing out guiding vision, passion, and integrity as three ingredients of leadership. Agenda setting, network building, credibility, and maintaining an attractive work environment are key aspects of effective leadership according to Kotter (1988). Kouzes and Posner (1988) add challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart as descriptions of their study of effective leaders.

Management and leadership are occasionally discussed together, although it is popular to compare and contrast the two concepts. Management is associated with doing things right, efficiency, and maintaining the status quo; whereas leadership is associated with doing the right thing, effectiveness, and moving the organization toward a goal (Bennis 1989, Bennis and Nanus 1985, Cohen 1990, DePree 1989, Kotter 1988, and Kouzes and Posner 1988). It is also popular to compare and contrast management and leadership in order to further the definitions of each. Bennis (1989) presents a representative sample:

The Manager:	The Leader:
administers	innovates
is a copy	is an original
maintains	develops
focuses on systems and structure	focuses on people
relies on control	inspires trust
has a short range view	has a long range perspective
asks how and when	asks what and why
has eye always on the bottom line	has eye on the horizon
accepts the status quo	challenges it
is classic good soldier	is their own person
does things right	does the right thing
(Bennis 1989, 29)	

Other writers do not believe management and leadership are mutually
exclusive concepts. Kotter (1988) indicates that a person with an appropriate
background and skills can do both well in some situations. For instance, plans
may include a vision; budgets may have strategies; and motivating and control-
ling people can be effectively balanced. However, Koerner points out that:

> Those managers who have little of the leader in them are apt to take the
> system as it is, saying: "Here's a machine, I'll turn the crank. I'll run it
> in the best way I can," whereas the leader with an eye to renewal is
> constantly saying, "Is the system doing what it's supposed to do? How
> can I make it do better what it's supposed to do? Have we reexamined
> the goals of the system?" In other words, leaders ask deeper questions
> with respect to the evolution of the system (Koerner 1988, 22).

Other issues have impacted the management and leadership skills of
principals. Issues such as restructuring (Olson 1991), quality circles (Thomp-
son 1982), total quality management (Walton 1986), and the erosion of popu-
larity in current educational literature of top-down bureaucratic management
impact school management and the leadership skills of principals.

Management and Leadership Skill Development

The pressures of school reform to redefine the role of the principal and recent emphasis on management and leadership skills lead to an examination of the training and development of current principals. Current emphasis is on the task of expanding the skills and repertoire of practicing school administrators to meet the challenge. The formal and informal training and development of administrators can be approached in a chronological order.

Formal Training for the Principalship

Formal training exposes principal candidates to skills, values, knowledge and attitudes that their educators judge to be prerequisites for the principalship. During this period, candidates encounter only a few of the realities that they will confront later in the schools where they will work. School principals are typically classroom teachers who decide to return to the university to pursue a degree or certification in mid-management. The current prerequisite is three years of classroom experience, an appropriate degree, and completion of a certification program to meet the certification requirements in Texas. However, there is a movement to place non-educators in the role of principal. In either case, formal training and certification involve coursework in areas such as school law, theories of management, elementary and secondary curriculum, instructional leadership training, and multicultural education.

The second phase of training begins when the candidate, having success-fully completed the preparatory phase, assumes an administrative intern position in a school. This is described as the phase of organizational reality, the period when the principal confronts the complex realities of organizational life. The principal no longer deals only with the ideas of authors of textbooks, but also with values, attitudes and convictions of individuals with whom he or she must work. This phase of formal training in Texas requires a joint college and school district supervised internship program to help principals begin to learn the ropes. Beyond the year of internship, on-the-job training is the norm for gaining experience (Hallinger and Wimpelberg 1991).

The assistant principalship is the most common route to the principalship in secondary schools. One would assume that this experience would prepare the individual for the intricacies of the principalship; however, that is usually not true. Principals often fail to provide the experiences necessary to ground the assistant principal in the many aspects of their role. Most often, the assistant principal is relegated a very narrow role involving two or three delegated functions. The result is experienced assistant principals who are not prepared to assume the management and leadership role as principal.

Criticism of this formal process is not uncommon. Fallon (1979) points out that the degrees and certification required by various states provide princi-pals with background experience in administration and management but exclude

of experiences preparing them to evaluate the adequacy of instruction and to exercise instructional leadership. Pellocier (1982, 29) states that, "Many principals, if queried, will frankly admit that preservice programs did little to prepare them for the instructional leadership responsibilities of the principalship."

Other formal principal development opportunities have been mandated in some states. Florida, for instance, enacted numerous statutes related to educational reform. Key among those statutes was Florida Statute 231.087--The Management Training Act of 1981 (Mosrie 1990). Major aspects of this law were designed to encourage appropriate career development, inservice training for practicing principals, and skill enhancement of present and potential educational managers. The law requires that each school district develop a management training program to train school-based managers and potential school principals. The Texas legislature enacted Section 13.353, a statute which mandated that local school districts offer inservice training in management skills (Texas Education Code 1992). In North Carolina, principals receive sophisticated management training from business and industry, which readily applies to the field of education (Strother 1983). Another example is Maryland's Assessment Center Program which was developed by the State Department of Education as well as a Commission on School-Based Administration (Shilling 1986). Central to the themes of these principal centers is the idea

that the training be realistic to the day-to-day life of schools. The concern is that staff development programs have consisted almost entirely of information-giving, often to the exclusion of skill development (Pellocier 1982).

Some school districts have implemented extensive training programs for principals. An example is a program in Englewood, Colorado. The outline for the training includes the following components:

> Integrating the district philosophy in all aspects of training.
> Building a knowledge base on current research about educational effectiveness, human development, learning, and effective staff development practices.
> Providing a repertoire of supervision approaches from which principals can choose appropriate alternatives.
> Providing guided practice for principals to refine their supervision skills.
> Continually analyzing the program and procedures for possible expansion, revision, and adjustment (Roberts 1988, 73).

Unfortunately, there is a misconception that principals are required to attend programs so that they can be retooled or repaired according to Hallinger and Wimpelberg (1991). Hallinger and Wimpleberg further believe that administrators are viewed as passive recipients of training, that their training needs, goals, and content are defined by others. Professional development has typically meant in-service. The equation of professional development with the narrow concept of training was influenced by the old public view of educators as less-than-professional functionaries who need to be given new skills, have deficits in their current skills, or fix problems with their current skills.

Informal Training

Informal training and development opportunities have been in place for many years. Professional associations such as the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, and the National Association of School Administrators hold annual conventions, workshops, and conferences to update members with recent information and discuss issues of common interest. In addition, these and other professional associations provide members with monthly or annual publications in which authors, both in the universities and in the field, provide information, studies, and opinions on current topics. It is, however, incumbent upon the membership to read, discuss, and implement suggestions on skills and behavior.

Reflection is another informal technique for skill improvement. According to Olson (1991), quiet review of one's great personal successes and tremendous personal failures can be a great source of skill development. Scheinker and Nelson (1990) discuss reflective writing as another avenue for professional growth. They found that school administrators who used reflective narratives were in general agreement that writing about them was a valuable professional development experience in its own right. Although these techniques may be effective skill development exercises, it is again incumbent upon administrators to personally invest in the process. On-the-job training is also considered an

informal skill improvement method. On-site-coaching and peer-coaching are mentioned by Hallinger and Wimpelberg (1991).

Self-Awareness Development Opportunities

Introduction

The need for additional training and development for school principals in management and leadership skills has been firmly established by pointing out the current expectations for that role. Also, the opportunities for training and development, both formal and informal have been reviewed. One opportunity for training which has been neglected to this point is the focus of this section and this study: the semi-formal process of skill development gained through self-awareness. Although principals may recognize the need for growth and development, an assessment of their personal strengths and weakness is necessary to provide them with the purpose and direction for the improvement of their management and leadership skills.

Self-Awareness Construct

"Know Thyself" was inscribed on the temple at Delphi, according to Plato (1956), as one of the world's fundamental pieces of wisdom. The construct of self-awareness is firmly rooted in psychology and is a central thrust in human relations training. The origins of human relations training, and of the human relations movement in general, are found in the research conducted at

the Hawthorne Works in Chicago, a manufacturing facility of the Western

Electric Company, by Mayo (1960). The Hawthorne studies clearly indicate

the critical impact of informal groups, employee expectation and satisfaction,

group decision making, and leadership style on work productivity. Human

relations training may focus on (1) self-awareness, especially awareness of the

impact of the self upon others in the group; and (2) group dynamics. When the

focus is on the individual, the training is known as management development;

when on the group, it is called organization development (Goodstein 1984).

The self-awareness construct has been defined by several authors. For

instance, Wohlers and London (1989) define self-awareness as the degree to

which individuals understand their own strengths and weaknesses. It is operati-

onalized as the degree to which individuals see themselves as others see them.

Self-awareness is defined by Webster (1987) as an awareness of one's own

personality or individuality. Levasseur (1991) operationalizes the construct as

knowing how one's values, beliefs, assumptions, attitudes, and preferences

affect one's behavior.

Luft (1969) researched the self-awareness construct and developed a

model to describe interactive and intractive communication called the Johari

Window for Joe Luft and Harry Ingham. The Johari Window is divided into

four quadrants. Quadrant 1, the open or public quadrant, represents the

behaviors known to the self and others. Quadrant 2, the blind quadrant,

represents behaviors known to others but not the self, and Quadrant 3, the

hidden area, refers to behaviors known to the self but not to others. The

unknown quadrant, Quadrant 4, represents behaviors known by neither self nor

others. The concept is to expand, through feedback and exercises, Quadrant 1,

thereby increasing effectiveness in communication and understanding. Good-

stein (1984) points out that Luft's exercises show significant improvement in

effective behavior of participants in training groups; however, there is little

evidence to show that the improvements in behavior transfer to the workplace.

Luft defends his model by commenting that,

> It is no wonder then that we feel justified in resisting being told about
> our own behavior since the Other is ignorant of so much we do know
> about ourselves, represented by the size of our third quadrant, the hidden
> area. Man may be provoked, delighted, bruised, nurtured, and sustained
> by others, but he grows from within (Luft 1969, 21).

Several assumptions identified by Luft (1969) as bases for his model are

germane to this discussion of self-awareness. First, Luft believes that subjec-

tive factors such as attitudes and values reveal how persons see themselves and

others and how they order their world. A second assumption is that human

behavior is best understood in terms of large units of behavior. Third, an

individual has limited awareness of the effects of his or her behavior on others.

Although the assumptions in Luft's work help frame this study, the weakness

pointed out lead to further examination of research at the workplace on self-

awareness and feedback as a means of skill improvement.

Hallinger and Wimpelberg (1991) developed a model that helps explain

the juxtaposition of feedback and self-awareness in relation to the educational

administrator development continuum. The model is displayed below as Figure

4.

Theory- Based Instruction	Research- Based Effectiveness Correlates	Management and School- Oriented Skill Training	Problem-Based Craft Knowledge Insight	Individualized Reflective Feedback
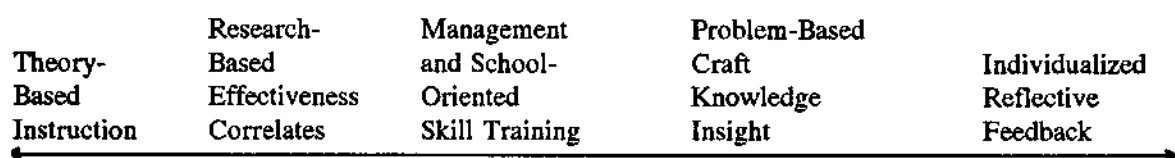
Fig. 4. Hallinger and Wimpelberg Developmental Model (Hallinger and
Wimpleberg 1991, 16)

The continuum begins with management and leadership theory on the far

left and extends to individualized practice and application on the far right. All

the management and leadership development opportunities discussed here can

be plotted along the continuum. The model is particularly important to the

discussion because job-related self-awareness may be the most pragmatic and

effective approach to professional development. According to the Texas

Association of School Administrators' Professional Development Guide, "the

plan for strengthening management and leadership performance includes the

assessment of on-the-job performance, which is the ultimate test of the adequa-

cy of training and development" (Miller 1988, 11).

