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PRINCIPAL VISION,
ENVIRONMENTAL ROBUSTNESS,
AND TEACHER SENSE OF AUTONOMY
IN HIGH SCHOOLS

by

DANIEL NORDWALL JOHNSON

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
in
EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP:
ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Portland State University
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AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION OF Daniel Nordwall Johnson
for the Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership:
Administration and Supervision presented June 25, 1991.

Title: Principal Vision, Environmental Robustness, and Teacher
Sense of Autonomy in High Schools.

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This study focused on leadership and its correlates. Theory
and reasearch both point to the centrality of the principal's

leadership role in school effectiveness. Yet, few studies of school leadership actually examine relationships among leadership variables. This study examined, from the perspective of high school teachers, three leadership correlates: principal vision, environmental robustness and teacher autonomy.

Principal vision was conceptualized as the capacity of the principal to see the difference between what is and what might be, thus enabling others to accept and act on the possibilities of what might be. Environmental robustness was defined as the perceived dramatic content of the school structure. Teacher autonomy was referred to as the extent to which teachers perceived they were able to maintain professional discretion and independence in their classrooms.

It is believed that these variables do not stand alone but are interwoven in the leadership discussion. Principal vision is only as powerful a concept as the context in which it is shared (environmental robustness) and the receptivity and willingness to respond to it by the followers (teacher sense of autonomy).

This study examined the collective perspective that high school teachers have regarding these three variables. Data were collected from 1338 high school teachers in 34 public high schools in Oregon. The school was the statistical unit of analysis. Mean scores were calculated for each of the three variables and subscales within each variable. Data were statistically analyzed using the Pearson product moment correlation and ANOVA.

The study hypothesized a significant positive relationship between principal vision and environmental robustness; principal vision and teacher autonomy; environmental robustness and teacher autonomy. Using the Pearson product moment correlation as the statistical test, positive relationships were observed for all three of the hypotheses. The strongest of the relationships was found between principal vision and environmental robustness. Although not as strong, a significant positive relationship was also found between environmental robustness and teacher autonomy. While principal vision and teacher autonomy demonstrated the weakest correlation, there were several significant relationships among the vision and autonomy subscales. This study found stronger correlations among the three variables at the high school than were found in an earlier study at the elementary level and explores reasons for those differences.

This study also investigated relationships among the theoretical variables and several contextual variables including demographic and school improvement indicators. After data were collected and analyzed, several principals of participating schools were interviewed regarding visionary attributes of their leadership roles in their schools. These interviews provided a broader perspective in understanding and interpreting the findings. This study concluded by considering implications of the relationships among these three variables and their impact in creating and sustaining effective instructional leadership. Of significant interest

were the implications for the hiring processes for high school principals.

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In some mystical sense, the culmination of this activity, ending in the completion of a dissertation, is not really the ending at all. It is, I suspect, as Winston Churchill described the end of World War II as: "not the end, nor is it the beginning of the end, but rather the end of the beginning." For me, the past four years have been filled with the wonder, satisfaction, exhilaration, frustration, and exhaustion that inevitably surround a doctoral program. As with so much of what we accomplish, this program was not done in isolation but was, in fact, achieved within the community of supportive and encouraging professionals, friends, and family.

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insightful comments, and detailed consideration of this study, which inspired me to prepare a product worthy of their respect.

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Throughout the state of Oregon a group of high school principals were able to see the value in this project. They were willing, with a minimum of harassment and hassle, to commit their teachers to participate in the study. Without their efforts and those of 1338 teachers who responded to the survey, this work would not be possible.

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encouraged me to write about leadership. Donna Hayes provided tremendous help in computerizing the data.

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Finally for my friend and spouse, Ruth, who gave me not only the encouragement but the freedom to embark on this adventure, I am both grateful and overwhelmed. During those times when I wanted to "bag" the study, she had the foresight and determination to urge me to stay the course. Her love for and confidence in me have been shown in innumerable ways. The past four years have been a time of significant change for me. One day in the fall of 1989, when I was struggling with the decision to leave the high school principalship and move into a district position as an area director, she shared with me the wisdom of James Baldwin in Nobody Knows My Name (1961). Baldwin writes:

Any real change implies the break up of the world as one has always known it, the loss of all that gave one identity, the end of safety. And at such a moment, unable to see and not daring to imagine what the future will now bring forth, one clings to what one knew, or thought one knew; to what one possessed or dreamed that one possessed. Yet it is only when man is able, without bitterness or self pity, to surrender a dream he has long cherished, or a privilege he has long possessed, that he is set free -- for higher dreams, for greater privileges. (p. 117)

Along with the pain of transition come new opportunities for growth and challenge and these have reassured and sustained me.

Neil Postman has described children as "the living messages we send to a time we will not see." Clearly what we do today will effect tomorrow in ways not yet seen or even dreamed of. Lest we be overly futuristic, however, what we do today as educators has both immediate and long term implications for the young people in

our schools. It is the students whose lives and relationships have convinced me, beyond any doubt, that the leadership of the principal does make a difference. For these students, this project is dedicated.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xiii
CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY.....	1
Overview.....	1
Theoretical Framework.....	3
Principal Vision.....	6
Environmental Robustness.....	7
Teacher Sense of Autonomy.....	8
Statement of the Problem	10
Significance of Study.....	11
Summary.....	15
II REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	17
Overview.....	17
The Study of Leadership.....	17
The Principal as Instructional Leader: A Review of the Literature.....	24
Principal Vision: A Review of the Literature.....	35
Environmental Robustness: A Review of the Literature.....	49

	Teacher Sense of Autonomy: A Review of the Literature.....	58
	Conclusion.....	77
III	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES.....	82
	Overview.....	82
	Statement of the Problem.....	83
	Instrumentation.....	83
	The School Vision Inventory.....	84
	The Environmental Robustness Semantic Differential.....	86
	The Sense of Autonomy Scale.....	87
	Data Collection Procedures.....	90
	Sample.....	90
	Administration of the Questionnaire.....	91
	Data Analyses Procedures.....	92
	Descriptive Analyses.....	93
	Correlation Analyses.....	93
	Definition of Terms.....	94
	Limitations of the Study.....	95
IV	RESULTS OF THE STUDY.....	98
	Overview.....	98
	Summary of Demographic Variables.....	98
	Summary of Descriptive Statistics and Between-School Variance.....	103
	Summary of Instrument Subscales.....	103

	Analysis of Variance Examining Between-School Variance.....	108
	Correlation Analyses Pertaining to Research Hypotheses.....	109
	Analysis of Hypothesis 1.....	110
	Analysis of Hypothesis 2.....	112
	Analysis of Hypothesis 3.....	113
	Statistical Power.....	114
	Scattergrams Between Pairs of Theoretical Variables.....	115
	Correlations among Demographic and Theoretical Variables.....	118
	Comparison with Other Research Data.....	124
	Interviews with Principals.....	126
	Summary.....	128
V	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	130
	Overview.....	130
	Summary of Study.....	130
	Conclusions.....	133
	Further Implications.....	148
	Recommendations for Further Research.....	152
	REFERENCES.....	155
	APPENDICES	
A	Vision Survey.....	173
B	Robustness Semantic Differential.....	176
C	Teacher Autonomy.....	178
D	School Vision Inventory Subscale.....	181
E	Teacher Sense of Autonomy Subscale.....	183
F	Scattergrams.....	186

G	Data By Schools.....	191
H	Interview Questions for Selected Principals.....	193
I	Letter Sent to All Participating Principals Prior to Sending Out the Survey.....	195
J	Letter Accompanying Surveys.....	197
K	Letter Accompanying Each Teacher Survey.....	199
L	Completed by the Principal.....	201

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
I	Demographic Data for Schools Studied.....	99
II	Summary of Respondent Totals for Three Variables by School.....	102
III	Descriptive Statistics for Theoretical Variables.....	104
IV	One Factor Anova, All Teachers by School vs. Theoretical Variables	107
V	Summary of Correlations for Three Variables.....	109
VI	Correlation Matrix for Theoretical Variables.....	111
VII	Correlations of Demographic and Theoretical Variables.....	121

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1. Scattergrams of Three Variables	116

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

OVERVIEW

This study is concerned with leadership and its correlates. Theory and research both point to the centrality of the principal's leadership role in school effectiveness. Yet, few studies of school leadership actually examine relationships among leadership variables. This study extends earlier work by Street (1988) and Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) by building upon their examination of three leadership correlates: principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher autonomy. The earlier study examined relationships among these variables at the elementary level; this study focuses on the high school level.

The current literature is full of references and descriptions of effective versus ineffective schools. The school effectiveness literature provides images of principals as strong leaders. It links leadership to school climate, teacher morale, and organizational performance (Blase, 1987). Many of the most influential researchers and writers on school effectiveness and educational leadership, including Barth (1988b, 1990); Brookover & Lezotte (1979); Edmonds (1979); Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston, and

Smith (1979); and Sergiovanni (1984, 1987a) describe the leadership of the principal as the single most significant factor in creating effective schools.

Researchers have found that the actions of principals can positively or negatively impact academic achievement, school improvement, decision making, school climate, implementation of new programs, and the development of norms supporting educational change (Dickson, 1987). Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) describe the gravity of the principalship in very succinct terms: ". . . principals must bear the greatest responsibility for, and hold the greatest potential for, determining what sort of school a school is or is not to become . . . As the principal goes, so goes the school" (p. 228).

As early as 1974, The United States Senate Select Committee on Equal Educational Opportunity addressed the significance of the principal's role.

In many ways the school principal is the most important and influential individual in any school. He or she is the person responsible for all activities that occur in and around the school building. It is the principal's leadership that sets the tone of the school, the climate for learning, the level of professionalism and morale of teachers and the degree of concern for what students may or may not become. The principal is the main link between the community and the school, and the way he or she performs in that capacity largely determines the attitudes of parents and students about the school. If a school is a vibrant, innovative, child-centered place, if it has a reputation for excellence in teaching, if students are performing to the best of their

ability, one can almost always point the principal's leadership as the key to success. (p. 305)

The principal is not, however, an independent actor in effective schools. The effectiveness of his or her leadership is based on a myriad of interrelated variables. This study was undertaken to gain a better theoretical understanding of the relationships of three such variables; principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy from the perspective of the teacher.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

While research on principal effectiveness has increased dramatically in recent years, much of it has generated descriptions of what principals do. Some studies directed at school effectiveness have investigated organizational variables such as leadership characteristics and correlated them with outcomes such as student achievement. Other studies have examined the impact of leadership with mediating variables such as school climate (Dwyer, Lee, Barnett, Filby, & Rowan, 1984).

Although the knowledge base is growing regarding effective school principals, definitions of effectiveness and ineffectiveness have relied primarily on school achievement test scores or peer nominations. Little attention has been given to the relationship between leadership behaviors and school context variables. Very limited data exist describing meanings associated with principals' actions specifically from the teachers' perspective (Sergiovanni & Corbally, 1984). Furthermore, the research on educational

leadership has certain methodological problems including the limited generalizability of findings. Murphy, Hallinger, and Mitman (1983, p. 297) note that most of the research on educational leadership and school effectiveness in general have three foci: (a) the sample is usually elementary schools; (b) the sample is usually urban children; and (c) there is usually a limited number of outcome measures.

In the present study, the researcher expected to gain a clearer picture of the relationships among the vision of the principal, environmental robustness, and teachers' sense of autonomy. These variables do not stand alone but are imbedded in the leadership discussion. Principal vision is only as powerful a concept as the context in which it is shared (environmental robustness) and the receptivity and willingness to respond to it by followers (teacher sense of autonomy). The relationships among these variables are not, however, automatically complimentary. For example, when a principal works with a group of teachers to gain their acceptance and internalization of a vision for the school, he or she runs the risk of threatening teacher feelings about professional autonomy. The risk is enhanced particularly when a need to change classroom procedures is part of that vision. Yet Blumberg and Greenfield (1980, 1986) describe effective principals as those who effectively advance their vision and work collaboratively with staff while respecting their discretionary power and autonomy. It might be argued, then, that teachers associate principals who have vision with energy, creativity, and freedom to select the techniques of

their work. Further, a case might be made that teachers who feel positive about their sense of professional autonomy also perceive a relatively meaningful, challenging, powerful, or robust school climate.

This study considers what teachers value in principals. Leaders with vision are often suspect, particularly if those visions are not accepted by teachers. A principal, for example, may be especially robust in his or her role. If his or her vision, however, is seen as dogma, it does not seem to lend itself to a healthy sense of teacher autonomy.

All three variables are considered in both the leadership and effective schools literature. Vision and autonomy appear to be more firmly grounded in the leadership literature. Environmental robustness, as a school climate variable, is more closely linked in the effective schools literature. The researcher did not build variables on school effectiveness into the study because the indicators are not easily measured at the high school level. Since all three of the variables used are considered to be characteristics of effective schools, however, speculation regarding relationships among the variables and the effective schools literature would seem to be appropriate. One might reason, for example, if a principal with vision is functioning in a robust school climate and the teachers are experiencing a greater sense of autonomy, then the school could be viewed as more effective.

Principal Vision

Of the many qualities attributed to effective instructional leaders perhaps none is more significant than the vision of the principal and his or her ability to translate that vision, communicate it to others, and have others support that vision. Two of the earliest educators to suggest the relevance of vision for school principals were Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) in their book The Effective Principal. They conclude, in their study of effective principals, that the extent to which a principal is successful in achieving his or her goals for the school is related to his or her commitment to a particular educational or organizational vision.

In a recent follow-up of their 1980 study of school principals "who make a difference," Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) describe these principals as having the ability to advance a vision of what their school can and ought to be and the initiative and resourcefulness to bring about that vision. Sergiovanni (1984) maintains that the principal's key functions in effective schools are: creating a vision, establishing goal consensus among staff, and developing a sense of institutional identity. Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) describe the importance of vision as "the foundation upon which the moral authority of the principal rests. It is what enables the principal to lead a school well" (p. 228).

Vision is operationally defined by Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) as: "the capacity to see the discrepancy between how things are and how they might be and the need to compel others to act on these imagined possibilities" (p. 3). The School

Vision Inventory {SVI} (Appendix A) used in this study is based upon the principal's ability to persuade others to accept and share a vision, exchange ideas about the vision with others, and motivate others to act and even make sacrifices towards this vision (Greenfield, Licata, & Johnson, 1989, p. 2).

Environmental Robustness

A key element in the effective schools literature is the concept of school climate in relationship to outcome variables such as student achievement (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Levine & Lezotte, 1989; Little, 1982; Rossman, Corbett, & Firestone, 1988; and Rutter et al., 1979). In summarizing the literature on school climate and culture, Hoy and Miskel (1986) define climate as shared perceptions of behavior and culture as shared beliefs and assumptions in schools. Rutter et al. (1979) refer to the characteristics of a social organization as a school's ethos, or its overall tone, spirit, or organizational identity. Effective schools have a more positive ethos or climate.

Licata and Willower (1975) first described environmental robustness as a component of school climate when they examined conflict between student and teacher subcultures in school organizations. They viewed the student and teacher antagonists as actors in a plot that could potentially create high drama and evoke considerable empathy within both students and teachers. Environmental robustness as a theoretical construct was first understood in terms of this theatrical analogy and defined as the

perceived "dramatic" content of certain school structures for a particular audience; i.e., teachers, students, parents, or administrators (Willower & Licata, 1975). Licata and Willower (1978) operationally defined the dramatic perceptions for drama or environmental robustness as "interesting, challenging, active, unusual, powerful, thrilling, important, fresh, meaningful, and action-packed" (p. 221).

Environmental robustness is important as a descriptor of school and classroom climate and social interaction. Schools and classrooms can be centers of high drama and excitement as well as of boredom and monotony (Licata & Wildes, 1980). In this study, teacher perceptions of the robustness of (a) their role as a teacher, (b) their principal, and (c) their school were considered to be significant correlates of principal vision and/or teacher autonomy. The Robustness Semantic Differential {RSD} was used to measure environmental robustness (see Appendix B).

Teacher Sense of Autonomy

Teacher autonomy is a third characteristic of effective schools and the literature is replete with references to this variable. On the one hand, the literature describes the isolation which accompanies autonomy in the classroom. On the other, there is a growing body of literature which details autonomy in terms of the importance of individual teachers believing they have a sense of control over their work and their working conditions.

The conceptualization of autonomy for this project comes from the work of Charters (1974) on sense of teacher autonomy. His study is influenced particularly by the work of Blauner (1964), Bidwell (1965), and Lortie (1969, 1973). Charters describes sense of autonomy as a psychological construct representing a teacher's beliefs about his or her freedom from external interference, pressure, or control in performing the work of classroom instruction. Sense of work autonomy is operationally defined by Packard (1976) as the extent to which teachers view themselves as the legitimate classroom authorities and rightful holders of discretionary power over such matters as instructional processes, pupil control, motivation and evaluation.

Charters (1974) notes that public school teaching, unlike other occupations, has been regarded by some as providing a high degree of autonomy on a daily basis. He writes that others, however, see teachers as powerless pawns pursuing their daily activities, and are constrained by bureaucratic rules and guidelines which they had no involvement in making.

Autonomy refers to the individual's need to participate in making decisions that affect him or her, to exert influence in controlling the work situation, to have a voice in setting job-related goals, and to have authority to make decisions and latitude to work independently. Teachers' sense of work autonomy was measured by the Sense of Autonomy Scale {SAS} (Appendix C).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study examines the collective perspective that high school teachers have about the principal's vision, the school's environmental robustness, and the work autonomy of teachers.

The preponderance of the research on the principalship either does not tend to distinguish between elementary and high school roles or is focused at the elementary level. While there have been some analyses regarding the variables of principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher autonomy at the elementary school, there has been little undertaken at the secondary level.

This research problem, based at the secondary level, is expressed in the following question: What are the relationships among vision, environmental robustness, and teacher autonomy?

The relationships among these three variables are hypothesized as follows:

1. There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school's vision and their perceptions of a robust school climate.
2. There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school's vision and their sense of autonomy.
3. There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' sense of autonomy and their perceptions of a robust school climate.