Self-awareness on job-specific performance can be derived in at least

three ways: annual appraisal, appraisal conference, and a formal leadership and

management assessment. The first two are established by tradition as an acceptable way to approach the development of the employee and are established by law. As an example, regulations regarding the Texas Teacher Appraisal System require formative observations and encourage or require a follow-up conference. A summative evaluation conference is also required. Self-assessment of work skills is encouraged, but not required. (Texas Teacher Appraisal System: Appraiser/Teacher Manual, 1992). Another example of feedback in the form of annual appraisal and summative conferences is for Texas school administrators, including the superintendent. An assessment instrument is agreed upon by the administrator and supervisor based on the description and expectations for the position. The assessment is formative and eventually summative. The purpose according to Section 149.46 of the Texas Administrative Code, is to strengthen, develop, and expand the leadership practices of Texas school administrators (Texas Administrative Code 1992). A major weakness of these assessments is the preparation, observational skill, objectivity, and subjectivity of the appraiser/evaluator. Texas Teacher Appraisal System training and certification for principals to appraise teachers has been mandated and recertification occurs roughly every three years. There is no certification training for the assessment of administrators in Texas.

The third way of deriving self-awareness information on job specific management and leadership skills includes self-assessed

psychological/personality profiles, principal assessment centers, and skill profiles based on self and subordinate assessment. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Kroeger 1987) is an example of the psychological/personality profiles applicable to any management setting. Results of this profile are along four dimensions: (1) extroversion/introversion (E/I), (2) sensing/intuition (S/N), (3) thinking/feeling (T/F), and (4) judging/perceiving (J/P) as measured by the answers to an inventory of questions. Individual results are a combination of either of the two opposites in each of the four dimensions. For example, the archetypical scientist is INTJ (Levasseur 1991). "The strength and significance of the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator lies in its positive, affirming approach to differences among people. The more one becomes aware of differences, the more one can constructively use them" (Kroeger 1987, 177).

Principal centers provide another type of structured assessment. Unikel and Bailey (1986) studied 34 principal centers throughout the United States. Of the 34 centers, 12 were affiliated with universities, 13 with state departments of education, nine with school districts, and seven with principals' associations. Unikel and Bailey found that principal centers are being organized to facilitate activities growing out of the concerns, needs, and aspirations of principals themselves. Shore, Shore, and Thornton (1992) point out that assessment center summary scores are typically based on many types of evidence, such as

written test scores, group exercises, in-basket exercises, interviews, and peer
and self-assessments.

Standardized tools are readily available to assess leadership potential and
skill, managerial knowledge and skills, interpersonal skills, and almost every
area of general management. For example, The Profiler is an instrument used
to develop a business management skill profile generated through self-assess-
ment responses, responses from superiors, and peer responses to job related
behaviors (Personnel Decisions 1991). The first section prompts forty manager
behavior characteristics and allows for an individual response on a numerical
scale ranging from 5--to a great extent, to 1--not at all, with an option to mark
does not apply. The last section is on management skill development; however,
responses are forced choice with a maximum of seven of the twenty constructs
labelled by the respondent numerically as 7 or 6--critically important, a maxi-
mum of seven other responses labelled by the respondent numerically as 5, 4,
or 3--very important, and the balance labelled by the respondent numerically as
2 or 1--important. The results are separated by relationship to the manager and
compared to the self-assessment. Analysis and self-development information is
provided for the manager on all aspects surveyed on the instrument.

"Skill profiles currently available from the practices of other professions,
business, and industry have been recently adapted for and normed on public
school administrators" (Miller 1988, 12). One such tool is the Educational

Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP), which was developed by Human

Synergistics, under a grant from the Danforth Foundation of St. Louis, Missou-

ri, in 1984. The EAEP (Miller 1988) was designed as a diagnostic and pre-

scriptive tool for professional self-improvement by a team of seven researchers

along with an advisory committee. The procedure calls for a self-assessment

on 120 items along eleven management and leadership skill and behavior areas.

The same instrument is also used by three to five teachers to describe the

targeted administrator. The answer sheets are scored and a side-by-side

comparison is then generated along each of the eleven skill and behavior areas.

The first analysis is an examination of the relative strengths and weaknesses

based upon the targeted administrator's own answers. The next analysis of the

administrator's relative strengths and weaknesses is based upon the average

response of the teachers. A significant discrepancy between the teachers' and

the administrator's responses indicates that the administrator evaluated areas

either higher or lower than did the teachers. Areas where values are close

indicate that the administrator and teachers agreed on the skill or behavior

measurement.

Although the EAEP provides the information, it is up to the administra-

tor to act on that information. Interpretation information is provided in a

prescriptive mode to address each of the eleven job related skills and behaviors.

To assist the administrator, a brief discussion of the skill or behavior is

available with the assessment along with a list of suggested readings. The entire set of activities culminates into an action plan specific to the individual, an action plan contract, and a brief discussion of support systems.

The assumption underlying self-awareness is that individuals comprehend their own strengths and weaknesses and are willing to disclose this information. Thornton and Byham (1982) contend that being aware of one's own strengths and weaknesses is itself a managerial ability. Laverty (1987) points out that growth occurs 90 percent of the time when a need is identified by the individual and only 50 percent of the time when a need is identified by someone else. Self-assessment alone may not be enough to understand what is needed to accomplish change, however. "A formal assessment, including input from others, may be necessary to provide another perspective and additional insight in the development of a written plan" (Miller 1988, 16). Mabe and West's (1982) review of self-reported abilities reveal correlations with a wide variety of criteria, such as supervisor ratings, peer ratings, and predictions on objective measures of success.

Several researchers have examined issues that reflect not only on this study, but on all research using self-assessment and self-report as foundations for information gathering. Shore, Shore, and Thornton (1992) claim the reluctance to use self-assessments is largely due to concerns that individuals tend to present themselves in self-enhancing and socially desirable ways and,

thus people are not capable of making accurate self-assessments. Fisher's (1989) review of self-evaluation literature suggests that individuals make use of their internal thoughts and feelings when making self-evaluations and consider these internal cognitions to be an important information source. Also, some managerial characteristics may be difficult to evaluate on the job because they are not observed frequently or because they cannot easily be linked to concrete behaviors (Wohlers and London 1989). Self-awareness, according to Maddi (1980), is the basis for defining oneself and, in turn, is closely linked to the feeling of self-worth. Therefore, persons who use self-protection mechanisms such as denial or self-promotion may have less accurate perceptions of their managerial characteristics. The frame of reference, personal feelings, understandability of questions, and ability of the individual to adequately assess the issue in each question have an impact on the results.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTION AND

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Methodology

A longitudinal research design was used in this study. The Educational

Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) served as the assessment instru-

ment. A moderating variable was the effect of self-awareness of weaknesses

pointed up by the EAEP scoring results. If the results of the EAEP were the

only moderating variable, the effect of the EAEP would be relatively easy to

isolate and measure. However, to accomplish the isolation, the time span

between initial and post measurements must not allow the contamination of

other variables. Interest in a workshop, staff-development session, or other

skill improvement activity might be motivated by the information gleaned from

the EAEP results; consequently, other intervening variables would then be

introduced into the effect. However, a short time span between initial and

subsequent assessment, might yield results that are superficial.

The research design of test and immediate retest was not available. The

original administrations of the EAEP began five years ago. The comparison of

results with this long a time span means the effect of the EAEP should be

considered one of a blend of variables including the emphasis of superiors in subordinate skill improvement, the availability of opportunities to attend workshops that fit the weaknesses pointed up in the EAEP results, and either outside or self-imposed role pressure on the administrator to improve skills. The consequence of the present design considering the time between assessments was that the moderating variable effects of the EAEP on skill development had to be measured by the opinion of each principal on the efficacy of the instrument to accomplish its goals.

Population

The population for this study was the set of school districts in Tarrant County, Texas, who contracted with the Texas Association of School Administrators (TASA) to administer the EAEP as a program to improve the management and leadership skills of school administrators. The list of districts was obtained from TASA. The marketing and administration of the EAEP began in 1988.

Selection of Sample

The sample population was a convenience sample of forty campus principals in Tarrant County, Texas, who participated in an assessment using the EAEP. Because one aspect of this study was to compare the results of the

EAEP with campus effectiveness results contained in the <u>Campus Reports</u> of the

Texas Academic Excellence Indicator System (1993), campus principals were

selected. Only principals who remained in the role they held during the

original administration were selected. The sample size was limited due to the

availability and cost of EAEP kits from TASA. The sample was 11 principals

of schools with less than 500 students, and 29 principals of schools with more

than 500 students. The mix of male and female principals was also important.

The sample was 25 male principals and 15 female principals.

Instrumentation

The EAEP

The EAEP was developed by William C. Miller (1988) in 1984 and

revised in 1988 for Human Synergistics as an inventory intended to help

educational administrators diagnose their administrative behavior and to aid

their self-improvement (Arter 1990). The instrument measures eleven areas of

management and leadership skills including:

Setting goals and objectives	Planning
Making decisions and problem solving	Assessing progress
Managing business and fiscal affairs	Communicating
Delegating responsibilities	Improving instruction

Building and maintaining relationships   Developing staff

Demonstrating professional commitment

The instrument consists of 120 individual items. Ten items were constructed by the authors for each management or leadership skill subtest plus an additional ten items which measure general aspects of personal or professional effectiveness. The ten additional items are not combined into a scale for feedback purposes and thus are excluded from analysis. Each item is scored by the individual by marking a Likert-type scale from one to seven signifying "almost never" and "always" respectively.

Instruments are distributed to the principal and three-to-five teachers who report to the targeted principal. After each item is rated on the seven-point scale, each instrument is scored and grouped with the targeted principal's instrument. The reported results include not only an item-by-item feedback, but also a mean score calculated for each of the 11 subtests based on self ratings and others' ratings. Although no time estimates are provided in the test materials, it takes approximately 30 minutes to complete the inventory. An answer sheet is provided under the flap at the back of the inventory for recording responses.

A visual comparison profile contains a grid reflecting relative strengths and weaknesses. Particular attention is paid to large discrepancies between the self and others scores because these differences can create problems at work.

The Self Development Guide included in the kit provides suggestions for initiating self-improvement activities.

Cooke (1987) statistically analyzed the instrument using a sample of 195 administrators and a total of 462 others for a total of 657 individuals. Ninety-seven percent of the sample worked in public schools. In his study, about 25 percent of the school districts were urban, 50 percent suburban and 29 percent were rural. Twenty-seven percent of the sample were female and 73 percent were male. The sample was 89 percent white, 8 percent black and 3 percent other.

In his statistical study, Cooke (1987) found moderately high internal consistency reliabilities, ranging from .71 to .86, for the eleven subtests. The mean reliability estimate for the 11 subtests was .809. Although the authors of the EAEP reviewed extensive research literature on effective schools and school improvement in developing the inventory items, no empirical studies are reported to support the construct, predictive or concurrent validity of the inventory (Cooke 1987). The convergent validity of the instrument in terms of the agreement between self reports and reports by others was also investigated. According to Cooke, the validity coefficients were low to moderately low, ranging from .14 to .30.

The EAEP Opinion Survey

The EAEP Opinion Survey (Appendix A), developed for use in this study to collect information relative to the two research questions, was used to solicit information from participants about the EAEP, limited demographic information, and information on other skill development activities in which the respondents had participated during the last five years. The survey contains ten statements with answers recorded on a Likert-type scale from one to five, signifying agreement to disagreement, respectively. The final section is designed to collect information on management and leadership skill development activities. Several typical responses are listed; in addition, an opportunity is provided to add other activities to the list.

Collection of Data

Hypotheses

The instrument used in this study, the EAEP (Miller 1988), was delivered to the sample principals along with an appropriate cover letter (Appendix B) and a self-addressed envelope for return. Because of the expense involved in providing the kits, a reminder letter was sent to nonrespondents. Further, a personal telephone call was used to encourage the remaining nonrespondents.

From the database and support of the Texas Association of School Administrators, the original responses of principals and the mean responses of

subordinates who originally rated the principals were matched to the data of the

responders in this study. The subordinate raters did not match the original

subordinate raters unless the principal happened to choose exactly the same set

of three to five teachers. Campus effectiveness data for each respondent

principal was gained through a public information request of the Texas Educa-

tion Agency contained in the Academic Excellence Indicator System Campus

Report for each campus.

Research Questions

All respondents received the results of their assessment in the same

format as the first administration of the EAEP. An additional opinion survey

accompanied the results (Appendix A). The survey requested respondents'

opinions on the research questions. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was

attached to the survey. Follow-up for administrators who did not respond was

by telephone interview and asked exactly the same questions included on the

survey. Follow-up responses were tallied with the return mailed surveys.

Analysis of Data

Hypotheses

For the purposes of this study, it was assumed that the sample population

was normal and that variances were not heterogeneous. Therefore, parametric

statistics were used to analyze and test the data. The Statistical Package for the

Social Sciences (SPSS + 3) at the University of North Texas was utilized for data analysis.