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

This study is important for several reasons. While principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of work autonomy are important concepts in theories of principal leadership and effective schools, the relationships among these three variables have not been examined at the high school level. In a search of ERIC and Dissertation Abstracts International conducted in April 1991, 151 documents addressed the principal and the concept of vision but only 5 were directed to the high school. Thirteen listings related to environmental robustness. There were 27 listings on teacher autonomy of which 5 related to teacher autonomy in the high school. There were no references to vision when combined with robustness and autonomy at the high school level.

Even at the elementary school level, there has been very limited study of the relationship of these three variables. Environmental robustness, teacher autonomy, and to a lesser extent principal vision (vision was part of a larger set of issues around principal supervision) were considered by Street (1988) in her dissertation. Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) collaborated on a study entitled "Principal Vision, Teacher Sense of Autonomy, and Environmental Robustness." The purpose of their work was to test hypotheses about principal vision generated from Blumberg and Greenfield's (1980, 1986) qualitative study of effective principals. They explored the relationships between teachers' views of their principal's vision, teachers' sense of autonomy and the robustness of

the principal role. The Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) work was based on Street's study involving a sample of 983 teachers in 57 elementary schools in three rural and small city school districts in Louisiana.

The focus of this study at the high school level was the first reason for undertaking it. Most of the research on educational leadership and school effectiveness in general has been conducted in elementary schools. Because high schools are different enough in structure and culture from elementary schools, one must use great care in generalizing findings from studies at the elementary school level to high schools (Murphy, Hallinger, & Mitman, 1983). For example, it is much more difficult to create common goals and focus in high schools than in elementary schools because high schools have greater diversity of purpose and objectives, and greater organizational complexity due in part to size and departmentalization. The curricular and social divisions in high schools suggest more "loosely coupled" organizations and more decentralized authority than in elementary schools (Firestone, Herriott, & Wilson, 1987).

High school teachers view their work differently than elementary teachers. They are more likely to see themselves as subject matter specialists and less likely to see themselves as having responsibility for the "whole child," a task that is delegated to administrators and guidance specialists (Louis & Miles, 1990).

Lortie (1975), in his classic study School Teacher noted that high school teachers see the principal as somewhat remote.

Departmentalization limits direct interventions by the principal. Elementary teachers, on the other hand, are more exposed to their principals. In considering the issue of teacher autonomy, Lortie (1975) found that high school teachers view authority, teacher autonomy and principal roles differently than elementary school teachers. High school teachers expect greater autonomy, "hands off" involvement, and less supervision from their principals than do elementary teachers.

A second reason for the study is to consider the importance of the role of the principal in defining a vision, sharing it with the staff, and receiving a positive level of support for and commitment to that vision. Given the preponderance of writing and research on leadership, this study intends to provide insight into the principal role as relates to providing vision for a school, creating a positive school climate and providing teachers with a greater sense of autonomy. As Cronin (1984) notes:

The study of leadership needs inevitably to be linked or merged with the study of followership. We cannot really study leaders in isolation from followers, constituents or group members. The leader is very much a product of the group, and very much shaped by its aspirations, values and human resources. The more we learn about leadership, the more the leader-follower linkage is understood and reaffirmed. A leader has to resonate with followers. Part of being an effective leader is having excellent ideas, or a clear sense of direction, a sense of mission. But such ideas or vision are useless unless the would-be leader can communicate them and get them accepted by followers. (p. 24)

In all probability, teachers would not support a principal or respond positively to his or her leadership if the principal tried to impose his or her vision on the teachers or reduced their freedom to make strategic classroom decisions. To be successful as an "effective principal," it is likely the principal would need to incorporate the views of those who have a stake in the school's future. The role of followership is therefore an important aspect of this study. A vision for the school, for example, may be less important than who actually supports that vision and how willing the supporters are to take action upon that vision.

A third reason for the study was to consider the relationships among these three variables, from the perspectives of the classroom teacher, in creating an effective school. The literature and research on effective schools do not, however, explain how these variables may be connected. The propositions and hypotheses offered in this study could provide a theoretical basis for further study of the relationships among these variables and their possible effect on school achievement.

Finally, Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) raise several issues with studies of the principalship which are preoccupied with the leadership function of administration. They describe three limitations in the research.

- (1) the principal or some associated set of behaviors, characteristics, or activities is treated as an independent variable and tends to be overly emphasized by researchers;
- (2) the interdependency or reciprocal character of social relationships, events, and activities is

deemphasized; and (3) contextual variables are virtually ignored. (p. 234)

By considering principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy from the perspective of the teacher, the three concerns raised by Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) are addressed. The interdependency between teachers and the principal is considered as are contextual variables. By studying the interrelationship of these three variables, it was believed this study would lead to a better understanding of the process of leadership, and how principals can create a climate and culture of excellence in a school.

SUMMARY

The main purpose of this study was to examine teacher perceptions of the relationships among principal vision, the environmental robustness of schools, and teacher work autonomy. The context was the high school. Chapter II provides a review of leadership literature, including research on the principal as instructional leader and a review of the literature pertaining to principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy. Chapter III describes data collection and analyses including descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, and inferential statistics. This chapter concludes with the definition of terms and limitations of the study.

Chapter IV presents the results of the data analysis. A summary of descriptive statistics for the instruments and

instrument subscales is depicted and relevant analysis related to the research hypotheses are presented using the results of various correlations among the variables. Chapter V summarizes the study and offers conclusions and recommendations for policy and practice as well as future research. Specific suggestions are offered to guide subsequent explorations of these variables and their bearing on principal and school effectiveness.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

OVERVIEW

The literature review in this chapter is divided into the following categories: an overview of leadership literature; a review of the principal as instructional leader literature; and a review of the literature pertaining to principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy.

THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP

The study of leadership has been approached from many different avenues. Yukl (1981) and Spotts (1976) among others have synthesized the research and literature on leadership and have found that virtually all research on leadership can be classified into one of four approaches: (a) power-influence approach, (b) trait approach, (c) behavior approach, and (d) situational approach (Yukl, 1981, p. 7).

The power-influence approach explains leadership effectiveness in terms of the source and amount of power available

to leaders and the manner in which leaders exercise power over followers. Theory development and research in this approach focuses on the importance of reciprocal influences and exchange relationships between leaders and followers. This approach is based on the belief that not only do leaders have influence over followers, but followers also have some influence over leaders (Yukl, 1981, p. 10).

The trait approach emphasizes the personal qualities of leaders. This is one of the earliest theories in the study of leadership. Underlying this approach is the assumption that some persons are born with certain traits essential for leadership. Traits considered relevant to this assumption include: "intelligence, alertness to the needs of others, understanding of the task, initiative and persistence in dealing with problems, self-confidence, and desire to accept responsibility and occupy a position of dominance and control" (Yukl, 1981, p. 68).

The behavioral approach emphasizes what leaders do and how they behave. Researchers using this approach tend to describe the actions of leaders in terms of activity patterns, managerial roles, or behavior categories. Most behavioral research has attempted to identify differences in behavior patterns between effective and ineffective leaders (Yukl, 1981, p. 92).

The situational approach emphasizes the importance of situational factors effecting leadership. One of the variations of the situational approach identifies aspects of the situation that determine which traits, skills, and behaviors are required for a

leaders to be effective in a given situation. Yukl (1981, p. 132) notes that situational theories are referred to as contingency theories because a leader's effects on subordinates are hypothesized to be contingent on particular situational variables.

While each of these theories or approaches has value in understanding effective leadership in the schools, they also can be found inadequate. Murphy, Hallinger, and Mitman (1983) find some educational leadership research, focused on traits and behaviors, to be very lacking. They note, for example, that to consider leadership as:

simply the amalgamation of important personal qualities such as confidence, strength, and assertiveness is not only marginally helpful in trying to identify the behaviors that constitute effective leadership, but it is also inaccurate. (p. 300)

In The Human Side of Enterprise, McGregor (1960) reviewed the research and literature on leadership, including the work of Gibb (1954). He found leadership to be far more complex than to identify it as the exclusive property of an individual leader. He identified four variables involved in leadership. These include: (a) the characteristics of the leader; (b) the attitudes, needs, and other personal characteristics of the followers; (c) characteristics of the organization, such as its purpose, structure, and nature of tasks to be performed; and (d) the social, economic, and political milieu. The personal performance of the leader and his/her effectiveness to lead will vary depending on the relationships among these factors (McGregor, 1976).

Etzioni (1965) describes the complexity and multifaceted nature of leadership in his definition of leadership as:

the ability, based on the personal qualities of the leader, to elicit the followers' voluntary compliance in a broad range of matters. Leadership is distinguished from the concept of power in that it entails influence, i.e. change of preferences, while power implies only that subject's preferences are held in abeyance. (pp. 690-691)

Emergent perspectives, such as the symbolic and cultural dimensions of leadership, describe the importance of vision to the mission and daily operation of the organization. These perspectives do not fit neatly into the power-influence, trait, behavior, or situational frameworks. With limited exceptions in the situational framework, these frameworks also do not consider contextual variables within the organization. If schools are indeed structurally loose and culturally tight organizations as Weick (1982) has posited, these four frameworks do little to help us understand the role, context, or significance of managing symbols or interpreting organizational culture.

In their review of research on leadership, Murphy, Hallinger and Mitman (1983) found that the most powerful models of leadership tend to view leadership within an action context. They note that evidence is mounting that school level leadership behavior will need to vary according to "the complexity of instruction and curriculum, the degree of staff interdependence, and the turbulence of the school's environment" (p. 300).

In his classic book Leadership, Burns (1978) describes the rich literature on leadership and rulership which has flourished for centuries. In the twentieth century, however, the concept of leadership:

has dissolved into small and discrete meanings. A recent study turned up 130 definitions of the word. A super-abundance of facts about leaders far outrun theories of leadership. . . There is, in short, no school of leadership, intellectual or practical. (p. 2)

According to Burns, we lack standards for assessing past, present and potential leaders. There has been no consensus about the meaning of the concept of leadership. Burns offers a theory of leadership that explores the dimensions of power, influence, and leadership and their relationship with each other.

Burns (1978) identified two basic types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership describes the relations of most leaders and followers. Leaders assume a superior-subordinate relationship. In this type of leadership, leaders "approach followers with an eye to exchanging one thing for another" (p. 4). The existing needs or demands of potential followers are recognized and exploited by leaders.

Transformational leadership goes further in looking for potential motives in followers. It seeks to satisfy higher needs and engage the full person of the follower. It focuses on higher-order, intrinsic, and moral motives and needs. Transforming leadership unites leaders and followers in pursuit of common goals and a common vision. "Such leadership occurs when one or more persons

engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (Burns, 1978, p. 20). Transforming leadership is concerned with leader responsiveness to the higher-order psychological needs for esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization of followers and, with moral questions of goodness, righteousness, duty, and obligation.

Etzioni (1988) expands on the moral dimension as a basis for leadership. Leaders and followers are motivated far more by morality, emotion, and social bonds than extrinsic and intrinsic sources. What counts for most people is what people believe, how they feel, and the shared norms and cultural messages that emerge from groups and communities with which they identify.

Greenleaf (1977) develops a complementary concept of leadership based on the moral principle of servanthood. He contends that the only authority deserving allegiance by the follower is that which is freely and knowingly granted to the leader by the led in response and proportion to the clearly evident servant stature of the leader. The relationship of leader to follower is the key. Truly effective leaders are seen, proven, and trusted as servants. They are committed to making sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. The key question, according to Greenleaf is: "Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?" (p. 14). Murphy (1988) develops the servant concept of leadership as it

pertains to the school principal in his essay "The Unheroic Side of Leadership, Notes from the Swamp."

Cuban (1988) describes leadership within the context of the organization as "people who bend the motivation and actions of others to achieve certain goals; it implies taking initiatives and risks" (p. 193). He synthesizes the work of Barnard (1938, 1968), Selznick (1957), and Burns (1978), in arguing that the following must be accomplished by those who would act as organizational leaders. They must:

- 1) Imagine what the organization can become; define a mission and set goals that embody that vision.
- 2) Motivate and harness followers energies toward achieving goals.
- 3) Link the mission to organizational routines.
- 4) Promote and protect certain values that give an organization a distinctive character.
- 5) Produce desired outcomes. (p. 193)

These are the qualities of a transformational leader. They embody the qualities of an effective organizational leader as well as an effective instructional leader. Stated another way by Cronin (1984):

The transforming or transcending leader is the person who so engages with followers as to bring them to a heightened political and social consciousness and activity, and in the process converts many of those followers into leaders in their own right. The transforming leader, with a focus on the higher aspirations and longer range, is also a teacher, mentor and educator - pointing out the possibilities and the hopes and the often only dimly understood dreams of the people - and getting them to undertake the preparation and the job needed to attain these goals. (pp. 27-28)

The broad framework for this study can be found in the leadership literature. More specifically, instructional leadership in secondary schools, as described in this study, is influenced by contemporary models of leadership such as the transformative model of Burns (1978). It addresses the interdependence of leaders and followers and considers the contextual variables within the organization. The three variables studied in this project, principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy do not stand alone but are embedded in the leadership discussion.

The next section reviews selected literature on instructional leadership within the framework of the effective schools literature. The review analyzes the leadership and management roles of the principal in affecting change and the importance of these roles in creating an effective school.

THE PRINCIPAL AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The effective schools literature has thrust the principal into the center of change and has associated instructional leadership with effective principals and effective schools (Dwyer, Barnett, & Lee, 1987). Ron Edmonds (1979), the father of the effective schools movement, for example, has asserted:

One of the most tangible and indispensable characteristics of effective schools is strong administrative leadership, without which the disparate elements of good schooling can neither be brought together nor kept together. (p. 32)

The effective schools literature describes the principal as the most significant actor in the school in terms of influencing the working climate and creating change. Studies of school effectiveness by Brookover and Lezotte (1979), Edmonds (1979), Rutter et al. (1979), and others have been guided by this concept. They have identified "the principal as instructional leader" as one of the critical factors in creating and maintaining effective schools. Effective schools research has established correlations between principal instructional leadership behaviors and school outcomes, most predominantly student achievement (Heck, 1990). The principal is central to the overall quality of a school regardless of the size, socioeconomic status of families served, ethnic backgrounds of students, or funding levels (McCleary, 1983).

Ironically, while many effective schools researchers argued the foregoing position, other researchers built a convincing case that principals were not potent instructional leaders in schools. Goldhammer (1971) found that principals themselves complained their power and autonomy as school leaders had decreased and they made fewer decisions regarding instruction at the school level. A study by Martin and Willower (1981) likened the principal's work to private-sector management. This study noted that principals' work is characterized by "variety, brevity, and fragmentation" (p. 79) and that most of the principals' activities involve "purely verbal elements." It asserted that because the principal is continually moving from one crisis or mundane daily task to another, he or she has little time to impact school wide

planning and instructional improvement processes, the performance of teachers, the effectiveness of the curriculum, or the achievement of students. These researchers concluded that the principal's role as an instructional leader is relatively minor. As Martin and Willower reported:

Perhaps the most widely heralded role of the principal is that of instructional leader, which conjures up images of a task routine dominated by the generation of innovative curricula and novel teaching strategies. The principals in this study spent 17.4% of their time on instructional matters. . . the majority of the routine education of youngsters that occurred in the schools was clearly the province of the teaching staff. (p. 83)

Yet, a significant pool of literature, research, and experience lends credence to the belief that principals can be key agents in the creation of successful school settings and that their potency lies within that previously "undifferentiated jumble" of principal behaviors. Heck (1990) found there are specific school factors in the domains of school governance, instructional organization, and school climate that a principal can manipulate to affect school student achievement. Dwyer, Barnett, and Lee (1987), in their research, found instructional leadership in schools accrues from the repetition of routine acts performed in accord with principals' overarching perspectives of schooling.

Louis and Miles (1990) determined there are three action motifs which are especially important for successful leaders in motivating school staffs to engage in significant change. These are:

articulating a vision, getting staff to believe the vision reflects their own interests, and the use of evolutionary planning strategies.

In his analysis of the research on instructional leadership, Rutherford (1985 p. 32) elaborates on five essential qualities of effective principals which have been clearly and consistently identified in the literature. According to the research, effective principals: (a) have clear, informed visions of what they want their schools to become (based on the needs of students); (b) translate these visions into goals and expectations for all in the school community; (c) establish a school climate that supports progress towards achieving these goals and expectations; (d) continuously monitor the progress; and (e) intervene in a supportive or corrective manner when necessary.

As we approach the 21st century, these qualities correspond favorably with emerging conceptions of the principal as instructional leader. Examples include the principal as a leader of leaders, and the principal as a "cultural leader" who uses power to achieve organizational needs rather than to control people. The underpinnings of leaders will very likely include democracy, group authority, accountability, variability, generality, interactivity, individual and collective self discipline and control, and group commitment and consensus (Lieberman & Miller, 1990). In the effective schools, reform, and restructuring literatures, the schools of the future reflect standards which include: having a shared vision, relying on participatory decision making, and focusing on outcomes. New metaphors are emerging such as: student as

worker, teacher as leader, and principal as leader of leaders (Schlechty, 1990).

Effective principals are seen as educational leaders, vision articulators, and change agents. They have a significant impact on the effectiveness of teachers and instructional programs. They are willing to establish an authentic inclusion of teachers in school wide decision making and share their power. Effective principals are those who lead schools as opposed to those inclined to exclusively manage schools.

Greenfield (1986) distinguishes between leading and managing.

Leading a school involves getting teachers and others to do things differently so that teaching improves and instructional programs are more effective. Managing a school involves keeping the school operation running smoothly and, in general, maintaining organizational stability; keeping the ship afloat and on an even keel. (p. 108)

Bennis and Nanus (1985) in their best seller Leaders, Strategies for Taking Charge clearly distinguished managing from leading. To manage means to:

bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct. . . [To lead is to] influence, guide in direction, course, action, and opinion. . . Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing. (p. 21)

Bennis and Nanus (1985) summarize the difference as activities of "vision and judgment--effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines--efficiency" (p. 21). Leaders are concerned with

organizational purposes and direction and are vision oriented. They do not spend all of their time on the proverbial "nuts and bolts," but on doing the right thing (p. 23).

Zenger (1985) expands on the distinction between leadership and management noting that people want to be led not managed. Leadership is the quality which "generates an emotional connection between the leader and the led. Leadership attracts people and inspires them to put forth incredible efforts in a common cause" (p. 44).