Hypothesis 1 concerned the measures on the first administration of the EAEP. The relationships between the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' mean ratings were examined. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A t-test was also used to test the significance of the difference between the means of the two groups.

Hypothesis 2 concerned the measures on the second administration of the EAEP. The relationships between the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' mean ratings were examined. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A t-test was also used to test the significance of the difference between the means of the two groups.

Hypothesis 3 concerned principals' self-ratings. The relationships between the principals' ratings on the first administration and the second administration were examined. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A t-test was also used to test the significance of the difference between the means of the two groups.

Hypothesis 4 concerned teachers' mean ratings. The relationships between the teachers' mean ratings on the first administration and the second administration were examined. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A t-test was also used to test the significance of the difference between the two groups.

Hypothesis 5 concerned the difference score which is the self-rating subtracted from the teachers' mean rating. The relationships between the difference score from the first administration and second administration were examined. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. A t-test was also used to test the significance of the difference between the means of the two groups.

Hypothesis 6 concerned the relationships between the subjective results of the EAEP and objective measures of student achievement on the campus of the targeted principal. The relationship of either the mean self-assessment or mean assessment by teachers and the particular objective measure appropriate to the grade level of students on that campus was examined. Stepwise multiple regression was used to test the relationship of each EAEP subtest or group of subtests to the objective measure.

Research Questions

An Opinion Survey was designed to solicit an opinion about the EAEP from the users. The results of the survey are reported as summary statistics in response to the research questions. Groups of related questions are reported by general topic. Comparisons are available between male and female responses as well as large school and small school responses to the questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Forty selected principals in Tarrant County were given a second assess-
ment of the Educational Administration Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) provided
by the Texas Association of School Administrators (TASA). The sample was
taken from principals who were involved in the first assessment in 1989
administered by Edward Manigold of TASA. The second condition for inclu-
sion in the sample was that the administrator must have continued in the role of
building principal.

In the fall 1993, superintendents in eleven school districts were contacted
by mail requesting permission to contact principals in the district. All agreed to
participate. The names of principals who participated in the first assessment
were checked for current role description in the 1993-94 Texas School Directo-
ry (1993) published by the Texas Education Agency. The sixty-six individuals
who were continuing in the role of building principal from the original survey
list were invited by mail to participate in this study. Twenty-eight agreed to
complete the EAEP and follow up with a short opinion survey. EAEP packets
were sent immediately from TASA to these individuals. After three weeks, a
second written invitation was sent to those who did not respond. Five

responded to the second invitation, and assessment instruments were mailed to them. Following another three-week period, telephone invitations were made to the remaining group. Seven more accepted the invitation and assessment instruments were mailed to them.

All scoring of the instrument was done using a computer scoring program and instructions provided for that purpose by the TASA. Respondents mailed completed assessments via TASA to the EAEP Scoring Center. The packets were forwarded by TASA and were then checked for completeness and scoring. Many letters and telephone contacts were necessary to receive the completed assessments. The self-assessment by the principal and a minimum of three or maximum of five assessments by teachers were required for each campus. In many cases, a representative was sent to a campus to pick up a sealed envelope of collected assessments.

The instruments were scored using the EAEP Scoring Program. Assessment data were entered and reports were generated using the program. A chart was also designed in a graphics program to render a bar graph for each subtest of the assessment comparing the self-assessment and the others' average assessment in that subtest. The completed report and chart were mailed directly to the respondents in an envelope marked Confidential. Also enclosed in the mailing were the opinion survey and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. Initially, twenty-seven opinion surveys were returned. Telephone contacts and

additional mailings were required to obtain the remaining thirteen surveys.

When all forty surveys were received, the collection of data was terminated.

All responses were completed accurately; therefore, all data were included in

this study.

Data from the original assessment of these individuals were provided by

Manigold, Associate Executive Director for Programs and Professional Devel-

opment for TASA. Together with the second assessment information, the data

sets were identified by respondent codes and prepared for processing and

analysis. The data were then tabulated and analyzed by computer. Computer-

generated charts and tables reported in this study were constructed from the

statistical information. Following is a presentation of the data.

Hypotheses Investigation

The following six hypotheses provided direction for conducting this

study.

1. There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean

responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on

the first administration of the EAEP.

2. There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean

responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on

the second administration of the EAEP.

Hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 compared a measure of principals' self-awareness of their management and leadership skills with teachers' assessments of the principals' skills along the same eleven subtests for each administration of the EAEP. This is the within-subtest relationship between self-ratings and the mean of subordinate ratings across managerial and leadership skills.

3. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate mean of the principals' self-assessment on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

4. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate means of the subordinates' assessment of their principals on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

Hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4 compare the EAEP results of the first administration with the results of the second. This is the between-subtest relationship between the aggregate principals' self-rating on the first with the self-rating on the second administration. The aggregate subordinate rating of their principals on the first administration was compared to the aggregate subordinate ratings on the second administration.

5. There will be no significant difference between the aggregate difference scores on the first EAEP administration and that of the second administration.

The difference score is the self-rating score for each subtest subtracted from the mean of the subordinate score for each skill subtest. The difference scores were averaged across each subtest to obtain a single difference score for each principal rated. The difference score is an indication of whether the managers view themselves at the same level as do their subordinates.

6. For the principals, there will be no significant relationship between any or a group of the eleven subtest means of the principal self-assessment scores and of the teachers' assessment scores on the second administration of the EAEP and the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills grade three, seven, or eleven mean scores on all tests.

Reporting of Data

The following narrative provides a discussion or the six hypotheses with regard to the first and second assessments of the EAEP and the demographic section included in the assessments.

In demographic section of the EAEP, information was requested regarding each of the respondents' role description, school enrollment, district enrollment, community type, age, ethnic background, gender, level of education, total years in education, and years of experience in administration.

In the first item, respondents were requested to indicate their role description. As shown in Table 1, 26 respondents were principals of

elementary schools, 10 were principals of middle schools or junior high

schools, and 4 were principals of high schools.

Table 1.--Composition of Assessment Participants by Role Description

Indicator	Total	Percent
Elementary school	26	65.00
Middle/junior high school	10	25.00
High school	4	10.00

In the second item on the assessment instrument, the respondents were

requested to indicate the number of students in membership on their campus.

As shown in Table 2, none of the principals' campuses had less than 100

students, 11 had between 100 and 499 students, 23 had between 500 and 1,000

students, and 6 had more than 1,000 students.

In the third item, participants were asked to indicate the size of their

school districts. As shown in Table 3, none of the districts had less than 1,000

students, 3 had between 1,000 and 4,999 students, 13 had between 5,000 and

Table 2.--Composition of Assessment Participants by the Number of Students in Membership on Campus

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than 100	0	0.00
100 to 499	11	27.50
500 to 1,000	23	57.50
More than 1,000	6	15.00

Table 3.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by District Enrollment

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than 1,000	0	0.00
1,000 to 4,999	3	7.50
5,000 to 9,999	13	32.50
10,000 to 50,000	24	60.00
More than 50,000	0	0.00

9,999 students, 24 had between 10,000 and 50,000 students, and none of the districts had more than 50,000 students.

In the fourth item, participants were asked to indicate the type of community they serve. As shown in Table 4, 33 indicated their community was urban, 5 indicated their community was suburban, and 2 indicated their community was rural.

Table 4.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Community Type

Indicator	Total	Percent
Urban	33	82.50
Suburban	5	12.50
Rural	2	5.00

In the fifth item, participants were asked to indicate their age. As shown in Table 5, none of the participants were less than 20 years of age, none were between 20 and 29 years of age, 8 were between 30 and 39 years of age, 20 were between 40 and 49 years of age, 12 were between 50 and 59 years of age, and none were older than 60 years of age.

In the sixth item, participants were asked to indicate their ethnic background. As shown in Table 6, none of the participants were American Indian, black, Oriental, or other, 2 were Hispanic, and 38 were white.

Table 5.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Age

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than 20 years of age	0	0.00
20 to 29 years of age	0	0.00
30 to 39 years of age	8	20.00
40 to 49 years of age	20	50.00
50 to 59 years of age	12	30.00
60 years of age or older	0	0.00

Table 6.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Ethnic Background

Indicator	Total	Percent
American Indian	0	0.00
Black	0	0.00
Hispanic	2	5.00
Oriental	0	0.00
White	38	95.00
Other	0	0.00

In the seventh item, participants were asked to indicate their gender. As shown in Table 7, 15, or 37.5 percent, of the principals were female, and 25, or 62.5 percent, were male.

Table 7.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Gender

Indicator	Total	Percent
Female	15	37.50
Male	25	62.50

In the eighth item, participants were asked to indicate their highest level of educational attainment. As shown in Table 8, none of the participants had less than a bachelor's degree, or just a bachelor's degree as the highest level of educational attainment. Thirty-nine had a master's degree as the highest level of attainment and 1 had a doctorate degree as the highest level of attainment.

In the ninth item, participants were asked to indicate their total years of experience in education. As shown in Table 9, none of the participants had less than 5 years experience in education, 1 had between 6 and 9 years experience, 12 had between 10 and 19 years experience in education, 23 had between 20

Table 8.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Highest Level of Educational Attainment

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than a bachelors degree	0	0.00
Bachelors degree	0	0.00
Masters degree	39	97.50
Doctorate degree	1	2.50

Table 9.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Total Years Experience in Education

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than 2 years	0	0.00
2 to 5 years	0	0.00
6 to 9 years	1	2.50
10 to 19 years	12	30.00
20 to 29 years	23	57.50
More than 29 years	4	10.00

and 29 years experience in education, and 4 had more than 29 years experience in education.

In the final item on the demographic section, participants were asked to indicate their total years of experience in administration. As shown in Table 10, none of the participants had less than 2 years of administrative experience, 1 had between 2 and 5 years of administrative experience, 8 had between 6 and 9 years of administrative experience, 12 had between 10 and 19 years of administrative experience, 19 had between 20 and 29 years of administrative experience, and none had more than 29 years of administrative experience.

On the EAEP, respondents were asked to indicate their opinion about statements by choosing a Likert-type response from a scale of 1 to 7. The responses were labelled 1--almost never, 2--seldom, 3--sometimes, 4--often, 5--very often, 6--almost always, and 7--always. The responses to 120 statements were aggregated and averaged around eleven subtests measured by the instrument. An average of the components of each subtest was derived for each principal and the teachers who rated the instrument about that principal. The subtests include: setting goals and objectives, planning, making decisions and problem solving, managing business and fiscal affairs, assessing progress, delegating responsibility, communicating, building and maintaining relationships, demonstrating professional commitment, improving instruction, and developing staff.

Table 10.--Composition of the Assessment Participants by Total Years Administrative Experience

Indicator	Total	Percent
Less than 2 years	0	0.00
2 to 5 years	1	2.50
6 to 9 years	8	20.00
10 to 19 years	12	30.00
20 to 29 years	19	47.50
More than 29 years	0	0.00

Hypothesis 1 pertained to the relationship between the principals' self-rating and the ratings of teachers about their principal on the first administration of the EAEP. This hypothesis predicted: There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the first administration of the EAEP. The ratings were analyzed using the computer package and a Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated. As shown in Table 11, no significant correlations were found between the principals' self-rating and the teachers' rating of their principal.

A t-test was also used to determine the difference in the means of each group along each subtest variable. As shown in Table 12, three of the eleven subtests had significantly different means at the p < .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for these three subtests.

The first subtest, setting goals and objectives, had a t-test value of -2.37 with 78 degrees of freedom. The probability value of .020 indicates significance at the p < .05 level. Therefore, the principals' mean self-rating and the teachers' mean rating of the principals were significantly different for setting goals and objectives. Also, the subtest, improving instruction, had a t-value of -2.01 with 78 degrees of freedom, and a probability value of .048, which indicates significance at the p < .05 level. Therefore, the principals' mean self-rating and the teachers' mean rating of their principals were significantly different for improving instruction. Finally, the subtest, developing staff, had a t-value of -2.15 with 78 degrees of freedom, and a probability value .035, which indicates a significance at the p < .05 level. Therefore, the principals' mean self-rating and the teachers' mean rating of the principal were significantly different for developing staff.

The remaining eight subtests indicated probability values in excess of the p < .05 level for difference between the group means; however, for the purposes of this study, the t value was considered significant at the .05 level. Consequently, the null hypothesis was accepted for these subtests.