In educational parlance, there has been mounting criticism of the alleged dichotomy between management and leadership.

Murphy, Hallinger, and Mitman (1983) argue that:

At best, the role of management in much of the new educational leadership is undervalued. At worst, leadership and management are viewed as two ends of a continuum with 'true leadership' occupying the good and wholesome end and 'mere management' activities clustered at the negative and tainted end of the continuum. (p. 299)

Direct observation as well as previous research studies reveal that principals often are involved in a hectic pattern of activities, many of which are unpredictable and spontaneous. Principals are primarily engaged in solving problems which, considered individually, seem relatively trivial. However, the cumulative effects of these seemingly trivial decisions serve to move the school in the direction valued by the system, community, staff, and principal (Leithwood, 1989).

Through recent analyses of school principalships, a more encompassing and integrated concept of the principal as instructional leader has emerged. Several of the current writers (Bartell, 1990; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee 1982; Dwyer, Rowan, & Bossert, 1983; Dwyer, Barnett, & Lee, 1987; Greenfield, 1987b; Leithwood, 1989; Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelly, & McCleary 1990; and Sergiovanni, 1987a) affirm the principals' use of routine activities to directly influence and shape the content and nature of instruction at a school as well as the climate in which teaching and learning take place. Instructional leaders are able to effectively integrate the repetitive daily routines and mundane tasks while maintaining their over-arching beliefs about schooling and learning (Dwyer et al., 1983).

A contemporary view contrasts management and leadership not as two opposing ends of the spectrum but as "highly interconnected and mutually reinforcing activities that, in tandem, can move resources toward achieving organizational goals to a far greater extent than could either one, if functioning separately" (Murphy, Hallinger, & Mitman, 1983, p. 300).

Viewing school structures as loosely coupled, Weick (1982) has stated that effective school principals need to pay specific attention to their school's culture and the symbols which comprise that culture.

People need to be part of sensible projects. Their action becomes richer, more confident, and more satisfying when it is linked with important underlying themes, values and movements. . . administrators must be attentive to the

'glue' that holds loosely coupled systems together because such forms are just barely systems. (p. 675)

Weick goes on to say:

The administrator who manages symbols does not just sit in his or her office mouthing clever slogans. Eloquence must be disseminated. And since channels are unpredictable, administrators must get out of the office and spends lots of time one on one--both to remind people of central visions and to assist them in applying these visions to their own activities. The administrator teaches people to interpret what they are doing in common language. (p. 676)

Drawing upon the effective schools literature, Sergiovanni (1984) speculates that schools are both tightly coupled and loosely coupled, an observation about organizations in general as noted in Peters and Waterman's (1982) In Search of Excellence. In excellent schools there exists a strong culture and clear sense of purpose (tight coupling) which defines the general thrust and nature and life for all the players. At the same time, a great deal of freedom is given to teachers and others as to how these essential core values are to be honored and realized (loose coupling). This combination of tight connections around clear and explicit themes, which represent the core of the school's culture, and autonomy for people to pursue these themes in ways that make sense to them, may well be key reasons for their success (Sergiovanni, 1984).

If principals are to act as instructional leaders, their responsibilities must go far beyond just monitoring and evaluating didactic interactions between teachers and students. "The principal is the vital actor in the school setting who can bridge context and school, policy and program, means and ends" (Dwyer, Barnett, &

Lee, 1987, p. 45). The principal has the greatest access to the wishes and needs of teachers, students, district leaders, and parents and community members. With experience and training, the principal can formulate an image of schooling that is relevant and responsive to these groups and begin to bring that image into being (Dwyer, Barnett, & Lee, 1987).

The effective schools literature asserts that the principal is the key to creating an effective school. Yet the principal can lead, facilitate, cajole, or intimidate all he or she wants. It is the teacher in the classroom who ultimately responds to the children. Lightfoot (1983) in her intensive study of six diverse but reportedly good high schools contends:

In all of these schools, therefore, teachers are seen as the central actors in the education process. Their satisfaction is critical to the tone and smooth functioning of the school. Their nurturance is critical to the nurturance of students. Each school interprets teacher rewards differently, but all of them search for a balance between the expression of teacher autonomy, initiative, and adulthood on the one hand, and the requirements of conformity, discipline, and commitments to school life on the other. (p. 341)

As Lightfoot (1983) asserts, the teacher and his or her sense of worth, satisfaction, esteem, and autonomy are powerful forces as are the climate forces which relate to school life.

The nature of the school setting is such that teachers obviously need challenging tasks and the autonomy to carry them out. They also at various times need support, coaching, assistance, and direction. The challenge for the instructional leader is to avoid

bureaucratic abuses and exercise control in such a way as to gain the support of teachers and tap their expertise, energy, and enthusiasm (Sergiovanni 1987b).

The Dwyer et al. (1983) study of five principals reputed to be instructional leaders provides a comprehensive portrayal of the complex issues involving leadership in schools. The researchers found that although the leadership behaviors of individual principals varied in style, they were surprisingly similar in the nature of their activities. All principals had well-established routines that involved them in the daily instructional concerns of their schools. They had working theories of instruction by which they interpreted and guided their daily management activities. They reflected on their experiences and made their conclusions part of their usual approach to instructional leadership. They also considered school climate an important factor in improving instruction and learning.

Current literature on instructional leadership attributes to the school principal the singularly most significant role in influencing the working climate of schools and creating change. Scott Thompson (1980), former Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals goes so far as to describe "a positive school climate as perhaps the single most important expression of educational leadership" (p. 11). Effective principals are defined as instructional leaders not by a "tallying of the tasks they perform, or even by the number of hours and minutes they spend in the classrooms, but by their commitment and values" (Bartell, 1990,

p. 127). It is theorized that they lead through developing and articulating a shared vision and translating that vision into action. They also lead through effectively managing the routine and mundane activities of school life. They are goal driven but are also attentive to the necessary details of daily management (Dwyer et al., 1983).

Instructional leaders create an environment where teachers have a significant amount of freedom and autonomy in determining how to best realize the vision. These factors are believed essential to their influencing and shaping the culture and climate in which teaching and learning transpire.

However, much of the discussion of instructional leadership has been either prescriptive or limited to identifying observable characteristics and behaviors. As Murphy, Hallinger and Mitman (1983) note, existing studies of educational leadership "provide little information about causal relationships" (p. 298). Blumberg and Greenfield (1980, 1986), and Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) have begun to theorize about the integral and causal relationships among leadership and school effectiveness variables and their relationship to instructional leadership.

The next section reviews literature on principal vision and its relationship to instructional leadership. As one of several variables theorized to be associated with effective leadership, vision is considered from the perspectives of the leader and follower.

PRINCIPAL VISION: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The concept of vision is as rooted in antiquity as it is in contemporary dialogue. Over a thousand years before the birth of Christ, King Solomon prophesied: "Without a vision, the people will perish" (Proverbs 29:18). From prophets to presidents, vision is on the lips of the people. President Bush talks of "that vision thing." In the 1990 hit movie Dick Tracy (Beatty, Producer), gangster Big Boy Caprice, when challenged why he should be the mob boss of the city responds: "Because I have a vision. A big boss must have a vision." From sacred to secular, from ancient manuscript to American comic strip, from faith to farce, the concept of vision is experiencing a new birth as an essential component of our leadership genre.

Over and over again, the concept of vision is reflected in current literature about effective, successful, and outstanding principals. While the leadership literature prior to the 1980s contained few references to vision, today's literature is replete with calls for vision on the part of leaders. In their standard educational administration text on the principalship, Lippman and Hoeh (1974) made no reference to vision. Current best selling authors Bennis and Nanus (1985), Burns (1978), Kanter (1983) Peters (1987), and Vaill (1984) (writing for the corporate sector) and Barth (1990), Blumberg and Greenfield (1986), Greenfield (1987a), Sergiovanni (1984), Ubben and Hughes (1987) (writing from an educational

perspective), have all addressed the theme of leadership and vision. Two of the earliest educators to suggest the relevance of this idea for school principals were Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) in their book The Effective Principal. They concluded, in their study of effective principals, ". . .their success in approaching realization of these goals seems related to . . . their individual commitment to the realization of a particular educational or organizational vision" (p. 208).

A 1985 Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development videotape, entitled "The Effective Principal," lists having a vision as one of five essential features of effective school leaders. Robert Cole, in his editorial in the September 1985 issue of *Kappan* defines leadership as "articulating a vision" Block (1987) describes the interdependent relationship between the concepts of vision and hope. "A vision statement [he writes,] is an expression of hope, and if we have no hope, it is hard to create a vision" (p. 107).

Throughout history, leaders have emerged not only with a vision of what they thought ought to be, but also with the ability to move others to make personal sacrifices toward it's realization. Historians and journalists have described such leadership with mixed reviews. Writers such as Burns (1978), Katz and Kahn (1978), and Peters and Waterman (1982) argue that leadership is the major determinant of organizational effectiveness. Others express doubts that leaders have any substantial influence on the performance of organizations, attributing organizational effectiveness to economic, market, governmental, and technological

conditions (Pfeffer 1978). While the literature suggests some caution in advancing this dimension of leadership as a means toward improving organizations, contemporary calls for leaders with vision are legion.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) asked more than 7,500 managers nationwide from private and public organizations to describe what they look for or admire in their leaders. Over half of the respondents selected "forward-looking" as one of the most sought after leadership qualities. It is clear that people expect leaders to have a sense of direction and concern for the future of the organization. Some of the respondents used the word "vision." Others used the word "dream," "purposing," or "personal agenda." In a 1989 study by one executive search firm, Korn-Ferry International, a bilingual survey was taken of 1,500 senior executives in twenty countries. The characteristic most frequently described as important for the year 2000 was that a leader "convey a strong sense of vision." Seventy five percent said it was important today and 98% said it would be important in the year 2000 (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Successful leaders practice leadership by creating purpose or vision. Vaill (1984) defines purposing as "that continuous stream of actions by an organization's formal leadership which has the effects of inducing clarity, consensus, and commitment regarding the organization's basic purposes" (p. 91). Bennis (1984) defines purposing as a "compelling vision of a desired state of affairs . . .

which clarifies the current situation and induces commitment to the future" (p. 66).

Sergiovanni (1987b) describes purposing as a powerful force because of peoples' need for some sense of what is important and some signal of what is of value. This force is particularly important within the context of work. While many experts indicate that teachers, working independently, can make sense of their work lives and derive satisfaction, they agree that meaning, significance, and satisfaction would be considerably enhanced if this process were shared and made more public (Lieberman & Miller, 1984; Lortie, 1975; and Sergiovanni, 1987b).

Murphy (1988) in describing conventional wisdom, portrays the "heroic" principal as one who possess a clear personal vision. For that principal, a sense of purpose is central to success, and "center-stage leaders define it for their organizations" (p. 654). School leaders must, however, respond to varied and competing situations, and problems which are typically very complex and ambiguous. The ability to define and resolve them often requires the knowledge and participation of more than a visionary leader. Murphy acknowledges that this heroic image ignores the invisible leadership of other staff members throughout effective organizations. The effective principal has an "unheroic" side as well. One of the elements of unheroic leadership is developing a shared vision through dialogue and collaborative effort with people throughout the organization.

When shared vision, meaning and significance are present, people respond to work with increased motivation and commitment. The leader's behavioral style is not as important as what the leader stands for and communicates to others. The object of creating a vision or a purpose is the stirring of human consciousness, the enhancement of meaning, the spelling out of key cultural strands that provide both excitement and significance to work (Sergiovanni 1987b). Mauriel (1989) describes an effective vision as one that represents important personal values and speaks to the heart. It should excite people and motivate them to act on behalf of, provide support for, and feel proud to belong to an organization.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) affirm the interdependence of leadership and vision. They write that leaders cannot succeed without a clear notion of where they are going:

The absence or ineffectiveness of leadership implies the absence of vision, a dreamless society, and this will result, at best, in the maintenance of the status quo or, at worst, in the disintegration of our society because of lack of purpose and cohesion. (p. 228)

Block (1987) provides a powerful understanding of vision as supplying a driving force for change and exposing the desired future. Visions "signify our disappointment with what exists now" (p. 105). By articulating a vision for the future, the leader opens himself or herself to potential conflict with visions of other people. The effective leader is aware of and able to respond to others' needs and hopes while acting in a way that is congruent with that vision.

In a recent follow-up of their earlier study (1980) of school principals "who make a difference," Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) described these principals as having the ability to advance a vision of what their school can and ought to be and the initiative and resourcefulness to bring that vision about. Sergiovanni (1984) maintains that the principal's key functions in effective schools are: creating a vision, establishing goal consensus among staff, and developing a sense of institutional identity.

Farrar, in her 1987 case study research, identified five characteristics of leadership in secondary schools that appeared to be particularly important in schools trying to implement improvement programs. The first two of these are: (a) the ability to articulate a philosophy for the school and a vision of what the school should be like; (b) the ability to convince others to work for that vision.

Barth (1988a) describes a personal vision for a school as not only having the dream but being able to translate it into action. The vision may be singularly the principal's or it may be developed with others but it does provide a road map, sense of focus, and purpose. A personal vision is one's overall conception of what the educator wants the organization to stand for; what its primary mission is; what its core values are; a sense of how the parts fit together, and above all, how the vision maker fits into the grand plan (Barth, 1990).

Effective principals tend to define a vision or overarching goals for the school and seek teacher input in the implementation of

policies and plans related to the vision. They see a key component of their roles as reducing goal and vision ambiguity and confusion related to translating the vision into action (Blase, 1987).

Vision is operationally defined by Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) as: "The capacity to see the discrepancy between how things are and how they might be and the need to compel others to act on these imagined possibilities" (p. 3).

Greenfield (1987a) suggests principal vision implies two major ideas which serve as cornerstones of instructional leadership. The first is the ability to exercise moral imagination which underlines one's capacity to develop a compelling vision of what is desirable and possible in making a school more effective; i.e. improved instructional practices or organizational arrangements. Greenfield (1987a), describes this imagination as moral because it is the application of some standard of goodness that illuminates the discrepancy between the present and what is possible, and better" (p. 62). It is imagination because it is:

the ability to see the discrepancy between how things are and how they might be--not in terms of the ideal, but in terms of what is possible, given a particular school situation. This is the element of 'imagined' possibility. (p. 61)

Vision results from the exercise of moral imagination.

The second major idea presented by Greenfield (1987a) refers to interpersonal competence which he describes as "the ability to elicit desired task responses from another. It refers to the knowledge and skills needed to influence teachers and others in desired directions" (p. 64). An effective principal exhibits

interpersonal competence by demonstrating a high level of understanding not only of the work of teachers, but "the viewpoints teachers hold of themselves, their students and colleagues, and their work" (p. 64).

Greenfield (1987a) notes that neither the exercise of moral imagination nor interpersonal competence occur in a contextual vacuum. The leader must be aware of and sensitive to characteristics of a given school including students, staff, school district, and community. Accordingly, the leader must have a vision of what is desirable and possible within the greater context of the school and then be able to mobilize others to work to achieve those possibilities.

The School Vision Inventory {SVI} used in this study reflects Blumberg and Greenfield's (1986) description of the performance of a principal in advancing a school vision. The effectiveness of leaders is assessed based upon his or her ability to successfully engage in three critical elements. These are: "(1) persuading others to accept and share a vision; (2) exchanging ideas about the vision with others, and; (3) motivating others to act and even make sacrifices towards this vision" (Greenfield, Licata, & Johnson, 1989, p. 2).

A pilot study featuring the SVI instrument was conducted in 1988. From that pilot involving 57 elementary schools and over 1,000 teachers, the three vision subscales were identified. The SVI instrument was developed, in part, to allow the principal to compare the "vision" perception from three diverse perspectives.

These perspectives are: (a) teachers at his/her school; (b) the principal's perceptions of teachers at his/her school; and (c) perceptions of teachers at other schools. Its utility lies in its ability to help identify the principal's success in creating and sharing a vision for the school with the faculty. It also offers insight into the motivational intensity of the faculty in pursuing this vision (Greenfield, Licata, & Johnson, 1989).

In their review of the vision literature, LeSourd and Grady (1990) have distinguished visionary principals from non-visionary principals. Visionary principals are highly motivated by their personal convictions, committed to achieving goals in the school, value a prominent shared school philosophy, believe in the importance of innovation, and have an image of a better school in the future (p. 105).

By contrast, non-visionary principals are more concerned with stability than with change. Their descriptions of their leadership style focus on maintaining daily order in the school (Bredeson, 1985). They emphasize responsibility for ongoing school operations and management functions rather than motivation which leads to visualizing the future or achieving long range purposes (LeSourd & Grady, 1990).

In a broad sense, vision is the principal's ability to holistically view the present, reinterpret the mission of the school to all its constituents, and use imagination and perceptual skills to think beyond accepted notions of what is practical or immediate. Vision

relates to translating speculative ideas and the future to today's world (Bredeson, 1985).

Barth (1990) states, "visions of school people are the prescriptions for school reform that have the best chance to be taken seriously, enacted, and sustained by teachers and principals" (p. 150). People buy into an idea that they may not know much about because they care about the underlying values. But an idea does not become real until they start doing something (Lieberman & Miller, 1990).

Blumberg and Greenfield (1986, pp. 184-185) identified three needs associated with principals who are effective leaders. First, principals who would lead have a high need to take charge of a situation rather than be manipulated by the situation itself or by others. Second, they have a high need to involve those who are impacted in the decision making process. Third, they tend to express friendliness, warmth and good-natured fellowship toward others and receive it as well.

While it is very difficult to carry out leadership roles and still address the daily routine activities associated with the principalship, there are those principals who have merged the managerial and instructional roles as they envision what a school might be. Cuban (1988) notes:

When visions are wedded to principals' beliefs and values, the political role comes into full play. Such principals transform their views of what can be into the mundane business of making a school work each day. When the

principal's mission, however, is simply to maintain existing organizational patterns, the political role shrinks to reducing any static that might yield conflict. (p. 84)

Principals with vision have concern for maintaining and stabilizing the organization. Their vision for that school and its students, however, goes far beyond the bureaucratic or management aspects of the job. In fact, at the heart of any restructuring effort is the creation of a new vision for the school that includes a whole new way for teachers and principals to work together. In conventional schools, principals stand in the middle of a bureaucratic chain, and teachers carry out an agenda mandated from above. In effective schools, by contrast, both principals and teachers function as leaders and decision makers as they attempt to bring about fundamental changes (Lieberman & Miller, 1990).