Table 11.--Mean and Standard Deviation for the Principal and Teachers, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient by Subtest on the First Assessment of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 1 Self-Rating		Assessment 1 Teacher Rating		Correlation Coefficient
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Setting goals and objectives	5.635	0.806	6.035	0.517	-.0773
Planning	5.627	0.650	5.972	0.477	.0671
Making decisions and problem solving	5.595	0.737	5.835	0.595	-.1551
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.575	0.829	5.985	0.502	-.1501
Assessing progress	5.595	0.791	5.955	0.551	-.0559
Delegating responsibility	5.730	0.717	5.902	0.574	.0118
Communicating	5.672	0.702	5.962	0.612	.0907
Building and maintaining relationships	6.002	0.594	6.167	0.560	.1391
Demonstrating professional commitment	5.910	0.654	6.272	0.549	.1490
Improving instruction	5.875	0.654	6.170	0.492	.1221
Developing staff	5.782	0.757	5.980	0.532	.0173

Note: * Significant at the $p < .05$ level, **Significant at the $p < .01$ level

Table 12.--Mean and Standard Deviation for the Principals and Teachers, t-Value, Degrees of Freedom, and 2-Tail Probability on the First Assessment of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 1 Self-Rating		Assessment 1 Teacher Rating		t-Value	DF	2-Tail Probability
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Setting goals and objectives	5.635	0.806	6.035	0.517	-2.37	78	0.020
Planning	5.627	0.650	5.972	0.477	-1.47	78	0.146
Making decisions and problem solving	5.595	0.737	5.835	0.595	-1.25	78	0.216
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.575	0.829	5.985	0.502	-1.31	78	0.164
Assessing progress	5.595	0.791	5.955	0.551	-0.41	78	0.684
Delegating responsibility	5.730	0.717	5.902	0.574	-1.33	78	0.188
Communicating	5.672	0.702	5.962	0.612	-0.47	78	0.639
Building and maintaining relationships	6.002	0.594	6.167	0.560	1.07	78	0.288
Demonstrating professional commitment	5.910	0.654	6.272	0.549	-0.63	78	0.532
Improving instruction	5.875	0.654	6.170	0.492	-2.01	78	0.048
Developing staff	5.782	0.757	5.980	0.532	-2.15	78	0.035

Hypothesis 2 predicted: There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the second administration of the EAEP. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each subtest. In addition, a t-test was used to determine the difference between the means of the two groups.

A review of the relationship between the two responses along each subtest, shown in Table 13, indicates there was a significant positive correlation between the groups for each of the subtests. Each of the subtest comparisons are discussed.

The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test for the relationship between the principals' and the teachers' ratings of the principals on setting goals and objectives yielded a principals' mean score of 5.755 and a standard deviation, represented by s, of .705. The teachers' mean score was 6.095 and s was .569. The correlation coefficient, represented by r, for these two groups was .6138, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

The results of the test for the relationship between the principals' self-rating and the teachers' ratings of the principals on planning yielded a principals' mean score of 5.845 and an s of .360. The teacher's mean score was

Table 13.--Mean and Standard Deviation for the Principal and Teachers, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient by Subtest on the Second Assessment of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 2 Self-Rating		Assessment 2 Teacher Rating		Correlation Coefficient
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Setting goals and objectives	5.755	0.705	6.095	0.569	.6138 **
Planning	5.845	0.360	6.030	0.589	.5982 **
Making decisions and problem solving	5.825	0.627	5.992	0.571	.5677 **
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.890	0.727	6.087	0.511	.3834 *
Assessing progress	5.942	0.622	5.995	0.525	.5317 **
Delegating responsibility	5.872	0.559	6.047	0.483	.5370 **
Communicating	6.050	0.599	6.110	0.538	.5119 **
Building and maintaining relationships	6.282	0.581	6.157	0.533	.5259 **
Demonstrating professional commitment	6.097	0.676	6.182	0.527	.4020 *
Improving instruction	5.945	0.649	6.222	0.583	.4132 **
Developing staff	5.832	0.756	6.167	0.632	.3517 *

Note: * Significant at the $p < .05$ level, **Significant at the $p < .01$ level

6.030 and s was .589. The r value for these two groups was .5982, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

A review of the relationship between the principals' ratings and teachers' ratings of the principals on making decisions and problem solving shows a principal's mean score of 5.825 and an s of .627. The teacher's mean score was 5.992 and s was .571. The r value for these two groups was .5677, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

As shown in Table 13, the relationship between the principals' ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principal on managing business and fiscal affairs yielded a principals' mean score of 5.890 and an s of .727 and a teachers' mean rating of their principal score of 6.087 and an s of .511. The r value for these two groups was .3834, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .05 level.

The relationship between the two groups for the subtest assessing progress is also shown in Table 13. The principals' ratings group yielded a mean score of 5.942 and an s of .622, while the teachers' ratings group yielded a mean score of 5.995 and an s of .525. The r value for the two groups was .5317, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest delegating responsibility, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 5.872 and an s of .559. The

teachers' ratings of their principals yielded a mean score of 6.047 with an s of .483. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .5370, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest communicating, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 6.050 and an s of .599. The teachers' ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.110 with an s of .538. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .5119, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest building and maintaining relationships, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 6.082 and an s of .581. The teachers' ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.157 with an s of .533. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .5259, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest demonstrating professional commitment, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 6.097 and an s of .676. The teachers' ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.182 and an s of .527. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .4020, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .05 level.

For the subtest improving instruction, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 5.945 and an s of .649. The teachers' ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.222 and an s

of .583. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was to .4132, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest developing staff, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the principals' ratings of 5.832 and an s of .756. The teachers' ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.167 and an s of .632. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .3517, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .05 level.

For Hypothesis 2, a t-test was also computed to discover the relationship between the means of the principals' ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals. As shown in Table 14, six subtests yielded probability values at the $p < .05$ level. Those subtests are setting goals and objectives, planning, managing business and fiscal affairs, demonstrating professional commitment and improving instruction. The null hypothesis was rejected for these subtests. Each of the subtest values are discussed.

A review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals for the subtest setting goals and objectives indicates a mean value for the principals' ratings of 5.755 with an s of .705 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 6.095 with an s of .569. The t value was -2.64, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .01. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level.

Table 14.--Mean and Standard Deviation for the Principals and Teachers, t-Value, Degrees of Freedom, and 2-Tail Probability on the Second Assessment of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 2 Self-Rating		Assessment 2 Teacher Rating		t-Value	DF	2-Tail Probability
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Setting goals and objectives	5.755	0.705	6.095	0.569	-2.64	78	0.010
Planning	5.845	0.360	6.030	0.589	-2.70	78	0.009
Making decisions and problem solving	5.825	0.627	5.992	0.571	-1.60	78	0.113
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.890	0.727	6.087	0.511	-2.68	78	0.009
Assessing progress	5.942	0.622	5.995	0.525	-2.36	78	0.021
Delegating responsibility	5.872	0.559	6.047	0.483	-1.19	78	0.238
Communicating	6.050	0.599	6.110	0.538	-1.97	78	0.052
Building and maintaining relationships	6.282	0.581	6.157	0.533	-1.12	78	0.265
Demonstrating professional commitment	6.097	0.676	6.182	0.527	-2.69	78	0.009
Improving instruction	5.945	0.649	6.222	0.583	-2.28	78	0.026
Developing staff	5.832	0.756	6.167	0.632	-1.35	78	0.181

For the subtest planning, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the principals' ratings of 5.845 with s of .36 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 6.030 with s of .589. The t value was -2.7, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .009. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level.

For the subtest managing business and fiscal affairs, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the principals' ratings of 5.890 with an s of .727 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 6.087 with an s of .511. The t value was -2.68, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .009. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level.

For the subtest assessing progress, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the principals ratings of 5.942 with an s of .622 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 5.995 and an s of .525. The t value was -2.36, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .021. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level.

For the subtest demonstrating professional commitment, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the principals' ratings of 6.097 with an s of .676 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 6.182 with an s of .527. The t value was -2.69, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .009. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the p < .05 level.

For the subtest improving instruction, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers' ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the principals' ratings of 5.945 with an s of .649 and a mean value for the teachers' ratings of 6.222 with an s of .583. The t value was -2.28, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .026. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the p < .05 level.

All other subtest probability values exceeded the p < .05 level, thus indicating the acceptance of the null hypothesis for these subtests.

Hypothesis 3 predicted: There will be no significant difference between the aggregate mean of the principals' self-assessment on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each subtest. In addition, a t-test was used to determine the

difference between the means of the two groups. As shown in Table 15, no significant correlations were found between the principals' self-rating and the teachers' rating of their principal.

A t-test was also used to determine the difference in the means of each group along each subtest variable. As shown in Table 16, one of the eleven subtests had significantly different means at the $p < .05$ level. For the subtest demonstrating professional commitment, a review of the relationship between the means of the principals' ratings in the first and second self-ratings indicates a mean value for the first principals' ratings of 5.910 with a standard deviation of .654. The mean value for the second principals' ratings was 6.097 with a standard deviation of .676. The t value was -2.18, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .032. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level. For this one subtest, the hypothesis was rejected; for the remainder of the ten subtests, the hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 4 predicted: There will be no significant difference between the aggregate means of the subordinates' assessments of the principals on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each subtest. In addition, a t-test was used to determine the difference between the means of the two groups.

Table 15.--Principal Self-Rating Mean and Standard Deviation for the First Assessment and the Second Assessment, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient by Subtest of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 1 Self-Rating		Assessment 2 Self-Rating		Correlation Coefficient
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Setting goals and objectives	5.635	0.806	5.755	0.705	.3066
Planning	5.627	0.650	5.845	0.360	.0756
Making decisions and problem solving	5.595	0.737	5.825	0.627	.1656
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.575	0.829	5.890	0.727	.0605
Assessing progress	5.595	0.791	5.942	0.622	.1405
Delegating responsibility	5.730	0.717	5.872	0.559	.0265
Communicating	5.672	0.702	6.050	0.599	.0863
Building and maintaining relationships	6.002	0.594	6.282	0.581	.1322
Demonstrating professional commitment	5.910	0.654	6.097	0.676	.2855
Improving instruction	5.875	0.654	5.945	0.649	-.0646
Developing staff	5.782	0.757	5.832	0.756	.2479

Note: * Significant at the $p < .05$ level, **Significant at the $p < .01$ level

Table 16.--Principal Self-Rating Mean and Standard Deviation for the First Assessment and the Second Assessment of the EAEP, t-Value, Degrees of Freedom, and 2-Tail Probability by Subtest

Subtest	Assessment 1 Self-Rating		Assessment 2 Self-Rating		t-Value	DF	2-Tail Probability
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Setting goals and objectives	5.635	0.806	5.755	0.705	-0.71	78	0.481
Planning	5.627	0.650	5.845	0.360	-1.63	78	0.107
Making decisions and problem solving	5.595	0.737	5.825	0.627	-1.50	78	0.137
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.575	0.829	5.890	0.727	-0.48	78	0.633
Assessing progress	5.595	0.791	5.942	0.622	-1.50	78	0.137
Delegating responsibility	5.730	0.717	5.872	0.559	-1.21	78	0.231
Communicating	5.672	0.702	6.050	0.599	-1.81	78	0.075
Building and maintaining relationships	6.002	0.594	6.282	0.581	-0.90	78	0.368
Demonstrating professional commitment	5.910	0.654	6.097	0.676	-2.18	78	0.032
Improving instruction	5.875	0.654	5.945	0.649	-0.33	78	0.741
Developing staff	5.782	0.757	5.832	0.756	-1.13	78	0.262

As shown in Table 17, in three subtests the relationship between the teachers' ratings on the first assessment and the teachers' ratings on the second assessment were significantly related, as indicated by the calculated correlation coefficient. These three subtests include: planning, delegating responsibility, and improving instruction. Each is discussed.

For the subtest planning, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the teachers' first assessment ratings of the principals of 5.972 and an s of .477. The teachers' second assessment ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.030 with an s of .589. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .4315, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest delegating responsibility, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the teachers' first assessment ratings of the principals of 5.902 and an s of .574. The teachers' second assessment ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.047 with an s of .483. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .4512, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

For the subtest improving instruction, the relationship information yielded a mean score for the teachers' first assessment ratings of the principals of 6.170 and an s of .492. The teachers' second assessment ratings of the principals yielded a mean score of 6.222 with an s of .583. The correlation

Table 17.—Teacher Rating Mean and Standard Deviation for the First Assessment and the Second Assessment, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient by Subtest of the EAEP

Subtest	Assessment 1 Teacher Rating		Assessment 2 Teacher Rating		Correlation Coefficient
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Setting goals and objectives	6.035	0.517	6.095	0.569	.1941
Planning	5.972	0.477	6.030	0.589	.4315**
Making decisions and problem solving	5.835	0.595	5.992	0.571	-.0440
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.985	0.502	6.087	0.511	.1237
Assessing progress	5.955	0.551	5.995	0.525	-.0503
Delegating responsibility	5.902	0.574	6.047	0.483	.4512**
Communicating	5.962	0.612	6.110	0.538	.1793
Building and maintaining relationships	6.167	0.560	6.157	0.533	.3025
Demonstrating professional commitment	6.272	0.549	6.182	0.527	.0355
Improving instruction	6.170	0.492	6.222	0.583	.3395*
Developing staff	5.980	0.532	6.167	0.632	.0125

Note: * Significant at the $p < .05$ level, **Significant at the $p < .01$ level

coefficient for these two groups was .3395, which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .05 level. The correlation coefficient computed for the remaining eight subtests revealed no significant correlation between the teachers' first and second ratings of the principals.

A t-test was also used to determine the difference in the means of each group along each subtest variable. As shown in Table 18, two of the eleven subtests had significantly different means at the $p < .05$ level, planning and managing business and fiscal affairs. Each is discussed.

For the subtest planning, a review of the relationship between the means of the teachers' first and second ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the first assessment ratings of 5.972 with a standard deviation of .477. The mean value for the second assessment teachers' ratings was 6.03 with a standard deviation of .589 The t value was -2.59, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .012. The means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p < .05$ level.

For the subtest managing business and fiscal affairs, a review of the relationship between the means of the teachers' first and second ratings of the principals indicates a mean value for the first assessment ratings of 5.985 with a standard deviation of .502. The mean value for the second assessment teachers' ratings was 6.087 with a standard deviation of .511 The t value was -2.10, with 78 degrees of freedom, and the 2-tailed probability was .039. The means

of the two groups were significantly different at the p < .05 level. For these

two subtests, the hypothesis was rejected; for the remainder of the nine sub-

tests, the hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 5 predicted: There will be no significant difference between

the aggregate difference scores on the first EAEP administration with that of

the second administration. This hypothesis was tested by calculating a Pearson

product-moment correlation coefficient for each subtest. In addition, a t-test

was used to determine the difference between the means of the two groups.

As shown in Table 19, in two subtests the relationship between the first

and second assessment difference scores were significantly related as indicated

by the calculated correlation coefficient. The difference score was derived by

subtracting the teachers' ratings of the principals from the principals' self-rating

for each assessment. These two subtests included communicating and demon-

strating professional commitment. Each is discussed.

For the subtest communicating, the relationship information yielded a

mean score for the first assessment difference of .25 and an s of .6721. The

second assessment difference yielded a mean score of .06 with an s of .7679.

The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .3262, which indicates a

positive statistically significant correlation at the .05 level.

For the subtest demonstrating professional commitment, the relationship

information yielded a mean score for the first assessment difference of .37 and

Table 18.--Teacher Rating Mean and Standard Deviation for the First Assessment and the Second Assessment of the EAEP, t-Value, Degrees of Freedom, and 2-Tail Probability by Subtest

Subtest	Assessment 1 Teacher Rating		Assessment 2 Teacher Rating		t-Value	DF	2-Tail Probability
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Setting goals and objectives	6.035	0.517	6.095	0.569	-1.22	78	0.225
Planning	5.972	0.477	6.030	0.589	-2.59	78	0.012
Making decisions and problem solving	5.835	0.595	5.992	0.571	-1.15	78	0.256
Managing business and fiscal affairs	5.985	0.502	6.087	0.511	-2.10	78	0.039
Assessing progress	5.955	0.551	5.995	0.525	0.08	78	0.935
Delegating responsibility	5.902	0.574	6.047	0.483	-1.26	78	0.211
Communicating	5.962	0.612	6.110	0.538	0.75	78	0.456
Building and maintaining relationships	6.167	0.560	6.157	0.533	-0.48	78	0.632
Demonstrating professional commitment	6.272	0.549	6.182	0.527	-0.44	78	0.664
Improving instruction	6.170	0.492	6.222	0.583	-0.30	78	0.768
Developing staff	5.980	0.532	6.167	0.632	-1.44	78	0.155

Table 19.--Difference Score Mean and Standard Deviation, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for the First and Second Assessment and the Second Administrations of the EAEP by Subtest

Subtest	Assessment 1 Difference Score		Assessment 2 Difference Score		Correlation Coefficient
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Setting goals and objectives	0.40	0.6369	0.34	0.9394	.1989
Planning	0.35	0.5386	0.19	0.7691	.1127
Making decisions and problem solving	0.24	0.6320	0.31	1.2951	.0692
Managing business and fiscal affairs	0.41	0.7877	0.21	0.9201	.1921
Assessing progress	0.36	0.6827	0.05	0.8360	.2801
Delegating responsibility	0.17	0.6330	0.15	0.7330	.0022
Communicating	0.25	0.6721	0.06	0.7679	.3262*
Building and maintaining relationships	0.15	0.5549	-0.15	0.7172	.1719
Demonstrating professional commitment	0.37	0.6607	0.06	0.8212	.4775*
Improving instruction	0.31	0.6224	0.25	0.9315	.1862
Developing staff	0.22	0.7533	0.30	1.0066	.1946

Note: * Significant at the $p < .05$ level, **Significant at the $p < .01$ level

an s of .6607. The second assessment difference yielded a mean score of .06

with an s of .8212. The correlation coefficient for these two groups was .4775,

which indicates a positive statistically significant correlation at the .01 level.

As shown in Table 19, the correlation coefficient for the remaining nine

subtests was not significant at the $p < .05$ level between the derived subtracted

scores from the first assessment and the derived subtracted scores from the

second assessment.

A t-test was also used to determine the difference in the means of each

group along each subtest variable. As shown in Table 20, one of the eleven

subtests had a significantly different means at the $p < .05$ level. For the

subtest building and maintaining relationships, a review of the relationship

between the subtracted scores of the principals' self-ratings and the teachers'

ratings of the principals on the first assessment and the subtracted scores on the

second assessments indicates a mean value for the first assessment ratings of

.15 with a standard deviation of .5549. The mean value for the second assess-

ment subtracted scores was -.15 with a standard deviation of .7172 The t value

was 2.1516, with 78 degrees of freedom. For this t value and degrees of

freedom, the means of the two groups were significantly different at the $p <$

.05 level. For this one subtest, the hypothesis was rejected; for the remainder

of the ten subtests, the hypothesis was accepted.

Table 20.--Difference Score Mean and Standard Deviation for the First and Second Administrations of the EAEP, t-Value, Degrees of Freedom, and 2-Tail Probability by Subtest

Subtest	Assessment 1 Difference Scores		Assessment 2 Difference Scores		t-Value	DF	2-Tail Probability
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Setting goals and objectives	0.40	0.6369	0.34	0.9394	0.3344	78	0.225
Planning	0.35	0.5386	0.19	0.7691	1.0843	78	0.012
Making decisions and problem solving	0.24	0.6320	0.31	1.2951	-0.2743	78	0.256
Managing business and fiscal affairs	0.41	0.7877	0.21	0.9201	1.2441	78	0.039
Assessing progress	0.36	0.6827	0.05	0.8360	1.8018	78	0.935
Delegating responsibility	0.17	0.6330	0.15	0.7330	0.1142	78	0.211
Communicating	0.25	0.6721	0.06	0.7679	1.1465	78	0.456
Building and maintaining relationships	0.15	0.5549	-0.15	0.7172	2.1516	78	0.632
Demonstrating professional commitment	0.37	0.6607	0.06	0.8212	1.8753	78	0.664
Improving instruction	0.31	0.6224	0.25	0.9315	0.3368	78	0.768
Developing staff	0.22	0.7533	0.30	1.0066	-0.4024	78	0.155

Hypothesis 6 predicted: There will be no significant relationship between any subtest mean or group of the eleven subtest means of the principals' self-assessment scores and of the teachers' assessment scores on the second administration of the EAEP and the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills grade three, seven, or eleven mean scores on all tests.

A step-wise multiple regression analysis of this relationship was used to determine a prediction equation using means from the principals' self-ratings scores and the teachers' ratings of the principals on all eleven subtests. As shown in Table 21, each of the variables was entered into the test; however, no single variable had a significant t value to enable construction of a prediction equation for the independent variable, TAAS mean score. The TAAS mean scores used were appropriate for the grade level distribution for each principal's campus. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was accepted.

Research Question Investigation

The following two research questions provided direction for this study.

Research Question 1: Does the EAEP meet its stated purpose by increasing self-awareness on management and leadership skills?

Research Question 2: Does the EAEP provide direction and assistance to the user to improve selected managerial or leadership skills?

Table 21.--Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for Principal Self-Ratings and Teacher Ratings by Subtest with Texas Assessment of Academic Skills Scores as Independent Variable

Variable	Step Number	B	SE B	Beta	T	Significance of T
Developing staff (T)	1	27.9	24.4	1.44	1.142	0.2694
Improving instruction (P)	2	-6.7	13.1	-.36	-.515	0.6132
Managing business and fiscal affairs (P)	3	5.4	8.6	.32	.634	0.5346
Assessing progress (P)	4	-3.6	6.9	-.18	-.514	0.6139
Making decisions and problem solving (P)	5	-3.4	6.6	-.18	-.514	0.6136
Setting goals and objectives (P)	6	-7.3	8.2	-.42	-.892	0.3851
Building and maintaining relationships (P)	7	2.4	8.8	.10	.270	0.7906
Delegating responsibility (P)	8	11.4	8.6	.52	1.323	0.2034
Managing business and fiscal affairs (T)	9	1.3	16.6	.06	.080	0.9374
Building and maintaining relationships (T)	10	6.5	15.1	.28	.431	0.6720
Planning (P)	11	-2.5	10.6	-.11	-.232	0.8194
Demonstrating professional commitment (P)	12	-1.2	9.3	-.07	-.135	0.9846
Communicating (P)	13	-6.1	9.3	-.30	-.613	0.5497
Setting goals and objectives (T)	14	-12.9	21.1	-.60	-.611	0.5490
Delegating responsibility (T)	15	-13.4	15.7	-.53	-.853	0.4054
Developing staff (P)	16	8.4	10.2	.54	.852	0.4058
Demonstrating professional commitment (T)	17	12.5	15.3	.54	.813	0.4273
Assessing progress (T)	18	13.9	15.9	.60	.875	0.3936
Improving instruction (T)	19	-12.9	22.0	-.62	-.588	0.5642
Making decisions and problem solving (T)	20	-4.2	21.6	-.20	-.193	0.8490
Planning (T)	21	2.8	23.8	.14	.119	0.9069
Communicating (T)	22	-21.4	30.2	-.94	-.710	0.4874
(Constant)		72.1	63.3		1.150	0.2660

Reporting of Data

In the following narrative, the two research questions are discussed in relation to the responses on the EAEP Opinion Survey.

In the EAEP Opinion Survey, respondents were asked to respond to ten statements designed to point out information relative to the two research questions. Respondents were asked to choose a response from 1--agree to 5--disagree on a five point Likert-type scale. In addition, a comment section offered respondents an opportunity to provide information outside the frame of the questions. A checklist for other principal development opportunities and a comment option were included to provide respondents opportunities to reveal sources of development activities in which the principals had participated.

When the results of the EAEP were returned to the principals, the Opinion Survey was included, as well as a self-addressed stamped return envelope. These sealed surveys were mailed directly to the Texas Association of School Administrators. Of the forty principals who participated in the second assessment of the EAEP, all completed the Opinion Survey by return mail or by telephone. A discussion of the responses to each of the ten statements and comments offered follows.

The first statement requested an opinion about the relevance of the EAEP inventory to the principals' job. As shown in Table 22, 18 respondents selected "agree," 20 selected "somewhat agree," 2 selected a neutral response, and none

selected "somewhat disagree" or "disagree." Of the male respondents, 10 selected "agree," 13 selected "somewhat agree," and 2 selected a neutral response to this statement. Also shown in Table 22, 8 female respondents chose "agree" and 7 chose "somewhat agree." Of the respondents from small schools, 6 chose "agree" and 5 chose "somewhat agree." Twelve principals of large schools chose "agree," 15 chose "somewhat agree," and 2 chose a neutral response to this statement.

The second statement requested respondent's opinion on the ease of understanding the EAEP prompt statements. As shown in Table 23, 10 selected "agree," 22 selected "somewhat agree," 8 selected a neutral response, and none selected "somewhat disagree" or "disagree." Of the male respondents, 5 selected "agree," 16 selected "somewhat agree," and 4 selected a neutral response to this statement. As shown in Table 23, 5 female respondents chose "agree," 6 chose "somewhat agree," and 4 chose a neutral response to the statement. Of the respondents from small schools, 5 chose "agree," 3 chose "somewhat agree," and 3 chose a neutral response to the statement. Five principals of large schools chose "agree," 19 chose "somewhat agree," and 5 chose a neutral response to this statement.