In developing a collective vision for their school, principals studied by Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) indicated there were several barriers which impacted their work. Perceived inhibitors included: feelings of isolation associated with turning their attention inward to the school; tensions generated by being continually forced to respond to the varied and immediate demands made on the principal by teachers, students, parents, and the district itself; uneasiness about the school's vague goals and the public vulnerability with major change; and stress produced by teacher and principal values emphasizing the smooth running of the school and professional teacher autonomy.

Cuban's (1988) work complements that of Blumberg and Greenfield, and provides a helpful perspective on vision. He notes

that not all visions are equal. "What makes some better or worse depends on a number of criteria which can be applied to pictures of the future" (p. 276). His criteria by which he judges visions of leaders includes:

- clarity: is the vision understood by followers?
- fit: does the vision fit followers' aspirations?
- history: is the vision consistent with or depart from the history of the organization?
- flexibility: can the vision expand, shrink, or be modified by followers?
- moral principles: is the vision anchored in a set of ethical values. (p. 276)

The extent to which visions are embraced or not embraced depends on the participant's accepting the values implicit in the vision. Cuban (1988) states that visions are declarations of moral intentions.

Hall, Rutherford, Hord, and Huling (1984) conducted a series of three studies to explore and describe the way principals work. They identified three change facilitator styles which they operationally described as initiator, manager, and responder.

Initiators have clear, decisive long-range policies and goals that transcend but include implementation of current innovations. They tend to have very strong beliefs about what good schools and teaching should be like and work intensely to attain this vision. (p. 23)

Initiators are change agents who are willing to move teachers to participate in the change. Managers are responsive to situations

and people but do not initiate change beyond the basics of what is imposed. Responders see their primary role as maintaining and running a smooth school. Their focus is on traditional administrative tasks. They view teachers as strong professionals able to carry out instruction with little guidance, and thus give them wide latitude in terms of autonomy.

In their studies, Hall et al. (1984) found a greater degree of quality and quantity change in schools administered by principals with initiator styles. Teachers, however are more satisfied with manager style principals who protect them and strive to keep everything running smoothly. Initiator style principals listen to their teachers but have high expectations and keep pushing. The constant pressure is not as well liked. Their study raises some of the dilemmas considered in this study. Of the three styles, the initiator principal is the one who presents a vision and calls for commitment to it. He or she is best equipped to facilitate change. Yet it is that very change that is often resisted as threatening by teachers.

Vision is more than just dreaming or speculating. It requires action on the part of both the visionary and the recipient of the vision. Sheive and Schoenheit (1987), in a study of 12 educational leaders who were reputed for changing their organizations in positive ways, identified five themes which "actualize the vision." These are valuing or seeing the vision, reflecting or owning the vision, articulating or making the private vision a public one, planning or developing strategies, and action or mobilizing people.

Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) sum up the discussion of vision as it relates to instructional leadership. They write:

Vision, the capacity to exercise moral imagination, is the foundation upon which the moral authority of the principal rests. It is what enables the principal to lead a school well. While authority of position provides the principals with an institutionalized base for influence, this is not sufficient to lead a school; yet too often it appears to be the only basis used by principals, and thus many attempts to improve the school are resisted or aborted. Thus, in order to lead a school well, one must have a vision of what is desirable and possible in that school's context; one must be knowledgeable about and believe in the standards of good educational practice, which are the gift of a normative community of educators extending through history. Finally, one must have the ability to communicate those possibilities to others to move others to action to realize those possibilities. (p. 228)

Visions serve very important functions in effective schools. When shared by others who are willing to work and sacrifice for them, a vision can serve as a mobilizing, energizing foci for the difficult work of change, can help to create coherence out of diversity, and can provide a sense of worthwhileness (Louis & Miles, 1990). On the other hand, a vision is of limited value if it is created in isolation and does not lead to action. If the principal desires some sense of realization of his or her vision in the school, the vision must be articulated to others. But articulation is not enough. The principal must be able to work with and through others, particularly the staff, to develop a shared vision for the school. The principal's interpersonal competence is essential to motivating others to act on the vision to maximize its likelihood of realization (Greenfield, Licata, & Johnson, 1989).

The next section reviews the literature on environmental robustness. As a climate variable theorized to be associated with the principal's orientation, the environmental robustness concept has potential as a variable mediating school effectiveness.

ENVIRONMENTAL ROBUSTNESS: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A key element in the effective schools literature is the concept of school climate. Rutter et al. (1979), Brookover (1979), Edmonds, (1979), Little (1982), Rossman, Corbett, and Firestone (1988), and Levine and Lezotte (1989), have studied school climate and culture in relationship to student achievement. Tagluri (1968) defined climate and atmosphere as concepts dealing with the total environmental quality within an organization. Wilson (1971) defined culture as "socially shared and transmitted knowledge of what is, and what ought to be, symbolized in act and artifact."

Rutter et al. (1979), in a major study on effective high schools entitled 15,000 Hours, found that the style and quality of life at school had a relatively pervasive effect on children's behavior. Their study confirmed that schools develop their own rules, values, norms, and standards of behavior. Group influences tend to be quite powerful. Rossman, Corbett, and Firestone (1988) note that culture becomes defined as members react to, interpret, shape, and reinterpret the organization, its structure, processes, and events. The interplay of individual idiosyncrasy and collective meaning

expresses itself in patterns of norms, beliefs, and values called culture.

In summarizing the literature on school climate and culture, Hoy and Miskel (1986) defined climate as shared perceptions of behavior and culture as shared beliefs and assumptions in schools. Dwyer, Barnett, and Lee (1987) treat school climate as an observable and changeable characteristic of schools. For the outstanding principals they studied, climate encompassed both physical and social aspects of the school environment. Changing a school's climate could entail anything from painting walls to organizing how students lined up at recess. As one principal commented, "School climate starts at the curb." In general, effective principals perceive climate as a diverse set of properties that communicate to students that schools are pleasant but serious workplaces designed to help them achieve.

Licata and Willower (1975) first described environmental robustness as a component of school climate when they examined conflict between student and teacher subcultures in school organizations. They viewed the student and teacher antagonists as actors in a plot that could potentially create high drama and evoke considerable empathy within both students and teachers. They speculated that the impact of scenarios involving interscholastic sports competition, final examinations, or students' risking punishment for misconduct could be understood in terms of audience empathy for the actors and the perception of situational drama or environmental robustness (Licata & Wildes, 1980).

Environmental robustness as a theoretical construct was first understood in terms of this theatrical analogy and defined as the perceived "dramatic" content of certain school structures for a particular audience; i.e., teachers, students, parents, or administrators (Willower and Licata, 1975). In essence, they focused directly on these audience perceptions of school structures, similar to the perceptions and empathy experienced by an audience at a theatrical performance.

For many years, the drama in school life has been recognized by professionals in movies, the theater, and literature as well as in education. Children's Hour, To Sir With Love, Good-bye Mr. Chips, Teacher, Ferris Bueller's Day Off, Stand and Deliver, Lean on Me, and Dead Poet's Society are just a few examples of life in school organizations eventually portrayed on the stage or in motion pictures. While school life is often described as boring by students, visits to schools or recollections of personal school days may not substantiate this characterization. The metaphor of high drama may be quite descriptive of much of school life.

Metaphors provide helpful imagery in understanding the complexities of school life and organization. Bredeson (1985) describes the rich tapestry of metaphors as:

. . . useful linguistic structures that have helped theorists and practitioners generate ideas, concepts, models and theories for describing, examining, and understanding phenomena in education. Whether metaphors are verbalized openly, expressed symbolically, or hidden in the organizational structures of school and administrative behavior patterns, these images reveal a great deal about how

school principals interpret their organizational role, how they conceptualize schooling, and how they put their beliefs and values into practice. (p. 29)

In a world of chaos, ambiguity, and uncertainty, people search for order, predictability, and meaning. They create symbolic solutions to respond to the ambiguity and uncertainty.

Organizational structures and processes are transformed into theater with dramatic performances that promote cohesion inside organizations and bond organizations to their environment (Bolman & Deal, 1991).

Licata and Willower (1978) operationally define the dramatic perceptions for drama or environmental robustness by using ten adjective pairs; "interesting/boring, challenging/dull, active/passive, unusual/usual, powerful/weak, thrilling/quieting, important/unimportant, fresh/stale, meaningful/meaningless, and action-packed/uneventful." Adjectives which connote robustness are: "interesting, challenging, active, important, fresh, meaningful, action-packed, powerful, thrilling, and unusual." "Boring, dull, passive, quieting, stale, meaningless, usual, unimportant, weak, and uneventful" connote a relative lack of robustness. Audience response to a particular school concept is measured in terms of ratings of these 10 adjectives. The higher the score, the more robust the school or roles are perceived. Scores can range from a low of 10 to a high of 70 as measured by the Robustness Semantic Differential {RSD} (Licata & Wildes, 1980).

In early studies of high school students, significant positive correlations emerged between their perceptions of school

robustness and clearly defined goals in school classes, friendly relationships between students, a minimum of competition between students in school classes, positive student feelings about the diversity and nature of student interests, work, and friendships, student interests, and a minimum of student tension over favoritism, disorganization, and apathy. School robustness was positively associated with the frequency with which the principal attended and helped teachers supervise school activities (Licata, Willower, & Ellett, 1978).

Environmental robustness is important as a descriptor of school and classroom climate and social interaction. Licata and Wildes (1979) examined environmental robustness as perceived by students and teachers in six classrooms in a predominantly black rural secondary school in Georgia. Characteristics identified in highly robust classrooms include spontaneous student involvement in tasks; the teacher as a dynamic focal point for the class; informal classroom atmosphere; and teachers who tend to be humanistic, flexible, relaxed, and confident. The study suggests that as classroom robustness increases, classroom organization involves less formal rules and regulations. Other correlations include a pace of work which is comfortable for students, just and universal application of student privileges, subject matter well within the ability levels of students, student satisfaction about tasks, clear objectives for student work, and sufficient flexibility in structure to allow for cliqueness. These findings supported the central

hypothesis that environmental robustness is inversely related to organizational routinization.

Licata and Wildes (1980) used field observations to describe robustness in the classroom by identifying distinguishing features of high and low robust classrooms. Using the RSD as a measure of robustness, the researchers selected four high school classrooms as objects of examination. Two of the classes rated relatively high in robustness while two were rated low. Teachers whose classes were considered low in robustness tended to implement greater control oriented student management strategies than teachers of high robustness classes.

High robustness classrooms were characterized by spontaneous student involvement in tasks, two-way communication between teacher and students, and supportive or accepting teacher responses to student efforts. Low robustness classrooms, on the other hand, seemed to involve passive or coerced student involvement in tasks, one-way communication from teacher to students, and teacher supportive rather than student supportive teacher responses to student behavior. Furthermore, Licata and Wildes found that teachers in high robust classrooms tended to give higher grades than teachers in low robustness classrooms. Their field study confirmed their hypothesis stating that there is an inverse relationship between environmental robustness and classroom routinization.

Using teacher robustness perceptions as the basis of analysis, Ellett and Licata (1982) examined the relationship of these

perceptions to various dimensions of the teachers' work environment. From this study they determined that, from the point of view of teachers, the robust teacher role is one in which teachers have positive attitudes toward opportunities for professional performance and development and positive attitudes about the general educational effectiveness of their school. The robustness the teachers attributed to their principals is associated with positive teacher attitudes toward the quality of building level supervision, opportunities for professional growth and development, the educational effectiveness of their school, the quality of collegial relationships, and the school's programs and procedures for evaluating students.

Smedly and Willower (1981) explored the impact of the principal's pupil control behavior on environmental robustness as perceived by students. Using the building level as the unit of analysis, the authors predicted a direct relationship between principals' humanistic pupil control behavior and student reports of high levels of school robustness. A positive relationship was found.

Eisenhauer, Willower, and Licata (1985) examined the relationships of role conflict, role ambiguity, and job robustness among school principals. They conducted a random sample of 61 elementary principals and 68 secondary principals. Their findings support the proposition that job robustness for school principals is associated with low role ambiguity, low role conflict and with high support from those with whom principals work including the staff, colleagues, superintendent, and community.

Street and Licata (1988) sampled 57 southern elementary schools examining the relationships among teacher perceptions of supervisor expertise, teacher sense of autonomy, and school robustness. While they reported a positive correlation between teacher satisfaction with the supervision process and a positive sense of autonomy, there was no significant relationship between teacher autonomy and environmental robustness. There were, however, significant Pearson correlations between teacher satisfaction about their supervision and their perception of their principal's effectiveness in supervision with teacher perceptions of their principal's robustness.

Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) using the same data base as Street and Licata (1988), report a positive correlation between teacher perceptions of principal robustness and the effectiveness with which the principal articulates and implements a vision of what the school ought to be.

In their review of the research on environmental robustness, Licata and Johnson (1989) find significant support for the concept that environmental robustness is inversely related to organizational routinization. This concept has significance not only for the classroom but for the school organizational structures and for teacher-principal interactions as well.

Rutherford (1985) found the effective principal is more willing to take risks and "rock the boat" than is the less effective principal. The less effective principal creates a climate that is generally placid, nonthreatening, and places few demands on

teachers. The effective principal, who demonstrates a robust role, could be one who limits organizational routines that hamper teacher flexibility in making instructional decisions (Licata, Greenfield, & Teddlie, 1989). That principal might also be successful in confronting faculty to resolve the disparity between their present performance and a shared vision of what the school can and ought to be accomplishing.

Conversely, the robust principal or the principal who thrives in a robust environment, like the visionary, may threaten teacher security by not paying enough attention to the mundane routines and daily activities necessary for the successful ongoing operation of the school. It is believed that the effective principal understands this dichotomy and is careful to proceed sensitively so that the potential for tension and conflict does not become a destructive reality. Licata and Johnson (1989) speculate that:

Principals of robust schools may be successful in challenging faculty to resolve the disparity between their present performance and a shared vision of what the school should and ought to be. In accomplishing this, they are careful to organize with a light touch so that teacher flexibility, innovation, and improvisation prevail over rigid reliance on familiar routines. (p. 22)

In this vein, the next section reviews the literature on teacher sense of autonomy. The significance of autonomy as one of the higher order needs associated with individual self-fulfillment is discussed, as is the relationship between autonomy and the structure and bureaucracy of the organization.

TEACHER SENSE OF AUTONOMY: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Much of the literature on school effectiveness addresses the significance of the role of teacher as professional. Terms such as "site-based management," "teacher empowerment," and "teacher autonomy," are used to describe and define teacher professionalism. Balancing the tension between more control and more autonomy, more discretion and more coordination, more flexibility and more direction, more room for professional judgement and more ways of ensuring accountability, has long been a challenge for school leaders (Shedd & Bacharach, 1991). Given the strong autonomy norms within the profession, it always has been difficult for principals to influence and lead teachers.

Sense of work autonomy is operationally defined by Packard, Carlson, Charters, and Schmuck (1976) as the extent to which teachers view themselves as the legitimate classroom authorities and rightful holders of discretionary power over such matters as instructional processes, pupil control, motivation and evaluation.

The conceptualization of autonomy for this project comes from the work of Charters (1974) on Sense of Teacher Autonomy which was part of a larger report entitled Management Implications of Team Teaching (MITT) (Packard, Carlson, Charters, & Schmuck, 1976). Charters (1974) notes that public school teaching, unlike other occupations, has been regarded by some as providing a high degree of autonomy on a daily basis. Others, however, see teachers

as powerless pawns who pursue their daily activities constrained by bureaucratic rules and guidelines in which they had no input in making.

Porter (1961) reformulated Maslow's five level "Hierarchy-Of-Needs Theory" by including "autonomy" as a fourth level in the hierarchy. He identified the five needs as:

1. The need for security (the lowest in the hierarchy)
2. The need for affiliation
3. The need for self-esteem
4. The need for autonomy
5. The need for self-actualization (the highest need)

Autonomy refers to the individual's need to participate in making decisions that affect him or her, to exert influence in controlling the work situation, to have a voice in setting job-related goals, and to have authority to make decisions and latitude to work independently. Studies by Maslow (1970) and Porter (1961) are based upon the assumption that human behavior is goal-directed toward fulfilling unsatisfied needs. They found higher-order needs (self esteem, autonomy, and self actualization) to be more closely linked to job satisfaction and job performance than lower-order needs (security and affiliation).

Charters (1974) describes sense of autonomy as a psychological construct representing a teacher's beliefs about his/her freedom from external interference, pressure, or control in performing the work of classroom instruction. He conceptualizes the variable of teacher autonomy at both objective and subjective

levels. Objectively, autonomy connotes teacher power or discretion. Subjectively, autonomy refers to a phenomenological response of the individual to the present situation. A teacher with a high sense of autonomy uses his/her own personal judgement to guide instructional work with students. A low sense of autonomy implies that the teacher feels generally constrained in his/her activities by persons, rules, and regulations, or other conditions and forces outside of the immediate instructional setting and outside himself or herself. An external constraint on task performance is one which emanates from beyond the immediate instructional setting (Charters, 1974, p. 217). Examples of external constraints are district or state curriculum guides, and district, state, or nationally normed tests.

Charters' (1974) work was influenced by Blauner's (1964) study of alienation among manual laborers and craftsmen. For Blauner, the work setting was significant to the worker's feelings of freedom and control. Blauner discussed concepts such as freedom of movement, freedom to make choices, and freedom from oppressive constraints. Charters drew on Blauner's work and Lortie's (1969, 1973) analyses of teachers and teaching as principal sources for his work on teacher autonomy. He established seven domains which provided an extensional definition of teacher sense of autonomy. These domains became the construct for his "Sense of Autonomy Scale" used in this study. The first five domains are Blauner's while the last two are suggested by Lortie's writings:

1. Control over the pace of work. (Blauner considered this as the most important component because of its effect on the level of the worker's freedom in other components.) Do the teachers feel they can set the pace in their teaching, or do they feel the pace is established for them by the daily schedule or other conditions?