In the third statement, respondents were requested to express their opinion on the importance of the results of the EAEP. As shown in Table 24,

Table 22.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 1--Items on the Inventory Were Relevant to My Job.

Respondents	Response									
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	18	45.00	20	50.00	2	5.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Male	10	40.00	13	52.00	2	5.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Female	8	53.33	7	46.67	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Small school	6	54.55	5	45.45	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	12	41.38	15	51.72	2	6.90	0	0.00	0	0.00

Table 23.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 2--The Items on the Inventory Were Easy to Understand.

Respondents	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	10	25.00	22	55.00	8	20.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Male	5	20.00	16	64.00	4	16.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Female	5	33.33	6	40.00	4	26.67	0	0.00	0	0.00
Small school	5	45.45	3	27.27	3	27.27	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	5	17.24	19	65.52	5	17.24	0	0.00	0	0.00

Table 24.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 3--The Results were Important to Me.

Respondents	Response									
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	14	35.00	17	42.50	5	12.50	1	2.50	3	7.50
Male	8	32.00	12	48.00	3	12.00	1	4.00	1	4.00
Female	6	40.00	5	33.33	2	13.33	0	0.00	2	13.33
Small school	4	36.36	3	27.27	4	36.36	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	10	34.48	14	48.28	1	3.45	1	3.45	3	10.34

14 selected "agree," 17 selected "somewhat agree," 5 selected a neutral response, 1 selected "somewhat disagree," and 3 selected "disagree." Of the male respondents, 8 selected "agree," 12 selected "somewhat agree," 3 selected a neutral response to this statement, 1 selected "somewhat disagree," and 1 selected "disagree." As shown in Table 24, 6 female respondents chose "agree," 5 chose "somewhat agree," 2 chose a neutral response to the statement, none chose "somewhat disagree," and 2 chose "disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 4 chose "agree," 3 chose "somewhat agree," and 4 chose a neutral response to the statement. Ten principals of large schools chose "agree," 14 chose "somewhat agree," 1 chose a neutral response to this statement, 1 chose "somewhat disagree," and 3 chose "disagree."

In the fourth statement, participants were requested to express their opinion on whether the EAEP results confirmed what they already knew about their management skills. As shown in Table 25, 6 selected "agree," 24 selected "somewhat agree," 9 chose a neutral response, 1 selected "somewhat disagree," and none selected "disagree." Of the male respondents, 4 selected "agree," 15 selected "somewhat agree," 5 selected a neutral response to this statement, 1 selected "somewhat disagree," and none selected "disagree." As shown in Table 25, 2 female respondents chose "agree," 9 chose "somewhat agree," 4 chose a neutral response to the statement, and none chose "somewhat disagree" or "disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 2 chose "agree," 6

Table 25.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 4--Results Confirmed What I Already Knew About My Management Skills.

	Response									
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
Respondents	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	6	15.00	24	60.00	9	22.50	1	2.50	0	0.00
Male	4	16.00	15	60.00	5	20.00	1	4.00	0	0.00
Female	2	13.33	9	60.00	4	26.67	0	0.00	0	0.00
Small school	2	18.18	6	54.55	3	27.27	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	4	13.79	18	62.07	6	20.69	1	3.45	0	0.00

chose "somewhat agree," and 3 chose a neutral response to the statement. Four principals of large schools chose "agree," 18 chose "somewhat agree," 6 chose a neutral response to this statement, 1 chose "somewhat disagree," and none chose "disagree."

In the fifth statement, participants were requested to express their opinion on whether the results of the EAEP focused the respondent's attention on certain skills for improvement. As shown in Table 26, 12 selected "agree," 18 selected "somewhat agree," 6 selected a neutral response, 3 selected "somewhat disagree," 1 selected "disagree." Of the male respondents, 9 selected "agree," 9 selected "somewhat agree," 5 selected a neutral response to this statement, 1 selected "somewhat disagree," and 1 selected "disagree." As shown in Table 26, 3 female respondents chose "agree," 9 chose "somewhat agree," 1 chose a neutral response to the statement, 2 chose "somewhat disagree," and none chose "disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 3 chose "agree," 5 chose "somewhat agree," and 3 chose a neutral response to the statement. Nine principals of large schools chose "agree," 13 chose "somewhat agree," 3 chose a neutral response to this statement, 3 chose "somewhat disagree," and 1 chose "disagree."

In the sixth statement, participants were requested to express their opinion on whether they usually had their teachers evaluate their skills. As shown in Table 27, 6 selected "agree," 25 selected "somewhat agree," 6

selected a neutral response, none selected "somewhat disagree," and 3 selected

"disagree." Of the male respondents, 2 selected "agree," 19 selected "some-

what agree," 2 selected a neutral response to this statement, none selected

"somewhat disagree," and 2 selected "disagree." As shown in Table 27, 4

female respondents chose "agree," 6 chose "somewhat agree," 4 chose a neutral

response to the statement, none chose "somewhat disagree," and 1 chose

"disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 4 chose "agree," 7 chose

"somewhat agree," and none chose a neutral response to the statement. Two

principals of large schools chose "agree," 18 chose "somewhat agree," 6 chose

a neutral response to this statement, none chose "somewhat disagree," and 3

chose "disagree."

In the seventh statement, participants were requested to express their

opinion on whether they used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide section

of the EAEP to generate a development plan. As shown in Table 28, 6

selected "agree," 20 selected "somewhat agree," 10 selected a neutral response,

none selected "somewhat disagree," and 4 selected "disagree." Of the male

respondents, 4 selected "agree," 15 selected "somewhat agree," 4 selected a

neutral response to this statement, none selected "somewhat disagree," and 2

selected "disagree." As shown in Table 28, 2 female respondents chose

"agree," 5 chose "somewhat agree," 6 chose a neutral response to the state-

ment, none chose "somewhat disagree," and 2 chose "disagree." Of the

Table 26.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 5--The Results Focuses My Attention on Certain Skills to Improve.

		Response								
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
Respondents	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	12	30.00	18	45.00	6	15.00	3	7.50	1	2.50
Male	9	36.00	9	36.00	5	20.00	1	4.00	1	4.00
Female	3	20.00	9	60.00	1	6.67	2	13.33	0	0.00
Small school	3	27.27	5	45.45	3	27.27	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	9	31.03	13	44.83	3	10.34	3	10.34	1	3.45

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Table 27.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 6--I Usually Have Teachers Evaluate My Skills.

Respondents	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	6	15.00	25	62.50	6	15.00	0	0.00	3	7.50
Male	2	8.00	19	76.00	2	8.00	0	0.00	2	8.00
Female	4	26.67	6	40.00	4	26.67	0	0.00	1	6.67
Small school	4	36.36	7	63.64	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	2	6.90	18	62.07	6	20.69	0	0.00	3	10.34

Response

Table 28.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 7--I Used the Ideas in the Self-Development Guide to Generate a Development Plan.

					Response					
Respondents	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	6	15.00	20	50.00	10	25.00	0	0.00	4	10.00
Male	4	16.00	15	60.00	4	16.00	0	0.00	2	8.00
Female	2	13.33	5	33.33	6	40.00	0	0.00	2	13.33
Small school	4	36.36	6	54.55	1	9.09	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	2	6.90	14	48.28	9	31.03	0	0.00	4	13.79

respondents from small schools, 4 chose "agree," 6 chose "somewhat agree,"

and 1 chose a neutral response to the statement. Two principals of large

schools chose "agree," 14 chose "somewhat agree," 9 chose a neutral response

to this statement, none chose "somewhat disagree," and 4 chose "disagree."

In the eighth statement, participants were requested to express their

opinion on whether they improved their management skills because of the

results of the first assessment of the EAEP. As shown in Table 29, 6 selected

"agree," 11 selected "somewhat agree," 21 selected a neutral response, 2

selected "somewhat disagree," and none selected "disagree." Of the male

respondents, 3 selected "agree," 6 selected "somewhat agree," 14 selected a

neutral response to this statement, 2 selected "somewhat disagree," and none

selected "disagree." As shown in Table 29, 3 female respondents chose

"agree," 5 chose "somewhat agree," 7 chose a neutral response to the state-

ment, none chose "somewhat disagree" or "disagree." Of the respondents from

small schools, 4 chose "agree," 2 chose "somewhat agree," and 5 chose a

neutral response to the statement. Two principals of large schools chose

"agree," 9 chose "somewhat agree," 16 chose a neutral response to this state-

ment, 2 chose "somewhat disagree," and none chose "disagree."

In the ninth statement, respondents were requested to express their

opinion on whether they were surprised by the results of the second assessment

of the EAEP. As shown in Table 30, 4 selected "agree," 11 selected "some-

what agree," 8 selected a neutral response, 14 selected "somewhat disagree," and 3 selected "disagree." Of the male respondents, 3 selected "agree," 6 selected "somewhat agree," 5 selected a neutral response to this statement, 10 selected "somewhat disagree," and 1 selected "disagree." As shown in Table 30, 1 female respondent chose "agree," 5 chose "somewhat agree," 3 chose a neutral response to the statement, 4 chose "somewhat disagree," and 2 chose "disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 2 chose "agree," 3 chose "somewhat agree," and none chose a neutral response to the statement. Two principals of large schools chose "agree," 8 chose "somewhat agree," 8 chose a neutral response to this statement, 8 chose "somewhat disagree," and 3 chose "disagree."

In the last statement. respondents were requested to express their opinion on whether they would recommend this instrument and activities to other principals. As shown in Table 31, 20 selected "agree," 15 selected "somewhat agree," 3 selected a neutral response, 2 selected "somewhat disagree," and none selected "disagree." Of the male respondents, 9 selected "agree," 14 selected "somewhat agree," 2 selected a neutral response to this statement, none selected "somewhat disagree" or "disagree." As shown in Table 31, 11 female respondents chose "agree," 1 chose "somewhat agree," 1 chose a neutral response to the statement, 2 chose "somewhat disagree," and none chose "disagree." Of the respondents from small schools, 6 chose "agree," 4 chose "somewhat

Table 29.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 8--I Have Improved My Management Skills Because of the First Assessment Results.

Respondents	Response									
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	6	15.00	11	27.50	21	52.50	2	5.00	0	0.00
Male	3	12.00	6	24.00	14	56.00	2	8.00	0	0.00
Female	3	20.00	5	33.33	7	46.67	0	0.00	0	0.00
Small school	4	36.36	2	18.18	5	45.45	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	2	6.90	9	31.03	16	55.17	2	6.90	0	0.00

Table 30.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 9--I Was Surprised by the Results.

| | | | | | | Response | | | | | | | |
| Respondents | Agree | | Somewhat Agree | | Neutral | | Somewhat Disagree | | Disagree | |
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	4	10.00	11	27.50	8	20.00	14	35.00	3	7.50
Male	3	12.00	6	24.00	5	20.00	10	40.00	1	4.00
Female	1	6.67	5	33.33	3	20.00	4	26.67	2	13.33
Small school	2	18.18	3	27.27	0	0.00	6	54.55	0	0.00
Large school	2	6.90	8	27.59	8	27.59	8	27.59	3	10.34

agree," and 1 chose a neutral response to the statement. Fourteen principals of large schools chose "agree," 11 chose "somewhat agree," 2 chose a neutral response to this statement, 2 chose "somewhat disagree," and none chose "disagree."

In the next section of the Opinion Survey, participants were offered an opportunity to comment on the EAEP with statements other than those framed in the ten preceding opinion statements. The comments received are the following:

> "This instrument is very helpful in my self-evaluation and professional growth planning."

> "I ask my teachers to evaluate me yearly, so I somewhat knew how this evaluation would show concerning my strengths and weaknesses."

> "Good instrument."

> "I enjoy getting results that indicate strengths or weaknesses. It allows me to better target areas for improvement."

> "This is a good instrument and I selected teachers who I thought would give me a fair assessment of my strengths and weaknesses."

> "This information will be sent to my supervisor in hopes it will be included in my evaluation process this year."

In the last section of the Opinion Survey, respondents were asked to check listed activities that had contributed to their professional growth the last five years. As shown in Table 32, 33 respondents checked "attended a conference on school management skills," 40 checked "attended a conference or

Table 31.--Responses of Survey Participants to Item 10--I Would Recommend This Instrument and Activities to Other Principals.