2. Freedom from the pressure of work. Do the teachers feel under pressure to cover material or keep ahead of the class, or do they feel they can carry out their teaching duties in a relaxed manner?

3. Freedom of physical movement. Do the teachers feel inexorably tied down to the classroom, or do they feel they can take time away from their teaching duties during the day?

4. Freedom to control the quality of one's work. Do the teachers feel they can take the time needed to work with individual students? Do they feel under constraint because of lack of time or other conditions in preparing for their teaching?

5. Freedom to choose the techniques of work. Do the teachers feel free to try their ideas in the classroom, to choose the teaching methods they will use, and use instructional materials of their own choice?

6. Freedom to determine the criteria and techniques for assessing student performance. Do the teachers feel they can decide how they will grade pupils, or do they feel they must use the results of standardized tests, grade on the "curve", or use someone else's criteria of judgment?

7. Freedom from surveillance by parents, supervisors, or other teachers. Do the teachers feel that others are keeping a close watch over the way they teach, that they must constantly be on guard in what they say or do in the classroom, or that they are being supervised too closely by the principal or others? (Charters, 1974, pp. 220-222).

Teacher autonomy is reflected in the structure and bureaucracy of schools and school systems, and is associated in part with what has been identified as their structural looseness. Bidwell (1965) has described schools as organizations with vague and diffuse goal structures. Teachers working alone within the classroom remain relatively hidden from colleagues and superiors. Thus, they have relative independence from one another and exercise considerable freedom and broad discretionary jurisdiction within the boundaries of the classroom.

Schools have historically been seen as organizations which are managerially and structurally tight and culturally loose. The perception and rhetoric of school systems is that they maintain a high degree of hierarchical control over teachers. Instead, Sergiovanni (1987b), using the work of Weick (1976) and Bidwell (1965) and argues that schools are just the opposite: they are managerially loose and culturally tight. Teachers tend to operate independently, with a fairly high degree of autonomy. Weick (1982) noted that most school administrators are trained to manage bureaucratic, tightly-coupled systems. These systems are characterized by rules, agreement on what those rules are, a system

of inspection to see if compliance occurs, and feedback designed to improve compliance. Yet schools are typically loosely coupled in most areas and missing one or more of these characteristics. The very physical structure of schools, with students and teachers dispersed throughout the building into separate classrooms, inhibits close control or supervision (Lortie, 1969).

In loosely-coupled systems, relationships among people are unpredictable, weak, and intermittent; knowledge of effects is affected by the delays and inaccuracies that occur in such systems; and most actions have an immediate effect on only a small number of the activities and people in the organization. Since diffusion is slow and erratic, any single policy initiative may lose momentum. As Weick (1982) has pointed out, a loosely-coupled system is more elusive, less tangible, harder to grasp, harder to administer, and requires a different set of perceptions and behaviors than does a tightly-coupled bureaucratic system.

While the concept of schools and school systems as bureaucratically organized is unmistakable in many respects, the authority structure of schools at best meets the minimal or rudimentary criteria of bureaucracy (Lortie, 1969). There is a functional division of labor, clear definition of staff roles, a hierarchy of offices providing authority and structure, and operation according to rules of procedure which sets limits to discretionary performance by the various participants (Bidwell, 1965). Dreeben (1973) argues, however, that it would be a gross distortion to regard schools as bureaucracies in the same way as

other governmental agencies, the military, and certain commercial and industrial organizations where workers are ranked hierarchically to facilitate the accomplishment of routine and repetitive tasks for production of goods and services.

Schools are structured by organizational functions such as rules, regulations, and reporting procedures. The work of teachers can be understood only if other nonbureaucratic elements of schools are also identified. Among the most important of these nonbureaucratic elements is the teacher's immediate work site. As Bidwell (1965) notes, the classroom setting may be subject to administrative direction at least within the school hierarchy and under the authority of the principal, yet it is significantly independent of such direction. Key classroom activities of teachers such as instruction and classroom management are not primarily determined by high level policy decisions, policies, or goals. Much of the teacher's work derives its meaning from the characteristics of classroom, school, and community events, not from administrative directives (Dreeben, 1973).

Lortie (1975) describes the sense of isolation and alienation that is part of the teaching job. Teaching is marked more by separation than by interdependence. He notes that most teachers still spend most of their time working alone with a group of students in a bounded area. Dreeben (1973) concurs, describing teaching, by virtue of the nature of the school hierarchy and the characteristics of classroom activities, as self-directed and isolated.

Furthermore, Lortie (1975) states that the occupational ethos of teachers does not favor close supervision of their work. Teachers see themselves as the most stable aspect of the school organization. They want autonomy in the classroom. They believe they hold legitimate classroom authority and discretionary power over matters such as instructional processes, pupil control, motivation, and evaluation. In The Shopping Mall High School, Powell, Farrar, and Cohen (1985) write that teachers have "their own turf to protect, their own personal axe to grind, and they resist change" (p. 56). Independence and autonomy are described as essential aspects of the high school teacher's identity. Any threats to that independence, even in the name of reform, are resisted by high school teachers because they perceive autonomy as one of the few professional attributes they possess (Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985).

Lortie (1975) found most teachers view learning, success, and satisfaction as coming from students in the classroom. They connect other participants such as parents, other teachers, or the principal with undesirable occurrences which have the potential for hindrance and not help. According to this norm, no teaching colleague, administrator, or community member may threaten this authority (Licata, 1980).

When citizen participation increases, so does the potential threat to the teacher autonomy norm. Packard et al. (1976) note that the strength of the teacher autonomy norm is best understood in terms of its regulatory influence. By use of peer pressure or through group resistance to external efforts to limit teacher

discretion or autonomy, it influences members of the teacher group to conform. While the norm of autonomy does not prohibit cooperation and collaboration with other teachers or parents it does hold that such cooperation should not be required, but be dependent on the discretion of the teacher or teacher support group. In other words, teachers reserve the right to cooperate or resist external participation as they see fit.

Contrasting reasons are given for teacher isolation and resistance to external influence. Lortie (1975) focuses on the institutional characteristics of schools, such as their cellular organization as reason for this isolation. Others believe teachers themselves are responsible, pointing to teacher defensiveness or their lack of interpersonal skills (Smith & Scott, 1990). In either event, high school principals rarely interfere with common teacher practices such as classroom rules, grading policies, or teaching methods. Instead "high schools promote autonomy, and therefore isolation, by leaving their faculties alone" (Powell, Farrar, & Cohen, 1985, p. 57).

Miskel, McDonald, and Bloom (1983) offer another reason for the isolation of teachers. In a study drawn from 89 public elementary and secondary schools, they found that as the number of hours per week teachers spend away from other adults increased, so did their perceived effectiveness. Thus, they speculate, teacher isolation in the classroom allows them greater opportunity to control their own classrooms, act relatively independently of their colleagues, and have added time to work

alone with students. Teachers associated this isolation with organizational effectiveness. When teachers are tightly linked to the application of their technical skills, they could perceive their schools to be more effective.

Flinders (1988) found teachers he observed actively sought to maintain their isolation from other adults. He traces the reason for this self-imposed isolation to an effort to protect "the time and energy required to meet immediate instructional demands." Faced with continual moment by moment task demands, the teachers lacked the time for collegial interactions. Their motive in isolating themselves was highly professional: "to provide the best instruction possible." Yet "paradoxically," Flinders notes, "the long-term effects of isolation undermine the very instructional quality that this work strategy is intended to protect."

Interactions among teachers, administrators, and technical specialists occur not only to coordinate work activities but also to satisfy human social needs. Team or group activities such as cooperative planning, and communication, may reduce the structural looseness in a school's operating core (Miskel, McDonald, & Bloom, 1983).

Bacharach, Bauer, and Shedd (1986) found that working conditions, such as limited participation in decision making and limited communication with administrators concerning important issues, were "prime demotivators" for teachers. From their study they discovered teacher dissatisfaction and career commitment were highly correlated with the decision making climate. Among

the factors McLaughlin, Pfeifer, Swanson-Owens, and Yee (1986) identified as conditions of their work environment that contribute to teacher frustration and disillusionment were: lack of teacher input into decisions that directly affect their work; administrative decisions that undermine teacher professional judgment and expertise; absence of the opportunity for collegial exchange to examine new and alternative practices; and lack of recognition for accomplishments.

From the teacher's perspective, participation in decisions that directly affect the teaching-learning process is essential. In reality it is also the dimension of their professional environment in which they experience the greatest deprivation (Johnston & Germinario, 1985). Belasco and Alutto (1972) employed the discrepancy theory of decision making in relating teacher satisfaction to their decision making status. They concluded that teachers characterized as decisionally deprived (participating in fewer decisions than preferred) experienced the highest level of dissatisfaction and are those most willing to leave their positions.

Yet, Goodlad (1984) maintains schools must be largely self-directing. School staffs must develop a capacity for and establish the mechanisms for effecting renewal. Sizer (1984) says effective schools must allow teachers autonomy while maintaining standards and accountability. Cuban (1988) calls for policy makers to enhance incentives for principals and teachers to improve schooling by striking "a fruitful balance between professional autonomy and accountability" (p. 249). Other observers have focused on the need

for American schools to shift from bureaucratic, topdown structures to professionally oriented ones in which teachers are encouraged to function as decision makers (Lieberman & Miller, 1990).

Good and Brophy (1986) recognize that effective schools must preserve a balance between schools' needs and teachers' needs in serving students. They point out that the over-application of school effectiveness practices may diminish the autonomy which talented teachers require. Teachers require a significant degree of personal autonomy. Good and Brophy note, however, that while advocates of school improvement argue for school autonomy because of unique student and teacher populations and community populations and community characteristics, histories, and resources, ironically, these same advocates do not voice similar sentiments about teacher autonomy.

Levine and Lezotte (1990) recognize effective schools need a judicious mixture of autonomy along with measured directiveness from the leadership, or a kind of "directed autonomy." They base their conclusion on their research and the research of others who have studied innovation in general. They found innovation is most likely to be successful when it combines elements of "top-down" stimuli and support in setting directions and guiding the change process. This type of directed autonomy has been described by Waterman (1987) as involving leadership in letting employees know that persons at the operating level who know the most about day-to-day problems can take action to solve these problems. Waterman further points out directed or guided autonomy also can

stimulate staff commitment by making jobs more meaningful and exciting.

The concept of teacher professionalism has been closely linked with teacher autonomy. Barth (1987) has identified four areas where teachers can experience a significant level of professionalism through their direct involvement and participation in decisions. These include: the teacher's choice to be in a given job and a given school; decisions about what teachers do in the school; decisions about spending money; and decisions about curriculum. Yet, in the realm of authority relationships, the school as a workplace and the classroom as a work site pose problems for the conduct of teachers. The role of teacher as professional is confounded by its clear distinction from other professionals such as lawyers or doctors. Dreeben (1973) describes the school as a catchment area whose social composition cannot be determined or changed by the school. He distinguishes teachers from other professionals because unlike them, teachers cannot select their clientele and cannot teach only those whom they like or only those who are interested in or responsive to school activities. Lortie (1969) concurs, describing teaching as a truncated rather than a fully realized professionalization. Since professional ways of organizing work have yet to be institutionalized in public schools, Lortie argues, the work of teachers can be described as only partially or semi-professional.

Darling-Hammond (1985) describes professionalism in terms of its key characteristics: autonomy and appropriate practice, rather

than conformity and standardized practice. Shedd and Bacharach (1991) address the interpersonal quality of professionalism based on the interactions of managers and their subordinates as:

a function of how individuals are treated within the organizations in which they work. Professionalism is not a function of credentials or public status but rather a state of mind sustained and enhanced by the way people are managed. (p. 3)

Wise and Darling-Hammond (1985) found districts which empowered expert teachers to become active participants in the evaluation process in a collaborative effort with principals, have not only been able to monitor general teacher quality but also to improve specific teacher performance. McLaughlin et al. (1986) found the major factors inhibiting teacher professionalism included those administrative decisions which stymie teachers in their role as classroom managers and undercut their craft knowledge.

The research clearly demonstrates empowerment of teachers has a positive impact on their professional image, on their commitment to the mission of the school, and on their decision to remain in teaching. Less certain is the impact of teacher empowerment on student outcomes.

Autonomy and professionalism are interwoven with authority and governance. Nyberg and Faber (1986) observe that the press for quality education and teacher professionalism leads to confrontation about the nature of school governance. They delineate two realms of authority. The first, organizational/management authority over schools, is

characteristically political and social. The second is educational authority within schools and includes matters such as curriculum content, methodology, discipline, materials, and supplies. While it is within the latter realm that the expertise of the teacher is most pertinent, teachers are expressing desire to participate in the former as well. In most schools and districts however, the final decisions in both realms are made by central office administrators and school boards. This pattern is supported by Lortie (1975) who documented the fact that teachers have little choice over their environment.

The issue of teacher autonomy, when considered with hierarchical control and collegial control, is ambiguous, ambivalent, and complex. As Lortie (1975) notes:

There is a certain ambivalence, then, in the teacher's sentiments. He yearns for more independence, greater resources, and just possibly, more control over key resources. But he accepts the hegemony of the school system on which he is economically and functionally dependent. He cannot ensure that the imperatives of teaching, as he defines them, will be honored, but he chafes when they are not. He is poised between the impulse to control his work life and the necessity to accept its vagaries; perhaps he holds back partly because he is at heart uncertain that he can produce predictable results. (p. 186)

On the one hand, teachers want a professional role where they have control over their own world. On the other, they protect the measure of personal autonomy they possess by consistently refusing to accept changes in the uniformity of extrinsic rewards and overall treatment. This equality among teachers is both the

foundation of their autonomy and an inhibitor of the possibility of their full professional standing (Lortie, 1969). Furthermore, bureaucratic controls become necessary to provide the structure for improvement of performance by teachers and students.

School principals are also caught in the ambivalence of power, authority and autonomy. They are the highest officials in the school, yet their capacity to formulate specific policies for their own schools are also limited by centralized control. Principals may, however, have considerably more informal power than their role description specifies. Principals face the classic administrative dilemma. Their responsibilities outrun their formal authority. They are called on to be the instructional leader and be both the real and symbolic head of the school. They have responsibility for organizing teachers' work including allocation of resources to teachers. They are also held accountable by superintendents and school boards. Yet, when teachers seek more authority or control over working conditions, they run the risk of colliding with principal's prerogatives and delineated role (Lortie 1975).

Teacher norms have called for resistance to external efforts to impose change. As Porter (1989) discovered, principals simply telling teachers what to do will have questionable results, and leaving teachers alone is not acceptable. Teachers desire principal supervision which meets their own needs for autonomy and support such as enforcement of student discipline rules. They want the principal to use his/her authority to buffer them from conflict and outside interference but they also want the principal to preserve

their own autonomy at minimal cost to their freedom. As a result, the system generally permits teachers a significant degree of personal autonomy.

Porter (1989) concludes that issues such as determining worthwhile content, how much should be taught, defining good teaching, and student differences and teacher differences, cannot be imposed by external standards. Teacher norms have been more supportive of change processes that recognize the authority of teacher discretionary power and teacher autonomy. Porter proposes shifting "external standard setting away from reliance on rewards and sanctions (power) toward reliance on authority." He believes the best way to develop authoritative educational standards would be to involve teachers seriously in the standard setting process. He would involve teachers in the task of telling teachers what to do. There are at least three advantages for such an approach to standard setting. First, the change would come through persuasion, not through meeting requirements. Second, the availability of support needed to deliver good teaching would increase teacher acceptance. Third, in focusing on setting standards for student achievement, autonomy is left to the teachers in organizing and delivering instruction.

In a study of effective school leadership by Blase (1987), the data demonstrated that effective school principals positively affected the specific meanings teachers attribute to essential issues such as participation, equity and autonomy. Teachers perceived that principals deemed effective allowed them a greater degree of

autonomy than principals seen as ineffective. Effective principals were willing to delegate authority to teachers. The willingness to delegate authority meant more timely decisions and more effective and efficient work processes. Teachers correlated receiving authority from the principals with trust, respect, improved self concept and increased teacher job involvement. Since an individual's need for autonomy is closely linked to job performance and job satisfaction, one could conclude that effective principals might value teacher autonomy more highly while also valuing the importance of teachers fulfilling their higher order needs.

Over 20 years ago Lortie (1969) described then current trends in education including greater emphasis on cognitive mastery as an aim for teachers. He reflected that perhaps by possessing specialized knowledge of the content and how to teach it, teachers might gain autonomy through technical expertise not shared by generalist administrators. Emphasis on the craft knowledge and skills of teaching continue to receive increased emphasis two decades later. In the move to site-based governance of schools, the increased curricular and instructional skills of teachers are providing them with significant opportunities for greater autonomy.

Teacher work autonomy and the role of principal as educational leader are clearly interrelated. The involvement of teachers in decision making and school governance calls for new roles and skills for principals. They must balance significant opportunities for teacher autonomy with the control needs imposed by the district, community, and social norms. Principals are being

called upon to structure school organizations in ways that diminish hierarchical differences and increase teachers professional autonomy and genuine collegial involvement in decisions (Erlandson & Bifano, 1987; Shedd & Bacharach, 1991). Yet, as new linkages are created to reduce the structural looseness described by Weick (1976, 1982) and Sergiovanni (1987b), teachers must not be so burdened with administrative detail that it interferes with their classroom teaching.

If the issue is to maintain or increase teacher autonomy and, therefore, maintain or increase the accompanying isolation and individualistic teaching, increased autonomy for teachers as individuals may not be the answer. Perhaps the answer really lies with increased professionalism, shared authority and breaking down organizational hierarchies and bureaucracies. The vision of strong collegial relationships is certainly preferred over reliance on vertical authority. As Lortie (1975) has noted, lateral or collegial groups are more effective in finding fresh solutions and hammering out policies than are hierarchies.

Burns (1978), in describing the relationship between leaders and followers concludes that "the goal of the leader is not to exert force, but to empower his or her followers; leaders are more like holy men than muscle men." This style of leadership coupled with a more participative style of management empowers not just the followers but the organization itself.