Respondents	Response									
	Agree		Somewhat Agree		Neutral		Somewhat Disagree		Disagree	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	20	50.00	15	37.50	3	7.50	2	5.00	0	0.00
Male	9	36.00	14	56.00	2	8.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Female	11	73.33	1	6.67	1	6.67	2	13.33	0	0.00
Small school	6	54.55	4	36.36	1	9.09	0	0.00	0	0.00
Large school	14	48.28	11	37.93	2	6.90	2	6.90	0	0.00

Table 32.--Responses of Survey Participants--Items That Contributed to My Professional Growth the Last Five Years.

Response

Respondents	School Management Conference		School Leadership Conference		Central Office Meeting		Professional Association Conference		Personal Experience		Friend's Suggestion		Personal Reading	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Total	33	82.50	40	100.00	25	62.50	28	70.00	30	75.00	26	65.00	31	77.50
Male	21	84.00	25	100.00	18	72.00	22	88.00	18	72.00	14	56.00	18	72.00
Female	11	73.00	15	100.00	7	46.70	6	40.00	12	80.00	12	80.00	13	86.70
Small school	8	72.70	11	100.00	7	63.60	8	72.70	7	63.60	8	72.70	7	63.60
Large school	25	86.20	29	100.00	18	62.10	20	69.00	23	79.30	18	62.10	24	82.80

workshop on leadership skills such as total quality management, outcome based education, or DuPont training," 25 checked "central office led staff development," 29 checked "professional workshop on school management or leadership," 30 checked "personal experience," 26 checked "implementation of friend's suggestion," and 31 checked "personal reading."

The 33 respondents who checked "school management conference" included 21 males and 11 females, 8 from small schools, and 25 from large schools. All forty respondents selected "school leadership conference." The 25 respondents who checked "central office led meeting" included 18 male and 7 female, 7 from small schools, and 18 from large schools. The 28 respondents who checked "professional association conference" included 22 male and 6 female, 8 from small schools, and 20 from large schools. The 30 respondents who checked "personal experience" included 18 male and 12 female, 7 from small schools, and 23 from large schools. The 26 respondents who checked "friend's suggestion" included 14 male and 12 female, 8 from small schools, and 18 from large schools. The 31 respondents who checked "personal reading" included 18 male and 13 female, 7 from small schools, and 24 from large schools.

When asked about their choices of reading materials, the respondents indicated they read National Association of Secondary School Principals materials, Educational Leadership, Education Week, Principal, articles and

publications from professional associations, professional journals from Texas
Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, <u>Reading Teacher</u>, Associa-
tion for Supervision of Curriculum Development materials, <u>The Quality School</u>,
<u>Seven Habits of Effective Managers</u>, and Bonstingal's writings.

No other professional development activities were reported by respon-
dents when given the opportunity to add to the list provided them on the
Opinion Survey.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION,

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

In the fall 1993, the <u>Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile</u>

(EAEP) and EAEP Opinion Survey were submitted to forty volunteer principals

in Tarrant County, Texas, to: (1) determine if the EAEP had affected the

management skill development of selected principals, (2) compare the princi-

pals' perception and the teachers' perception of the principals' management and

leadership skills in the initial and a second administration of the EAEP, and (3)

determine whether the effectiveness profile relates to one of the objective

measures of school effectiveness listed in the Academic Excellence Indicator

System for Texas schools. The population for this study consisted of all

principals who met two criteria: (1) they participated in an assessment of their

management and leadership skills using the EAEP in 1989 administered by

Edward Manigold, Associate Executive Director for Programs and Professional

Development for the Texas Association of School Administrators, and (2) they

are continuing in the job assignment of campus principal. An effort was made

to select volunteers across campus levels and gender to obtain a representative

sample. All of the principals selected completed the second EAEP assessment and returned the EAEP Opinion Survey.

For comparison, data from the first assessment of the EAEP for the sample group was obtained from Manigold. Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS), the primary campus indicant for the Academic Excellence Indicator System for Texas schools, data for each principal's campus were obtained from the Texas Education Agency. These data, along with data from the instruments used in this study, were processed and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences. A significance level of .05 was used for this study.

Hypotheses Findings

The six findings were the direct products of the two instruments utilized in providing direction for this study.

Hypothesis 1 predicted: There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the first administration of the EAEP.

No significant correlations were found between the subtest mean scores of two groups on the first assessment. However, significant differences were found between the principals' mean assessment and the teachers' mean assessment of their principal on three of the eleven subtests: setting goals and

objectives, improving instruction, and developing staff. Consequently, these three parts of Hypothesis 1 were rejected.

No significant difference was found between the principals' mean assessment and the teachers' mean assessment of their principal on eight of the eleven subtests: planning, making decisions and problem solving, managing business and fiscal affairs, assessing progress, delegating responsibility, communicating, building and maintaining relationships, and demonstrating professional commitment. Therefore, the remainder of Hypothesis 1 was retained.

Hypothesis 2 predicted: There will be no significant differences between the principals' mean responses and the teachers' mean responses to the eleven subtest assessments on the second administration of the EAEP.

Each of the eleven subtests for the second assessment yielded significant correlation coefficients at the .05 level between the principals' mean assessments and the teachers' mean assessments of their principal. In addition, a significant difference was evident in the means of the principals' assessments and the teachers' assessments of their principals along six subtests: setting goals and objectives, planning, managing business and fiscal affairs, demonstrating professional commitment, and improving instruction. Therefore, these six parts of Hypothesis 2 were rejected.

No significant differences were found in the means of the principals' second assessments and the teachers' second assessments of their principals

along five subtests: making decisions and problem solving, delegating responsibility, communicating, building and maintaining relationships, and developing staff. Consequently, the remainder of Hypothesis 2 was retained.

Hypothesis 3 predicted: There will be no significant difference between the aggregate mean of the principals' self-assessment on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

No significant correlations were found between the principals' self-assessment on the first and second assessments of the EAEP for any of the eleven subtests. However, for one subtest, demonstrating professional commitment, a significant difference was evident in the means of the two assessments. Therefore, for this one part, Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Significant differences were not found on the ten remaining subtests of means of the principals' self-assessments on the first and second assessments of the EAEP. Consequently, the remainder of Hypothesis 3 was retained.

Hypothesis 4 predicted: There will be no significant difference between the aggregate means of the subordinates' assessment of their principals on the eleven subtests from the first administration and from the second administration of the EAEP.

Significant correlation coefficients were discovered between the teachers' assessments on three subtests: planning, delegating responsibility, and improving instruction. In addition, a significant difference between the means of the

two score sets was found on the subtest planning. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was rejected on the subtest planning.

No significant differences were found between the means of the teachers' assessments from the first administration and the second administration of the EAEP on the ten remaining subtests. Consequently, the remainder of Hypothesis 4 was retained.

Hypothesis 5 predicted: There will be no significant difference between the aggregate difference scores on the first EAEP administration with that of the second administration.

The difference score is the self-rating score for each subtest subtracted from the mean of the subordinate score for each skill subtest. The difference scores are then averaged across each subtest to obtain a single difference score for each principal rated. The difference score is an indication of whether managers view themselves at the same level as do their subordinates.

Significant correlation coefficients were found for the difference score means between the first assessment and the second assessment on the subtests communicating, and demonstrating professional commitment. In addition, a significant difference was found between the mean scores on the subtest building and maintaining relationships. For this subtest, Hypothesis 5 was rejected.

No significant differences were found between the difference score means on the first and second administration for the ten remaining subtests. Consequently, the remainder of Hypothesis 5 was retained.

Hypothesis 6 predicted: For the principals, there will be no significant relationship between any or a group of the eleven subtest means of the principals' self-assessment scores and of the teachers' assessment scores on the second administration of the EAEP and the TAAS grade three, seven, or eleven mean scores on all tests.

The multiple regression analysis stepped all possible subtest means into the test; however, none of the subtest means produced coefficients toward a prediction equation for the independent variable TAAS mean scores for the appropriate grade level. Consequently, all of Hypothesis 6 was retained.

Research Questions Findings

Research Question 1 asked: Does the EAEP meet its stated purpose by increasing self-awareness on management and leadership skills?

EAEP Opinion Survey statements 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 9 addressed Research question 1. A list of these statements and discussion of each follow:

1. The items on the inventory were relevant to my job.
2. The items on the inventory were easy to understand.
3. The results were important to me.
4. The results confirmed what I already knew about my management and leadership skills.

6. I usually have teachers evaluate my skills.
9. I was surprised by the results.

Responses to item 1 showed that 95 percent of the participants agreed or somewhat agreed with the statement. Of the male respondents, 92 percent agreed to some extent with the statement. One hundred percent of the female respondents agreed to some extent. One hundred percent of the principals of small schools agreed to some extent, and 93 percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent with the statement. None of the respondents disagreed with the statement.

Responses to item 2 showed 32, or 80 percent of the respondents, agreed or somewhat agreed that the items on the EAEP were easy to understand. Twenty percent of the respondents chose a neutral response to this statement. Eighty-four percent of the male respondents agreed to some extent, while 73 percent of the females agreed to some extent. Of the principals of small schools, 72 percent agreed to some extent; 82 percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent that the items on the survey were easy to understand. In all groups, those who did not agree to any extent chose a neutral response; none of the respondents disagreed to any extent.

Responses to item 3 showed that, as a total group, 77 percent agreed or somewhat agreed that the results were important to them. Twelve and one-half percent of the group chose a neutral response to this statement. Eighty percent of the male respondents agreed to some extent, while 8 percent disagreed to

some extent. Seventy-three percent of the female respondents agreed to some extent, and 13 percent disagreed to some extent. Sixty-seven percent of principals of small schools agreed, while none disagreed, to any extent. Of the principals of large schools, 82 percent agreed and 13 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Responses to item 4 of the survey showed that 75 percent of the group agreed to some extent that the results of the EAEP confirmed what they already knew about their leadership and management skills. Twenty-two percent of the group chose a neutral response to the statement. Of the male respondents, 66 percent agreed with the statement to some extent, whereas 20 percent chose a neutral response. Seventy-three percent of the female principals agreed to some extent with the statement, whereas 26 percent chose a neutral response. Seventy-two percent of the principals of small schools agreed to some extent, whereas 27 percent chose a neutral response. Of the principals of large schools, 75 percent agreed to some extent, 20 percent chose a neutral response, and 1 disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Responses to item 6 of the survey showed that 77 percent of the group agreed to some extent that they usually had teachers evaluate their skills. Fifteen percent of the group chose a neutral response, and 7.5 percent disagreed that teachers usually evaluated their skills. Of the male respondents, 84 percent agreed to some extent, 8 percent chose a neutral response, and 8 percent

disagreed with the statement. The responses from female principals showed that 66 percent agreed to some extent with the statement, 27 percent chose a neutral response, and 7 percent disagreed that teachers usually evaluate their skills. One hundred percent of the principals of small schools agreed to some extent with the statement. Of the principals of large schools, 69 percent agreed to some extent, 21 percent chose a neutral response, and 10 percent disagreed with the statement.

Responses to item 9 of the survey showed that 37 percent agreed or somewhat agreed that they were surprised by the results of the EAEP, 20 percent of the group chose a neutral response, and 42 percent disagreed to some extent. Of the male respondents, 36 percent agreed to some extent, 20 percent chose a neutral response, and 44 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement. Forty percent of the female principals agreed with the statement, 20 percent chose a neutral response, and 40 percent disagreed. Of the principals of large schools, 34 percent agreed to some extent, 20 percent chose a neutral response, and 47 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Research Question 2 asked: Does the EAEP provide direction and assistance to the user to improve selected managerial or leadership skills?