CONCLUSION

On the basis of the research and literature reviewed in this paper, it seems clear that leadership is a complex phenomenon. Leaders accomplish their work through other people and their success as leaders depends upon their ability to enlist and maintain follower commitment and collaboration for the attainment of individual, group or organizational goals. Leadership is not the property of an individual but a complex series of relationships among many variables including the leader, followers, characteristics and conditions of the organization, and the social, political, and economic environment (McGregor, 1976). Yet as Barth (1990) posits, of all these relationships, none has greater effect "on the quality of life under the roof of the schoolhouse than the relationship between teacher and principal" (p. 19). Experience suggests that as it goes between teacher and principal, so it goes with all other relationships. "The relationship between teacher and principal seems to have an extraordinary amplifying effect. It models what all relationships will be" (p. 19).

Of the leadership components, vision, the ability to identify and communicate an overarching purpose and compel others to act on it, may be the most essential. Although vision and dreaming have been equated in popular jargon, vision is more than dreaming. It implies not only seeing the discrepancy between what is and what could be, but getting others to commit or sacrifice to work to accomplish what could be. The words of Robert Kennedy eloquently

describe a visionary when he said: "Some men see things as they are and say why. I dream things that never were and say why not." (Salinger, Guthman, Mankiewicz, & Seigenthaler, Eds., 1968)

Principal vision appears, theoretically at least, connected with the two correlates of environmental robustness and teacher sense of autonomy. Environmental robustness is an organizational climate variable related to satisfaction and productivity. Teachers are more likely to act on a vision when they have a sense of efficacy, are satisfied with their work and feel productive.

Effective principals use strategies and activities to shape the climate and instructional organization of their schools. They exhibit characteristics attributed to robustness while investing their time and energy in daily routines. There is an inherent tension in the contradictory nature of robustness and routinization. Yet, effective principals are able to thrive with this contradiction. They are highly active and visible while dealing well with mundane activities. The real indicator of their effectiveness is their ability to connect routine activities to a well informed understanding of the school's context and a vision of what school can be for students (Dwyer, 1984). Thus there is a clear link between the importance of principal vision and his/her attention to shaping the school's climate.

The relationship between vision and autonomy also creates a dilemma for the principal. The principal relies heavily on teacher expertise to do the right thing and do it effectively. Because of the resistance related to autonomy norms, and the cellular nature of

schools (teachers can close their door and ignore you), the principal cannot gain much by directly attempting to control teachers (Bossert et al., 1982; Licata, Greenfield, Teddlie 1989; Manasse, 1984; Shedd & Bacharach, 1991). On the other hand, the principal can accomplish much if he or she is able to tap into teachers' beliefs and values.

The research of the 1950's and 1960's confirmed that employee motivation depended primarily on their sense of the significance of their work, achievement, recognition for accomplishment, and work autonomy. In high-performance organizations, supervisors tend to supervise their subordinates less closely, spend more time consulting with their workers, and give them more opportunities to participate in decisions that affect them than do low-performance leaders. The quality of leader/follower relationships, including the degree of genuine respect and consideration that the leaders shows for the follower's needs, is the crucial factor (Spotts, 1976).

Recent studies find that "best run" corporations maintain excellent reputations, outstanding financial performance, and innovativeness not by hiring extraordinary people but by motivating average employees to extraordinary dedication and performance (Hickman, 1990; Kanter, 1983; Peters, 1987; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Waterman, 1987). These studies suggest that principals should motivate teachers by giving them more autonomy and responsibility. Yet, school effectiveness research suggests that principals should exercise strong authority to make their schools

effective; thus, the seemingly irreconcilable dilemma. The solution may lie in the concept of "simultaneous loose-tight properties," which entails rigid adherence to a few broad guiding values but allows considerable autonomy in day to day operations (DuFour, 1985).

Block (1988) delineates the causal relationship between vision and autonomy. He describes autonomy as the decision one makes to act on his or her own choice and the most fundamental choice one can make is to create a future of his or her own choosing. To that means, vision is the essential act of leadership and the first step toward autonomy (p. 101). When teachers and the principal share a common vision and are willing to commit themselves to that vision, they take the initial steps toward their autonomy and control over their own destiny.

Thus, vision is a critical quality in a school leader. In effective schools, it provides the catalyst for both environmental robustness and autonomy. As Cuban (1987) argues, common leadership expectations and behaviors, including creation of a vision, establish a bond between teachers and principals and their classrooms and schools. Furthermore, it is the environmental and organizational context which "exercises substantial influence on the degree of success that teachers and administrators have in both the execution of their duties and whether or not they achieve desirable outcomes" (p. 194).

In his essay on leadership, Cronin (1984) thoughtfully summarizes the relationship of the three variables within the

framework of leadership when he writes of vision and robustness leading ultimately to autonomy.

Leaders are individuals who can help create options and opportunities - who can help clarify problems and choices, who can build morale and coalitions, who can inspire others and provide a vision of the possibilities and promise of a better organization, or a better community. Leaders have those indispensable qualities of contagious self-confidence, unwarranted optimism, and incurable idealism that allows them to attract and mobilize others to undertake demanding tasks these people never dreamed they could undertake. In short, leaders empower and help liberate others. They enhance the possibilities for freedom - both for people and organizations. They engage with followers in such a way so that many of the followers become leaders in their own right. (p. 26)

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

OVERVIEW

This project was a descriptive study of the relationships between principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy as perceived by Oregon high school teachers. An ex post facto study of these variables and their correlates was performed.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and present the design and implementation of this study. First, the research design is presented including a description of the instruments used in the study. Data collection procedures, including the respondents sampled for this study and administration of the questionnaire, are described. Next, a summary of the data analyses procedures, including descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, and inferential statistics, is provided. This chapter concludes with the definition of terms and limitations of the study.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study answers the following question: What are the relationships among the school principal's vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy?

The three hypotheses examined in the study were:

1. There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school's vision and their perceptions of a robust school climate.
2. There is a positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school's vision and their sense of autonomy.
3. There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' sense of autonomy and their perceptions of a robust school climate.

INSTRUMENTATION

The battery included three different survey instruments. Each addressed a different variable studied in this work. The three were: (a) The School Vision Inventory; (b) The Environmental Robustness Semantic Differential; and (c) The Sense of Autonomy Scale. The battery consisted of 71 questions.

The School Vision Inventory

The School Vision Inventory {SVI} was developed by Greenfield, Licata, and Johnson (1989). The instrument consists of 17 true or false items. The instrument assesses the degree to which the principal is able to get others in the school and community to share and work to implement his/her vision of what the school can and ought to be. Prior to completing the items, teachers responded to two statements. The first was: "My principal regularly emphasizes the importance of doing what is right for all children in this school." The second was: "My principal has a vision of what this school ought to be." Responses were indicated on a true/false scale. A false answer to either of these questions excused the respondent from answering the remaining questions from this particular instrument.

The SVI consists of three subscales. The first subscale, "Vision Internalization," is composed of four items and measures the degree to which the principal has been effective in getting teachers and others to accept, internalize, or share the vision of what the school should be. Items include: "This vision serves the best interest of all children in this school" and "I share in this vision." The second subscale, "Vision Exchanges," is composed of five items which measure whether the principal is effective in exchanging and sharing ideas about achieving the school vision with teachers, students, parents, superiors, and members of the community. Statements include "My principal effectively exchanges ideas with teachers to achieve this vision." The third subscale, "Vision Sacrifice," is composed of five

items and measures the success the principal has experienced in motivating himself or herself and others to work beyond the call of duty to achieve this vision. In general, the items of this subscale ask; "Are school participants motivated enough to 'sacrifice' in order to see that this vision is realized?" (Greenfield, Licata, & Johnson, 1989)

The subscales are distributed and mixed in the administration of the instrument (Appendix D, School Vision Inventory Subscale). On the 17 question scale, a true response is scored as one and a false response is scored as zero. The range for the items on the Vision Internalization subscale is 0-4; the range for the five Vision Exchange items is 0-5; and the range for the five Vision Sacrifice items is 0-5.

An additional item was included in a study by Street (1988) and was part of this study. It is "My school is making meaningful progress toward accomplishing our vision." This item provides an additional dimension to the vision inventory, addressing the sense to which teachers perceive the vision is being successfully reached. This item is also scored with a 1 point for a true response and 0 points for a false response. Since the school was the unit of study, mean scores were computed for each school. A total vision score was calculated from the means of the Vision Internalization, Vision Exchange, and Vision Sacrifice subscales. items (Appendix D, School Vision Inventory Subscale). Mean scores were also calculated for each of the subscales. Alpha reliability coefficients for the set of 17 individual items, using individual teacher and school mean item

scores, were .85 and .87, respectively in a study by Greenfield, Licata, and Johnson (1989).

Teachers' perceptions were measured by the School Vision Inventory. The principals of the surveyed schools were asked to provide their perception of the vision that exists in their school. Their response was measured using the same instrument but with a different response form. Instead of responding in a true/false fashion to each item, they responded by predicting the percentage of teachers in their school whose response will be true to each item. Their responses allowed the researcher to compare teacher perceptions on vision with the principal's perceptions.

The Environmental Robustness Semantic Differential

The Environmental Robustness Semantic Differential {RSD} was developed by Licata and Willower in 1978. It asks teachers to respond to 10 bi-polar adjectives relating to each of the following three concepts: "My role as a teacher is," "My Principal is," and "My school is:" boring/interesting, fresh/stale, meaningless/meaningful, important/ unimportant, usual/unusual, powerful/weak, passive/active, thrilling/ quieting, uneventful/action-packed, challenging/dull (underlined adjectives are robust). Each scale is scored from 1-7 with a total score ranging from 10 to 70 (the higher the score, the more the robustness).

Test reliability has been reported for each adjective pair and the total Environmental Robustness Semantic Differential instrument. For the latter, the Pearson coefficient was .77 and the

Spearman coefficient was .78. Concurrent validity of the RSD has been demonstrated for each adjective pair based on their ability to discriminate significantly between two concepts: dramatic and nondramatic (Licata & Willower, 1978).

Licata and Johnson (1989) report correlations between the RSD and multiple measures of school environment and principal performance. They found that more robust school environments are those where teachers have positive sentiments about staff relationships, work load, educational effectiveness, and student evaluation practices. Furthermore, they have more effective supervisor relationships, time management, and principal effectiveness in curriculum and instruction and in articulating and implementing a vision of what the school ought to be.

The Sense of Autonomy Scale

The Sense of Autonomy Scale {SAS} was developed by Charters (1974). This instrument has 24 items scored on a four-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1 point) to "strongly agree" (4 points) with total instrument scores ranging from 24 to 96 to (the higher the score, the greater the perceived sense of autonomy). This instrument assesses teachers' sense of autonomy in terms of external forces which may impact the classroom. Questions from this scale include items such as: "I sense pressure from the administration concerning how I spend my time in class;" "I feel free to try out new teaching ideas with my classes;" "I have

little say over how the progress of my students is to be judged;" and "I feel free to say whatever I wish to pupils in the classroom."

Internal reliability of the Sense of Autonomy Scale was .91 and a generalizability coefficient, estimating the separate variance components of persons, items, and occasions, yielded a .76 coefficient with the largest contribution of the error due to the person-by-occasion component (Charters, 1974). Charters developed the Sense of Autonomy Scale using the individual teacher as the level of analysis. In Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie's (1989) study, the Sense of Autonomy Scale was used with the school as the unit of analysis. They conducted principal component and varimax rotation factor analyses with both individual teacher scores and school mean scores. Both analyses suggest a six factor interpretation. The two factor analyses were similar in terms of factor structure. Alpha reliability coefficients for the 24 items, using individual teacher and school mean scores, were .91 and .95, respectively.

A factor analysis of data collected by administering this instrument yielded six subparts or factors for grouping and interpretation (Licata, Greenfield, & Teddlie, 1989). These are:

1. freedom to select the techniques of work (Freedom to Select);
2. freedom from distrust by administrators/colleagues (Freedom from distrust);

3. freedom from administrator/colleague influence (Freedom from Influence);
4. freedom to control pace of student work (Freedom to Control Pace);
5. freedom from excessive school level organization of instruction (Freedom from Excessive Organization);
6. freedom in student relationships (Freedom in Student Relationships).

(Appendix E, Teacher Sense of Autonomy Subscale)

According to Charters (1974, p. 217), a strong or high score on the SAS scale means that the teacher feels generally free to direct his or her instructional work with students using his or her own personal judgment. While the teacher may solicit ideas and advice from others, he or she feels no obligation to accept the suggestions without weighing their merits. A low sense of autonomy score implies that the teacher feels generally constrained in the teaching job. The constraints may be a result of activities by others, rules and regulations, or other forces or conditions outside the classroom and outside his or her control. The teacher with a low sense of autonomy believes there is little latitude for bringing personal judgment to bear on the job. While the intent of this instrument is to assess the impact of outside influences on the classroom, it should be noted that the lack of perceived autonomy may relate as much to personal conditions as to actual conditions at the school.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Sample

The sample for this study consisted of 34 high schools located in 23 school districts in the state of Oregon from which 1,338 teachers were surveyed. All schools surveyed were classified as AAAA (4A) high schools by the Oregon School Activities Association. The 4A high schools have a minimum student population of 600 students in grades 10-12 and represent the largest high schools in the state of Oregon. There are 69 public 4A high schools in Oregon. This population was selected because there is a significant variance in the complexity of larger versus smaller high schools. The small rural high school of 100 students faces very different issues related to the three variables than an urban or suburban high school of 600 or more students.

Another reason for limiting the study to this particular population was the researcher's experience in the large high school. As a principal for eight years of a large Oregon high school, he was particularly interested in the characteristics necessary to provide leadership to these schools. Furthermore, since he worked with many of the 4A principals, he believed he would have a higher rate of return and greater accessibility to these schools in completing the study (as expected, a higher than typical rate of return of the surveys [57.7%] was achieved).

Each certificated teaching staff from these high schools was invited to respond to the survey. Each teacher response was scored

individually and included in a school composite. Since the purpose of the study was to examine the relationships between principal vision, teacher autonomy, and environmental robustness of different aspects of the school, the school itself served as the unit of study.

Each principal also completed a survey providing basic demographic data about the school including student population, racial mix, percentage of students on free and reduced lunch, and number of teachers.

Administration of the Questionnaire

Once agreement with the 34 principals was reached, survey instruments were sent to each of the 34 participating schools with enough forms for all teachers. Letters explaining the questionnaires were included. All teachers were reminded that participation was entirely voluntary, and that respondent and school anonymity would be guaranteed. Although the preference of the researcher to have the surveys completed at a faculty meeting was suggested to the principals, the administration of the survey in some schools was coordinated through other distributions to the teachers. The survey was administered by a teacher trusted by the faculty. When the surveys were completed, each teacher was to place his or her own survey in a large envelope provided by the researcher. Instructions to the principal asked that a teacher trusted by colleagues be asked to then seal the large envelope and place it in the mail.

Principals were instructed to directly mail their responses in a separate envelope. A follow-up letter was sent and a telephone call made to each principal who had not responded to the survey by the deadline. As noted previously, the survey returns yielded a teacher response rate of 57.7%.

DATA ANALYSES PROCEDURES

Murphy, Hallinger, and Mitman (1983) contend that the most serious flaw in the educational leadership research is the general lack of comprehensive models to explain the research findings. "Much of the work done on educational leadership consists of isolated regression analysis" (p. 298). They further note that many of the existing studies provide little information about causal relationships. To address these concerns, once the data were gathered, the researcher conducted structured interviews with principals of several high schools which demonstrated the strong, moderate, and weak scores on the variables studied. Interviews included questions regarding vision and significant leadership issues in their schools. The interviews provided a qualitative perspective to this basically quantitative study. They also provided a more integrated approach to the data as well as the issues being studied. The responses from the interviews Are used in Chapters IV and V of the dissertation.

Descriptive Analyses

A variety of descriptive analyses were run to determine means, standard deviations, and minimum/maximum values for the scales and subscales, using the school as the unit of analysis. Summary statistics were also completed to provide pertinent demographic information by school.

Three analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were run using the school as the independent variable and total vision, total robustness, and total autonomy scores as the dependent variables. These analyses assessed the variance between the schools related to the variance within the schools in order to address the validity of aggregating data to the school level.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson product moment correlations were run among the three principal vision variables (vision exchange, vision internalization, and vision sacrifice), three robustness variables (teacher robustness, principal robustness, and school robustness) and six teacher autonomy variables (freedom to select, freedom from distrust, freedom from influence, freedom to control pace, freedom from excessive organization, and freedom in relationships). The purpose of these correlations is to indicate both the direction (positive or negative) and the strength of relationships between variables.

The Pearson product correlation allowed the researcher to determine whether there were any significant relationships

between the three vision, three robustness, and six teacher autonomy variables. Additional statistical analyses were used to determine significant correlations between principal vision and teacher autonomy variables.

Analyses of the Pearson correlations provided the basis for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses. In interpreting the correlations, one must consider that they do not indicate causation. Conceivably the correlations may not be strong enough to support outright affirmation of the hypotheses.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Vision is operationally defined by Greenfield, (1987a, pp. 61-62) and Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) as the capacity to see the discrepancy between how things are and how they might be and the need to compel others to act on these imagined possibilities.

Environmental robustness is defined as a measure of the dramatic structures or dramaturgical aspects of the school environment based on the notion that social situations can be understood in terms of theatrical analogies which identify actors, plot, setting, and audience (Licata & Wildes, 1980)

Sense of work autonomy is operationally defined by Packard (1976) as the extent to which teachers view themselves as the legitimate classroom authorities and rightfully hold discretionary power over such matters as instructional processes, pupil control, motivation and evaluation.

Instructional leadership as defined by Greenfield (1987a) "refers to actions undertaken with the intention of developing a productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for children" (p. 60).

Effective schools are defined by Brookover et al. (1982) as schools which: have a pervasive belief that all students can and will achieve at high levels; are organized in such a way to maximize the success of all students; reward teachers and students for effective teaching and learning; have instructional leadership in setting a vision for the school and identify the objectives and monitor the success of the instructional program; provide effective instruction including reinforcement practices, assessment, and time on task; and create a climate of care and concern for students, staff, and parents.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations included the sample. Of the 4A high school principals in the state of Oregon, 59% initially agreed to commit their schools to participate in the study. Although requests were made to administer the survey at faculty meetings, many of the schools were unwilling to do so. One comment from a principal was "My teachers would hang me if they were asked to do this survey at a staff meeting." A criticism received by the researcher was that schools have "been surveyed to death." Furthermore, several principals felt compelled to ask their teachers whether they, as a

staff, wished to participate in this survey. Some stated that one of the outgrowths of the school improvement and teacher empowerment movement has been the reluctance of the principal to impose a survey (albeit voluntary) upon teachers without their collective consent. In some schools, the concept of shared leadership and decision making was so prevalent that teachers did not want to complete a survey about the vision of the principal. As one principal indicated, the teachers would be willing to complete the survey if the vision of the staff leadership team were assessed rather than the vision of the principal.

Because the survey was voluntary, the teachers could choose whether to participate in it. Many chose not to participate. The responses ranged from a low of 9 at one school (15% of the teaching staff) to a high of 72 at another (90% of the teaching staff). To be included in the correlations and inferential analyses, the minimum response rate from a school was 34% of the teaching staff. Thirty three schools achieved this standard.

In terms of demographics, the schools in the study tended to be more alike than different. With the exception of a small number of schools in Portland, Oregon, the high schools in this state do not represent urban schools in the classical sense. Although the dollars spent per student and class sizes vary dramatically in the participating schools, the schools still contain a relatively homogeneous population.

The variables themselves and the instruments used to identify the variables are somewhat limiting. Vision, for example, is

only one of many indicators defining leadership. A decision was made, however, to limit the leadership variable to principal vision. Because of the work of Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) the study was limited to vision along with environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of this study. A summary of the demographic data is provided in Table I. This summary provides a description of the study sample. Next, a summary of the descriptive statistics for the instruments and instrument subscales is depicted followed by analyses of variance looking at between-school variance. Then, relevant analyses related to the research hypotheses are presented using correlations among the variables. These analyses are followed by a summary of the correlations among demographic and theoretical variables.

SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Of the 45 high schools contacted to be part of this study, 34 actually participated. These 34 high schools came from 23 school districts in the state of Oregon. The participating high schools comprise 49.3% of all of the large (4A) public high schools in the state. The schools participating in the study had a combined

TABLE I
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR SCHOOLS STUDIED

	TOTAL
Number of 4A High Schools in Oregon	69
Number of Schools Participating in Study	34
Percentage of participating 4A schools	49%
Total Student Population of Participating Schools	40328
Range of Student Populations	845-1,725
 Racial Balance of the Schools	
Caucasian	89.96%
Native American	3.49%
African American	1.28%
Hispanic	1.26%
Oriental	3.55%
 School/Community Environment	
Urban High Schools*	9
Suburban High Schools**	11
Small City High Schools***	7
Small Town High Schools****	7
 Students on Free and Reduced Lunch	15.40%
Number of Classroom Teachers	2320
Number of Teachers Participating in Study	1338
Percent of Teachers Responding to Study	57.67%
Average Student Teacher Ratio	18.59
Average Years of Principal Experience	7.4
Average Years as Principal at School	4.85
Schools Participating in Onward to Excellence	16
Schools Participating in HB 2020 Grants	14

*Urban high schools-located in cities larger than 100,000

**Suburban high schools-located in communities dependent on
and in proximity to Portland, Eugene, and Salem

***Small City high schools-located in cities 15,000-70,000

****Small Town high schools-located in towns under 15,000

student population of 43,213 and ranged in size from 845 to 1,725 students (see Table I).

The total teacher population for the 34 schools studied was 2,320. Of that total, 1,338 teachers responded to the survey or an average of 39 teachers per school representing 57.76% of the total teachers eligible to respond.

The schools had an average Caucasian student population of 89.79%. They ranged from a low of 65.20% Caucasian students for an individual high school to a high of 98.40% for a school. The percentage of minority students for the entire population surveyed was 3.79% Asian, 3.47% Hispanic, 1.34% African-American, and 1.22% Native American.

Of the total student population, 14.33% were eligible to receive free or reduced lunches. The individual schools ranged from a high of 35% of the student body receiving free and reduced lunches to a low of 2%.

The average number of classroom teachers per high school was 68.24 and the range was a high of 91 and a low of 51 classroom teachers per school (see Appendix L "To be Completed by the Principal" for format used in requesting this information). The average number of students per classroom teacher was 18.59:1 and the range was 23:1 to 14.4:1.

Nine schools were considered urban (located in cities over 100,000 in population), eleven were located in suburban communities (located in communities in approximation to and dependent for commerce on the three largest cities in the state:

Portland, Eugene, and Salem). Seven schools were located in small cities (ranging in population from 15,000- 70,000) and seven were located in small towns (under 15,000 population).

All 34 principals of the high schools responded to the form provided in Appendix L. The principals averaged 7.4 years of principal experience and 4.85 years at their current school assignment.

It is significant to note that of the 34 schools, 33 indicated they were currently involved in a school improvement effort. The average length of time in a school improvement effort was 3 years. Sixteen schools (47%) participated in the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory's Onward To Excellence (OTE) School Improvement Program. Fourteen (41%) schools were recipients of Oregon Legislative House Bill 2020 School Improvement Incentive Grants.

Nine schools scored above the mean on all three of the variables (see Table II) and one of those schools scored more than one standard deviation above the mean on each of the three variables. By contrast, seven schools scored below the mean on all three variables and one of those schools scored more than one standard deviation below the mean on each of the three variables.

Furthermore, if schools scored above the mean on one variable, they were likely to score above the mean on the other variables. For example, 80% of the schools which scored at or above the mean on vision scored at or above the mean on robustness and

TABLE II
SUMMARY OF RESPONDENT TOTALS FOR THREE VARIABLES BY
SCHOOL

SCHOOL	RESPONSE	TEACHER POPULATION	% TEACHER RESPONSE	VISION	ROBUSTNESS	AUTONOMY
1	26	59	0.44	0.91	5.37	3.15
2	49	55	0.89	0.86	5.38	3.09
3	28	62	0.45	0.87	5.12	3.07
4	32	55	0.58	0.69	4.27	2.90
5	29	69	0.42	0.70	5.01	2.80
6	25	56	0.45	0.79	5.43	3.26
7	35	59	0.59	0.89	5.34	3.16
8	48	55	0.87	0.65	4.79	2.97
9	36	66	0.55	0.68	4.35	3.07
10	47	65	0.72	0.78	4.77	2.99
11	50	71	0.70	0.75	5.16	2.82
12	57	64	0.89	0.84	5.45	2.93
13	61	68	0.90	0.81	5.13	2.95
14	37	69	0.54	0.79	5.35	3.05
15	9	62	0.15	0.88	5.99	3.22
16	44	85	0.52	0.78	5.53	3.10
17	22	58	0.38	0.87	5.26	3.08
18	28	65	0.43	0.66	5.16	3.25
19	29	82	0.35	0.78	5.76	3.07
20	58	80	0.73	0.82	5.30	2.96
21	29	86	0.34	0.74	4.96	3.06
22	38	86	0.44	0.81	5.08	3.24
23	36	67	0.54	0.86	5.67	3.31
24	34	85	0.40	0.72	4.88	3.19
25	58	83	0.70	0.83	5.65	3.15
25	45	70	0.64	0.81	5.48	3.18
27	47	73	0.64	0.70	4.99	2.92
28	42	70	0.60	0.71	5.15	3.26
29	71	91	0.78	0.78	4.86	2.84
30	32	51	0.63	0.75	5.29	2.87
31	22	56	0.39	0.82	5.35	3.04
32	35	53	0.66	0.69	4.91	2.97
33	27	64	0.42	0.78	5.59	3.12
34	72	80	0.90	0.73	4.65	2.86
MEAN	39	68	0.58	0.78	5.19	3.06
VARIANCE				0.01	0.14	0.04
STAND DEV				0.07	0.37	0.20
TOTALS	1338	2320				

87% of these schools scored at or above the mean on the autonomy scale. Conversely, schools which scored lower than the mean on one variable were much more likely to score lower than the mean on the other two variables. For example, of the schools which scored below the mean on vision, only 23% scored at or above the mean on robustness and 31% scored at or above the mean on autonomy.

SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND BETWEEN-SCHOOL VARIANCE

Summary of Instrument Subscales

Summaries of descriptive statistics for the School Vision Inventory {SVI}, Robustness Semantic Differential {RSD}, and Sense of Autonomy Scale {SAS}, and their subscales are presented in Table III, "Descriptive Statistics for Theoretical Variables." This table includes overall sample sizes and mean scores for each of the variables and sub-scales for both the school as the unit of study and the entire teacher population surveyed. For the Vision instrument, the mean scores were based on a 1 point scale (0-low, 1-high). The robustness instrument mean scores were based on a 7 point scale (1-low, 7-high) and the autonomy instrument mean scores were based on a 4 point scale (1-low, 4-high).

A total of 1,338 teachers participated in the study. Of that total, the percentage of teachers responding to the robustness and autonomy subscales ranged from a high of 1,334 teachers or 99.7% of the participants who responded to Freedom from Excessive

TABLE III
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THEORETICAL VARIABLES

THEORETICAL	SCHOOL			TEACHERS		
	SCHOOLS	MEAN	STAND DEV	TEACHERS	MEAN	STAND DEV
1. Vision Internalization	33	0.70	0.09	1048	0.70	0.29
2. Vision Exchange	33	0.85	0.07	1055	0.85	0.22
3. Vision Sacrifice	33	0.77	0.08	1043	0.78	0.27
4. Vision - Total	33	0.78	0.07	1055	0.78	0.21
5. Teacher Robustness	33	5.48	0.27	1324	5.48	0.91
6. Principal Robustness	33	4.97	0.58	1316	4.94	1.24
7. School Robustness	33	5.05	0.38	1324	5.05	1.01
8. Robustness - Total	33	5.16	0.35	1328	5.16	0.84
9. Freedom To Select	33	3.20	0.17	1330	3.16	0.52
10. Free From Distrust	33	3.17	0.17	1330	3.17	0.49
11. Free From Influence	33	3.11	0.17	1328	3.14	0.46
12. Free To Control Pace	33	3.25	0.16	1325	3.21	0.34
13. Free From Excess Organ	33	2.64	0.17	1334	2.60	0.51
14. Free In Student Relation	33	2.92	0.15	1321	2.93	0.42
15. Autonomy - Total	33	3.05	0.14	1334	3.02	0.39

Vision variables 1-4 based on 0-1 point scale
 Robustness variables 5-8 based on 7 point scale
 Autonomy variables 9-15 based on 4 point scale

Organization, to a low of 1,316 teachers or 98.4% of the participants who responded to Principal Robustness. The Vision subscale responses were considerably lower. For example, a total of 1,043 teachers, or 77.9% of the participants responded to Vision Sacrifice. As noted elsewhere, prior to completing the vision instrument, teachers were asked two questions. The first was: "My principal regularly emphasizes the importance of doing what is right for all children in this school." The second was: "My principal has a vision of what this school ought to be." A false answer to either of these questions excused the respondents from answering the remaining questions from the vision instrument. Approximately 22% of the teachers answered false to one or both of these two questions and thus did not complete the vision instrument. The statistical analyses ignored cases containing missing data. All statistics were calculated using non-missing values only.

The results of the data shown in Table III indicate that teachers were generally positive in their perceptions of the vision of their principal, the robustness of key roles in the organization of the school and their own sense of work autonomy.

Of the vision subscales, Vision Exchange or the effectiveness of the principal in exchanging and sharing ideas about achieving the school vision with teachers, students, parents, superiors, and members of the community was given the highest mean score of .85. It was followed by Vision Sacrifice at .77 and Vision Internalization at .70. Vision Internalization had the greatest diversity among schools, with a low school score of .51 and a high

score of .90, or a range of .39. On the last question of the vision instrument, 89% of teachers responded positively when asked whether their school was making progress toward accomplishing their vision. It should be noted that this question was different from the other 16 questions on the SVI. It was the only question on the SVI that referred to vision as a shared vision or as "our vision." The other 16 questions all pertained to the vision of the principal.

On the robustness scale, teacher robustness (My Role as a Teacher) was most positive with a mean score of 5.48. Principal robustness (My Principal Is) was the least positive with a mean score of 4.97. Principal robustness also provided the greatest diversity of the robustness sub-scales (standard deviation = .58). This variable had a minimum school score of 3.23 and a high score of 5.81 for a 2.58 range. The range on the principal robustness subscale was a full 1 point greater than on the other robustness subscales. Teacher robustness, on the other hand, had the least variance among the robustness variables (standard deviation = .27). The scattergrams (Appendix F) indicate that teacher robustness was the most tightly grouped of all the subscales with all but two schools scoring between the 5.2-5.8 range. Teachers in the study appeared to be more positively biased when judging themselves.

On the autonomy scale, Freedom to Control Pace, Freedom to Select, and Freedom from Distrust were the most positive subscales with mean scores of 3.25, 3.20, and 3.17 respectively. Freedom from Excessive Organization was the least positive with a mean

TABLE IV
ONE FACTOR ANOVA, ALL TEACHERS BY SCHOOL VS THEORETICAL
VARIABLES

SOURCE	DF:	SUM SQUARES:	MEAN SQUARE:	F - RATIO
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*1. VISION

BETWEEN GROUPS	33	4.25	0.13	3.11
WITHIN GROUPS	1021	42.3	0.04	p = .0001
TOTAL	1054	46.55		

*2. ROBUSTNESS

BETWEEN GROUPS	33	163.59	4.96	8.2
WITHIN GROUPS	1294	737.13	0.6	p = .0001
TOTAL	1327	946.2		

*3. AUTONOMY

BETWEEN GROUPS	33	26.15	0.7	5.99
WITHIN GROUPS	1300	0.82	0.13	p = .0001
TOTAL	1333	197.97		

*1. Total teacher population by school vs. VISION

*2. Total teacher population by school vs. ROBUSTNESS

*3. Total teacher population by school vs. AUTONOMY

score of 2.64. At the school level, Freedom to Select provided the greatest range of individual scores with a minimum mean school score of 2.69 and a maximum of 3.6 or a range of .91 on a 4 point scale.

One of the issues raised by the study was the extent to which the moderate to strong positive direction of each of the vision subscales proved to be a constraining factor in the relationships of the variables. For example, when the Vision Exchange mean is .85 on a 1 point scale there is little room for variance or discrimination between schools. This factor is complicated by a very small standard deviation (.07).

Analysis of Variance Examining Between-School Variance

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to assess the variance between schools related to variance within schools and test the validity of the school level data. The entire teacher population of the study by school served as the independent variable while total vision, total robustness, and total autonomy were the dependent variables (see Table IV). All the F-values were statistically significant, indicating greater between school variance relative to within school variance on the key variables. These findings provided support for the school as an appropriate unit of analysis; all three variables demonstrated construct validity as school-level variables.

CORRELATION ANALYSES PERTAINING TO RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Pearson product moment correlations were run among the three variables: principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy. The results are summarized in Table V. The unit of analysis was the school. Of the high schools contacted, 34 schools actually participated in the study. The teacher sample from one school was too small thereby eliminating it from consideration when performing correlations. The sample for the correlations and other descriptive and inferential analyses was 33 high schools. The correlations for the three variables are as follows.

TABLE V
SUMMARY OF CORRELATIONS FOR THREE VARIABLES

	VT	RT	AT
VISION - TOTAL (VT)	1.00	.61**	.29
ROBUSTNESS - TOTAL (RT)		1.00	.42*
AUTONOMY - TOTAL (AT)			1.00

* $p = <.05$

* $p = <.01$

Positive correlations were established among all three of the variables. The strongest correlation was between principal vision

and environmental robustness ($r = .61, p < .01$). Environmental robustness was positively and significantly correlated with teacher autonomy ($r = .42, p < .05$). The weakest correlation, principal vision with teacher autonomy, while positive ($r = .29$), was not statistically significant.

Analysis of Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between teacher perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision and their perceptions of a robust school climate. Not surprisingly, that correlation was strong ($r = .61, p < .01$). All three of the vision subscale variables: Vision Internalization; Vision Exchange; and Vision Sacrifice; were positively correlated with environmental robustness as a whole. Thus, the first hypothesis was not rejected.

Of the three robustness subscales, principal robustness, and school robustness were significantly correlated with vision. Principal robustness was most significantly correlated with total vision ($r = .63, p < .01$) and school robustness ($r = .49, p < .01$). Teacher robustness was correlated with total vision at $r = .33$ and therefore not significant. (see Table 6)

Of the vision and robustness subscales, the most powerful correlation was between Vision Sacrifice and principal robustness ($r = .66, p < .01$) indicating that teachers and the school community are more willing to make personal sacrifices to accomplish a vision for a principal who is also willing to make personal sacrifices to

TABLE VI
CORRELATION MATRIX FOR THEORETICAL VARIABLES

	VI	VE	VS	VT	TR	PR	SR	RT	FS	FD	FI	FP	FO	FR	AT
VISION INTERNALIZATION	1.00														
VISION EXCHANGE	.51**	1.00													
VISION SACRIFICE	.79**	.67**	1.00												
VISION - TOTAL	.89**	.80**	.94**	1.00											
TEACHER ROBUSTNESS	.13	.50**	.32*	.33*	1.00										
PRINCIPAL ROBUSTNESS	.46**	.58**	.66**	.63**	.45**	1.00									
SCHOOL ROBUSTNESS	.36*	.47**	.51**	.49**	.67**	.62**	1.00								
ROBUSTNESS - TOTAL	.42**	.62**	.63**	.61**	.75**	.89**	.88**	1.00							
FREEDOM TO SELECT	.02	.43**	.24	.24	.62**	.38*	.36*	.50**	1.00						
FREE FROM DISTRUST	.15	.47**	.27	.31*	.30*	.44**	.24	.41**	.66**	1.00					
FREE FROM INFLUENCE	.07	.42**	.21	.23	.32*	.36*	.18	.35*	.68**	.90**	1.00				
FREE TO CONTROL PACE	-.08	.35*	.21	.16	.09	.37*	-.02	.23	.52**	.62**	.63**	1.00			
FREE FROM EXCESS ORGAN	.18	.22	.33*	.27	.06	.26	.20	.23	.48**	.59**	.65**	.58**	1.00		
FREE IN STU RELATIONSHIPS	.01	.43**	.23	.23	.38*	.44**	.24	.43**	.77**	.79**	.78**	.74**	.49**	1.00	
AUTONOMY - TOTAL	.07	.46**	.30*	.29*	.35*	.45**	.24	.42**	.82**	.90**	.92**	.81**	.74**	.89**	1.00

* P = < .05

** P = < .01

VI = VISION INTERNALIZATION	FS = FREEDOM TO SELECT
VE = VISION EXCHANGE	FD = FREEDOM FROM DISTRUST
VS = VISION SACRIFICE	FI = FREEDOM FROM INFLUENCE
VT = VISION TOTAL	FP = FREEDOM TO CONTROL PACE
TR = TEACHER ROBUSTNESS	FO = FREEDOM FROM EXCESSIVE ORGANIZATION
PR = PRINCIPAL ROBUSTNESS	FR = FREEDOM IN STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS
SR = SCHOOL ROBUSTNESS	AT = AUTONOMY TOTAL
RT = ROBUSTNESS TOTAL	

accomplish a vision and who also demonstrates a greater sense of robustness. Vision Sacrifice was correlated positively with school robustness ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), and total robustness ($r = .63$, $p < .01$).