EAEP Opinion Survey statements 5, 7, 8, and 10 addressed Research Question 2. A list of these statements and discussion of each follow:

5. The results focuses my attention on certain skills I want to improve.

7. I used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide to generate a professional development plan.

8. I have improved my management skills because of the results of the first assessment.

10. I would recommend this instrument and activities to other principals.

Responses to item 5 of the EAEP Opinion Survey showed that 75 percent of the group agreed to some extent, 15 percent chose a neutral response, and 10 percent disagreed to some extent that the results focused attention on certain skills to improve. Of the male principals, 72 percent agreed to some extent, 20 percent chose a neutral response, and 8 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement. Eighty percent of the female respondents agreed to some extent, 6 percent chose a neutral response, and 13 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement. Of the principals of small schools, 72 percent agreed to some extent, 27 percent chose a neutral response, and none disagreed with the statement. Seventy-six percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent, 10 percent chose a neutral response, and 14 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Responses to item 7 of the survey showed that 65 percent of the participants agreed to some extent, 25 percent chose a neutral response, and 10 percent disagreed to some extent that they used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide to generate a professional development plan. Of the male respondents, 76 percent agreed to some extent, 16 percent chose a neutral response, and 8 percent disagreed with the statement. Forty-six percent of the female

principals agreed to some extent, 40 percent chose a neutral response, and 13 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement. Of the principals of small schools, 91 percent agreed to some extent, and 9 percent chose a neutral response to the statement. Fifty-five percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent, 31 percent chose a neutral response, and 14 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Responses to item 8 of the survey showed that 42 percent of the participants agreed to some extent, 53 percent chose a neutral response, and 5 percent disagreed that they had improved their management skills because of the results of the first assessment. Of the male respondents, 36 percent agreed to some extent, 56 percent chose a neutral response, and 8 percent disagreed somewhat with the statement. Fifty-three percent of the female respondents agreed to some extent, 47 percent disagreed to some extent, and none chose a neutral response. Of the principals of small schools, 54 percent agreed to some extent, 46 percent chose a neutral response, and none disagreed with the statement. Thirty-eight percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent, 55 percent chose a neutral response, and 7 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Responses to item 10 of the survey showed that 87 percent of the participants agreed to some extent, 7 percent chose a neutral response, and 5 percent disagreed that they would recommend this instrument and activities to

other principals. Of the male respondents, 92 percent agreed to some extent, 8 percent chose a neutral response, and none disagreed with the statement. Eighty percent of the female respondents agreed to some extent, 7 percent chose a neutral response, and 13 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement. Of the principals of small schools, 90 percent agreed to some extent, 9 percent chose a neutral response, and none disagreed with the statement. Eighty-six percent of the principals of large schools agreed to some extent, 7 percent chose a neutral response, and 7 percent disagreed to some extent with the statement.

Respondent principals were asked, in item 11, to check other professional development activities that occurred during the time between the first and second assessment of the EAEP that could be considered to also contribute to their professional development. The principals were requested to check all applicable activities; consequently, results are reported in rank order of choices by group in Table 33. Possible choices included: a conference on school management such as total quality management, law, or personnel; a conference on leadership skills such as strategic planning, outcome based education, or DuPont training; a central office led staff development program; a professional association workshop on school management or leadership; personal experience; implementation of suggestions from a friend or mentor; and personal reading.

Table 33.--Rank Order of Other Development Activities of Principals Between the First and Second EAEP Assessments

Activity	Percent
Total Group:	
School leadership conference	100
School management conference	83
Personal reading	77
Personal experience	75
Professional association workshop	70
Friend's suggestion	65
Central office staff development	63
Male Principals:	
School leadership conference	100
Professional association workshop	88
School management conference	84
Personal reading	72
Central office staff development	72
Personal experience	72
Friend's suggestion	56
Female Principals:	
School leadership conference	100
Personal reading	87
Personal experience	80
Friend's suggestion	80
School management conference	73
Central office staff development	47
Professional association workshop	40
Principals of Small Schools:	
School leadership conference	100
School management conference	73

Professional association workshop	73
Friend's suggestion	73
Central office staff development	64
Personal experience	64
Personal reading	64

Principals of Large Schools:

School leadership conference	100
School management conference	86
Personal reading	83
Personal experience	79
Professional association workshop	69
Central office staff development	62
Friend's suggestion	62

Conclusions

The following conclusions were extracted based upon the findings of this study. These conclusions apply only to the subjects of this study. They may be generalized only to the population studied or similar populations.

1. On the first assessment of the EAEP, there was no agreement between the principals' perceptions of their leadership and management skills and their teachers' perception of those skills in the areas of setting the goals and objectives of the campus, improving the instructional program, or developing the staff. The data suggests that the principals were much more critical in their assessments than were the teachers.

2. The principals' perceptions and the teachers' perceptions of the principals' leadership and management skills were not greatly different on the

first assessment of the EAEP in the areas of planning, making decisions, managing business, checking the progress of the school, delegating responsibility, communicating, building relationships, and showing professional commitment. The data suggest that, generally, the principals were more critical of their skills in these areas than were their teachers.

3. On the second assessment of the EAEP, there was no agreement between the principals' perceptions of their leadership and management skills and their teachers' perceptions of those skills in the areas of setting the strategic direction of the work of the campus, planning for the school year, managing the business affairs of the campus, assessing the progress of students, demonstrating professional commitment, or improving the instructional program. The data suggest that the principals were much more critical of their skills than were the teachers in these areas.

4. The principals' perceptions and the teachers' perceptions of the principals' leadership and management skills were not greatly different on the second assessment of the EAEP in the areas of making decisions, delegating responsibility, communicating, building relationships, and developing staff. The data suggest that, generally, the principals were more critical of their skills in these areas than were their teachers.

5. The principals' perceptions of their leadership and management skills were significantly different on the first and second assessment of the EAEP in

the area of demonstrating professional commitment. The data suggest that the principals rated their skills much lower on the first assessment in this area.

6. The principals' perceptions of their leadership and management skills on the first and second assessments of the EAEP were not significantly different in ten of the eleven subtest areas. The data suggest that the principals rated themselves higher in the second assessment in these areas.

7. The teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership and management skills on the first and second assessments of the EAEP were significantly different in the area of planning for the instructional program. The data suggest that the ratings were much lower on the first assessment than on the second assessment.

8. The teachers' perceptions of their principals' leadership and management skills on the first and second assessments of the EAEP were about the same in the areas of setting goals for the school, making decisions, managing the business affairs of the campus, assessing student progress, delegating responsibility, communicating, building relationships, demonstrating professional commitment, improving instruction, and developing staff. The data suggest that the ratings were higher on the second assessment.

9. The difference scores, a measure of how close the ratings of the principals' and their teachers were on each assessment, indicate that the ratings were much different in the area of building and maintaining relationships. The

data suggest that the rating in this area was very dissimilar on the second assessment.

10. In ten of the eleven subtests, the difference scores between the principals and their teachers were similar on the first and second assessments of the EAEP.

11. None of the mean scores for subtests of the EAEP predicted how the students at that campus performed on the TAAS test for Texas schools the same year the second EAEP assessment was given. The data suggest that the perceptions of principals or their teachers of the principals' leadership and management skills through the EAEP is not a predictor of student academic performance.

12. An overwhelming majority of the respondents in the sample indicated on the follow-up Opinion Survey that the items on the EAEP were (1) relevant to their jobs, (2) easy to understand, (3) thought the results were important to them, (4) confirmed what they already knew about their leadership and management skills, and that they (5) usually had their teachers evaluate them. However, the principals' responses to whether the EAEP results surprised them were equally divided between positive and negative responses.

13. An overwhelming majority of the respondents in the sample indicated on the follow-up Opinion Survey that the items on the EAEP (1) focused their attention on certain skills to improve, (2) that they used the Self-

Development Guide to formulate a professional development plan, (3) believed they improved because of the results of the first assessment, (4) and would recommend the instrument to other principals.

14. All of the respondents in the sample indicated on the follow-up Opinion Survey that school leadership conferences had contributed to their professional growth the past five years. A clear majority of the respondents in sample indicated that school management conferences, personal reading, personal experience, professional association workshops, suggestions by friends, and central office staff development activities, in that order, had contributed to their professional growth the last five years.

Discussion of Conclusions

An examination and discussion of the conclusions follows:

1. On the first assessment of the EAEP, the principals perceived their skills as much lower on setting goals and objectives, improving instruction, and developing staff than did their teachers. These skills are partially representative of the skills pointed out in the effective schools movement in wide spread discussion during the time of the first assessment in 1989. Prior to that assessment, emphasis on these and other skills was not deemed critical to the academic success of a campus.

2. On the second assessment of the EAEP, the principals perceived their skills as much lower on setting goals and objectives, planning, managing business, assessing progress, professional commitment, and improving instruction than did their teachers. During the time of this assessment, limited site-based management was mandated by the Texas Education Agency (TEA). This list of skills, with the exception of professional commitment, includes areas where teachers and principals must work closely to meet the mandates of the TEA and required local policy. The exposure of these leadership and management skills to the teachers were much more pronounced as a general rule during this time. It is interesting to note that the teachers again rated the principals higher on these dimensions than did the principals themselves.

3. The principals generally rated themselves higher in all subtests on the second assessment than on the first. During the past five years, emphasis on the development of the skills of the principal and the effect of strong leadership and management skills on student achievement has been pervasive.

4. The teachers generally rated their principals higher in all subtests on the second assessment than on the first. The principals' skill at planning was rated significantly higher on the second assessment. One aspect of the state mandate of site-based management program in Texas is planning the campus instructional program, based on several assessment results of student standardized tests. The additional interaction of the principals with teachers on

campus, relative to planning, may partially explain the teachers' perceptions of that particular skill.

5. The principals considered the items on the EAEP to be relevant and easy to understand. The results were important to them and supported what they already knew about their leadership and management skills; however they expressed mixed surprise when they observed the comparison between their self-rating and the teachers' ratings of their skills. The findings answer the first research question in the affirmative: The EAEP meets its stated purpose by increasing self-awareness on management and leadership skills.

6. The principals affirmed that the items on the EAEP focused their attention on certain skills that they had a desire to improve and used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide to generate a professional development plan. In addition, they believed they had improved their management and leadership skills as a result of the first assessment of the EAEP and recommend the instrument highly to other principals. These findings answer the second research question in the affirmative: The EAEP provides direction and assistance to the user to improve selected managerial or leadership skills.

Recommendations for Future Study

General recommendations include the following:

1. Future study is recommended to determine other indicators of principals' leadership and management skill development.

2. Future study is recommended to determine an appropriate use for teachers' assessment of the principals' leadership and management skills in the overall appraisal of principals.

3. Research is recommended to identify predictors of student academic success based upon the leadership and management skills of the campus principal.

4. Further study is recommended to determine the association between the leadership and management skills of the principal and the effect on academic performance of students.

5. Further study is recommended to determine the effects of the leadership and management skills of principals on teachers' performance in the classroom.

6. Research is recommended to determine additional effective programs for principal leadership and management skill development.

7. Further study is recommended to determine the most appropriate means of combining structured leadership and management skill feedback and principal skill development programs.

8. Further study is recommended to determine other measures to assess principal leadership and management skill level.

APPENDIX A

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR EFFECTIVENESS PROFILE

OPINION SURVEY

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR EFFECTIVENESS PROFILE

OPINION SURVEY

		Agree				Disagree
1.	The items on the inventory were relevant to my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	The items on the inventory were easy to understand.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	The results were important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The results confirmed what I already knew about my management and leadership skills.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	The results focused my attention on certain skills I want to improve.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I usually have teachers evaluate my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I used the ideas in the Self-Development Guide to generate a professional development plan.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I have improved my management skills because of the results of the first assessment.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I was surprised by the results.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I would recommend this instrument and activities to other principals.	1	2	3	4	5

Comments:

_____

_____

Please circle an answer.

Total number of years in the education profession: _____

Total number of years as a principal: _____

Age: _____

Please check the circle beside each activity that has contributed to your professional growth in the last five years.

O   A conference on school management skills--such as Total Quality Management, law, or personnel.

O   A conference or workshop on leadership skills--such as Strategic Planning, Outcome Based Education, or DuPont Training.

O   Central office led staff development program.

O   Professional association workshop on school management or leadership.

O   Personal experience.

O   Implementation of suggestions from a friend or mentor.

O   Personal reading. If so, what? _____

O   Other _____

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

September 12, 1993

Salutation First Last Name
School Name
School Address
City, State Zip

Dear Salutation Last Name:

I can appreciate your busy schedule at this time of year; however, some principals have overlooked an opportunity to participate in a program that offers you confidential information about your leadership and management skills. Several years ago, you participated in a program to inventory your management and leadership skills. The program is sponsored by the Texas Association of School Administrators and involved a kit entitled Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile. The current proposal before the State Board of Education relative to the Academic Excellence Indicator System includes such a profile of the principal in the Campus Report.

I believe the Educational Administrator Effectiveness Profile (EAEP) may be an effective instrument for the identification of management strengths and weaknesses to assist administrators in professional development. A doctoral study has been designed to provide more information on the use of the EAEP as a tool for improvement; I hope you will participate in this study.

Information will be returned to you confidentially for your use, and anonymity of all raters will be guaranteed. The assessment will take about 30 minutes and stamped self-addressed envelopes are provided for your use. The data will be analyzed according to the instructions in the booklet and a printout of the results will be mailed directly to you. A ten minute follow up questionnaire will accompany the results. The results will not be shared with anyone else in the district. Please indicate your willingness to participate by returning the postcard. **There will be no cost to you or to the district to be involved in this study.**

Respectfully,

Ed Manigold, Ed.D.
Associate Executive Director, TASA

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