Vision Exchange had a strong overall correlation with total robustness at ($r = .62$, $p < .01$). It also significantly correlated with the three robustness scales. Vision Exchange correlated with teacher robustness ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), principal robustness ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), and school robustness ($r = .47$, $p < .01$).

Vision Internalization was also correlated with robustness although not as strongly as the other two vision subscales. Vision Internalization was correlated with principal robustness ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), with school robustness ($r = .36$, $p < .05$) and with total robustness ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). It was not significantly correlated with teacher robustness.

Analysis of Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis posited a positive relationship between teacher perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision and their own sense of autonomy. These two variables demonstrated the weakest of the three overall correlations ($r = .29$), thus failing to meet the test of significance. There were, however, significant correlations among Vision Exchange and several autonomy subscales.

Vision Internalization failed to significantly correlate with any of the autonomy subscales. In fact, Vision Internalization's relationships with the autonomy subscales were the weakest of the

variables or subscales studied. Vision Exchange, on the other hand, correlated strongly with total autonomy at ($r = .46$, $p < .01$).

Vision Exchange also correlated with five of the six autonomy sub-scales at fairly consistent correlation rates. It correlated with Freedom to Select at ($r = .43$, $p < .05$), Freedom from Distrust at ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), Freedom from Influence ($r = .42$, $p < .05$), Freedom to Control the Pace ($r = .35$, $p < .05$), and Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = .43$, $p < .01$). The only autonomy subscale variable that Vision Exchange did not significantly correlate with was Freedom from Excessive Organization.

While Vision Sacrifice correlated with total autonomy at ($r = .30$) and correlated positively with the autonomy subscales, none of those correlations reached significance. From this finding one might speculate that teachers feel a much greater sense of freedom and autonomy in discussing and exchanging ideas than they do in either internalizing those ideas or sacrificing for them.

Analysis of Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis predicted a significant positive relationship between teacher's sense of autonomy and their perceptions of a robust school climate. Total robustness correlated significantly and positively with total autonomy at ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). As a result of this positive correlation, the third hypothesis was not rejected.

Teacher robustness correlated with autonomy at ($r = .35$, $p < .05$). It had a much stronger correlation with Freedom to Select

($r = .62$, $p < .01$) than with any other autonomy or vision subscales. This finding suggests teachers feel a greater sense of robustness when they experience increased freedom in selecting the techniques of their work. Teacher robustness moderately correlated with Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = .38$, $p < .05$) and demonstrated relatively weak correlations with Freedom from Influence ($r = .32$) and Freedom from Distrust ($r = .30$).

Principal robustness had the highest positive relationship of the three robustness scales when correlated with autonomy. It correlated significantly with five of the six autonomy subscales. Principal robustness correlated with total autonomy at ($r = .45$, $p < .01$). It correlated with Freedom to Select ($r = .38$, $p < .05$), Freedom from Distrust ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), Freedom from Influence ($r = .36$, $p < .05$), Freedom to Control the Pace ($r = .37$, $p < .05$), and Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = .44$, $p < .01$). School Robustness was correlated with only one of the autonomy subscales, Freedom to Select ($r = .38$, $p < .05$).

Statistical Power

An analysis of statistical power was performed on the correlations among the three variables total vision, total robustness, and total autonomy. Cohen and Cohen (1983) have proposed .80 as a convention for statistical power; that is, a statistical test should have an 80% chance of detecting an effect of moderate strength when one is present in the population. Total vision and Total Robustness correlated at $r = .61$. With the sample of $n = 33$ and

level of significance at .05, statistical power exceeded .95. Total robustness and total autonomy correlated at $r = .42$ resulting in statistical power exceeding .70. Finally, total vision and total autonomy correlated at $r = .29$ resulting in statistical power approximating .40.

In summary, given the sample of 33 schools and the chosen significance level of .05, the analysis was able to detect moderate to strong relationships, such as the vision-robustness and robustness-autonomy relationships, but was under powered in detecting relatively weak relationships such as the vision-autonomy correlation. Given a larger sample of schools and therefore more statistical power, the vision-autonomy correlation may have achieved statistical significance. The important finding however, is that the vision-autonomy relationship is relatively weak compared to the other two relationships. A correlation of .29 means that vision and autonomy have less than 10% shared variance ($r^2 = .08$). A relationship which is this weak has little educational significance regardless of whether or not statistical significance is achieved.

Scattergrams Between Pairs of Theoretical Variables

In order to better understand the resulting coefficients between the theoretical variables, scattergrams of each of the pairs of variables were examined (see Figure I). The scattergram, showing Total Robustness as the y and Total Vision as the x ,

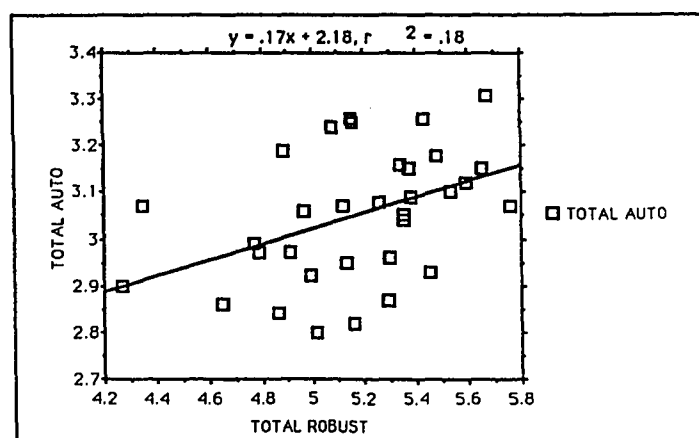
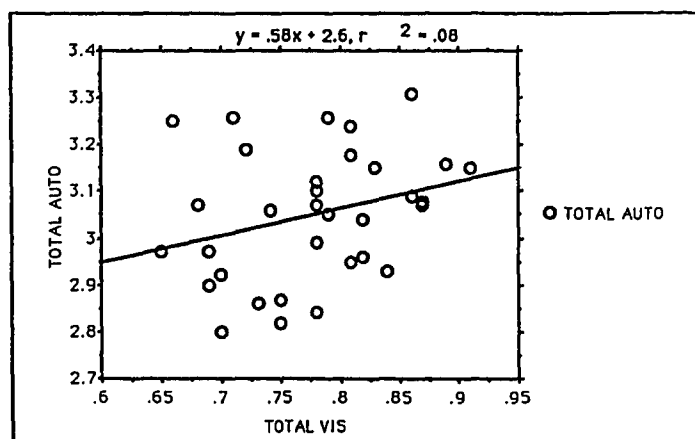
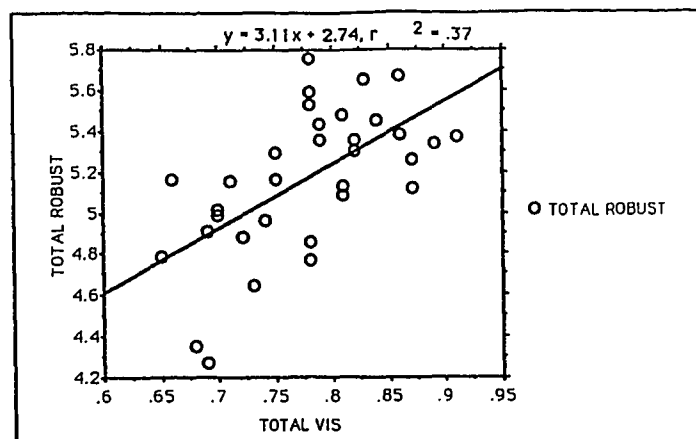


Figure 1. Scattergrams of three variables

demonstrated both the strength and the direction of the relationship between these two variables. In terms of strength, the r^2 value of .37 indicates that vision alone accounts for 37% of the variance in robustness and visa versa. The Total Robustness - Total Autonomy scattergram shows a somewhat weaker positive relationship ($r^2 = .18$) although there were more outliers which might account for the fact that the correlation is not stronger than it is. The scattergram showing Total Vision as y and Total Autonomy as x indicates a rather flat slope; that is, a weak and non significant relationship.

The scattergrams of correlations within the subscales show several significant relationships (see Appendix F). Particular strength can be seen in the correlation of Vision Internalization and Vision Sacrifice ($r = .79$, $p < .01$). Freedom from Distrust and Freedom from Influence demonstrated the highest correlation of any of the subscales, correlating at ($r = .90$, $p < .01$). Of the autonomy subscales, Freedom in Student Relationships had the overall strongest relationships with other autonomy subscales. It correlated with Freedom to Select ($r = .77$, $p < .01$), Freedom from Distrust ($r = .79$, $p < .01$), Freedom from Influence ($r = .78$, $p < .01$), and Freedom to Control Pace ($r = .74$, $p < .01$). These high correlations indicate a high degree of overlap among the autonomy subscales.

Correlations among Demographic and Theoretical Variables

Beyond testing for the three hypotheses, the researcher explored several contextual issues. Correlations were run among the various theoretical variables and demographic variables (see Table VII). Specific concern has been expressed regarding the limitations of studies on the principalship. Specifically, Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) note that "the interdependency or reciprocal character of social relationships, events, and activities is deemphasized and contextual variables are virtually ignored" (p. 234). As a result, it was deemed important to explore the relationships among the theoretical variables and several specified demographic variables.

Of particular interest was the size of the student population and its relationship to vision, robustness, and autonomy. In the past several years, there has been significant attack on the belief that "bigger is better." The work of Boyer (1983); Klausmeier, Lipham, and Daresh (1983); Goodlad (1984);Sizer (1984); Levine and Lezotte (1989); and Barth (1990) affirm the notion of creating smaller, more intimate schools where students and staff are more able to experience community than in the large "mega" high schools. The schools in the study ranged in student population from 845 to 1,725. When the demographic variable, school enrollment, was run with the theoretical variables, no positive significant correlations were established. The data indicated negative correlations were established when enrollment was correlated with principal vision ($r = -.1$), Vision Exchange ($r = -.12$), Freedom to Control the Pace

($r = -.26$), Freedom from Excessive Organization ($r = -.19$), and Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = -.11$). The implication from this data is that the larger the school, the less teachers may feel a sense of control over their work environment. The larger the school, the more likely they feel the organization and bureaucracy controls them.

Another factor regarding the size of a school's student body relates to the student-teacher ratio. For the study, this ratio was computed by dividing the total student population by the number of classroom teachers. While the average student teacher ratio for the schools studied was 18.59:1, there was a wide range from a low of 14.5:1 to a high of 23.5:1. Not surprisingly, the higher the student-teacher ratio, the more negatively teachers felt about their own sense of autonomy ($r = -.23$). The student-teacher ratio was most negatively correlated with Freedom to Control the Pace ($r = -.36$, $p < .05$), and Freedom from Excessive Organization at ($r = -.32$). Teachers in schools with higher student-teacher ratios also had a more negative perception of their principal's robustness ($r = -.21$). This finding would lend some credence to describing leadership effectiveness within a contextual framework. If, for example, teachers are feeling more frustrated or inhibited by the size of their classes or their over all student load, they may be less likely to recognize or validate the meaningful, active, and important roles played by their principals.

The socio-economic variable used in the study was the percentage of students eligible for free or reduced lunches at each

school. The federal guidelines for the lunch program defined the criteria for eligibility. The researcher was particularly interested in any relationships between schools with higher percentages of students receiving free and reduced lunches and the theoretical variables. No correlations were established. It should be noted, however that only seven schools in the study had more than 20% of their student body receiving free or reduced lunches.

One of the questions raised in the study was whether the perceptions of teachers would vary from rural environment to small city to urban center. One-Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were employed with the community types (small town, small city, suburban, and urban) as the independent variables and each of the three theoretical variables as the dependent variable. None of the F-values from the ANOVAS were statistically significance. This finding indicates no statistically significant differences for the theoretical variables across schools grouped by community type.

A caution with this kind of analysis relates to the nature of the state itself. Schools in cities such as Salem and Eugene were classified as urban (cities with a population of over 100,000 people). Because of the characteristics of these communities as the state capital and the major university city, they could be arguably compared more appropriately with suburban schools than with urban schools. However, Oregon has very few urban high schools when describing conditions of comparability with other urban centers in the United States.

TABLE VII
CORRELATIONS OF DEMOGRAPHIC AND THEORETICAL VARIABLES

	Enroll	Free/Red	Stu/Tch	Yrs. Pr	Sch.Imp	OTE	2020
Vision Internalization	0.03	0.06	0.19	-0.12	-0.09	0.21	0.12
Vision Exchange	-0.12	0.18	-0.11	-0.19	0.10	0.15	0.22
Vision Sacrifice	0.03	0.03	-0.05	-0.19	-0.13	0.06	0.24
Total Vision	-0.02	0.10	0.05	-0.20	-0.06	0.16	0.22
Teacher Robustness	0.16	-0.11	-0.04	0.12	0.36*	0.18	0.17
Principal Robustness	-0.13	0.16	-0.21	-0.12	0.10	0.05	0.33
School Robustness	0.12	0.12	0.04	0.14	0.24	0.24	0.40*
Total Robustness	0.01	0.01	-0.11	-0.02	0.23	0.16	0.37*
Freedom To Select	0.16	-0.02	-0.03	-0.18	0.26	-0.18	0.13
Freedom From Distrust	-0.05	-0.08	-0.03	0.07	0.32	-0.14	0.23
Freedom From Influence	-0.08	-0.18	-0.16	-0.07	0.30	-0.07	0.14
Freedom To Control Pace	-0.26	-0.14	-0.36*	-0.05	0.10	-0.28	0.11
Freedom From Excess Org.	-0.19	-0.02	-0.32	0.12	0.07	-0.31	0.14
Freedom In Student Rel.	-0.10	-0.09	-0.23	-0.10	0.22	-0.19	0.23
	-0.10	-0.09	-0.23	-0.05	0.25	-0.23	0.19

* $p = < .05$

ENROLL = ENROLLMENT
 FREE/RED = FREE AND REDUCED LUNCH
 STU/TCH = STUDENT
 TEACHER RATIO
 YRS AS PR = YEARS AS PRINCIPAL

SCH IMP=YEARS INVOLVED IN SCHOOL
 IMPROVEMENT
 OTE=PARTICIPATING IN ONWARD TO
 EXCELLENCE
 2020=PARTICIPATING IN HOUSE BILL
 2020 PROGRAM

There were no correlations of statistical significance established between the theoretical variables and the principal's years of experience as a principal. The greatest correlations with the principal experience variable occurred with total vision ($r = -.2$). Each of the vision variables was negatively correlated with principal experience be a connection between the number of years on the job in a school and teacher perceptions of principal effectiveness. Furthermore, since vision is a relatively new concept in our school leadership vocabulary, perhaps those who have come to their present jobs more recently are more adept in creating a vision consciousness than those who have been in their school for a longer time.

Those schools involved in Onward To Excellence {OTE}, the research based school improvement process developed by and implemented through Northwest Regional Laboratory, exhibited a non-significant positive correlation with vision and robustness and a negative correlation with the autonomy variables. When schools not involved in OTE were coded as (0) and those not involved coded as (1), total autonomy was correlated with OTE at ($r = -.23$). While not statistically significant, it does indicate a trend. Furthermore, OTE schools correlated ($r = -.28$) on the subscale Freedom to Control Pace and ($r = -.31$) on Freedom from Excessive Organization. While this program does call for teacher/ administrator leadership teams to plan for and implement change, no additional resources are provided. This result suggests that as teachers become involved in

school wide improvement efforts, they perceive that they give up some of their control and autonomy in the classroom.

Fourteen participating schools were involved in the state of Oregon's "2020 School Improvement and Professional Development Program." This legislatively initiated program currently gives 97 elementary and secondary schools in the state funding to develop school improvement plans initiated and administered by teacher led site committees. When schools not designated as "2020" schools were coded as (0) and "2020" schools designated as (1), "2020" schools had a slightly positive correlation with total vision ($r = .22$) and total autonomy ($r = .19$). Participating "2020" schools were correlated more strongly with principal robustness ($r = .33$), school robustness ($r = .40$, $p < .05$), and total robustness ($r = .37$, $p < .05$). While there are no financial incentives with the OTE process, each "2020" school receives the equivalent of \$1,000 per teacher, from the state of Oregon, to be spent over the span of 1-2 years by the school on improvement efforts. By virtue of the state statute implementing "2020" programs in schools, teachers have responsibility for participating in the development of the budget for "2020" implementation and the disbursement of funds. The legislative intent of "2020" was to create an environment for teacher empowerment as well as a climate for substantive change at the school level. Grant recipients are encouraged to be innovative, take risks, challenge traditional assumptions and structures related to schooling, and expand new frontiers of school improvement. While the program, now three years old, is still in its formative

stage of development, it has created a sense of excitement and drama for those participating schools. Early studies of those schools indicate a greater sense of visionary leadership and collaboration in the governance and direction of the schools (Goldman, Dunlap, & Conley, 1991). Not surprisingly, teachers in "2020" schools would perceive a greater sense of the vision of their principal, their own autonomy and a climate of robustness and aliveness at their school.

In summary, there were several significant relationships and interesting trends between the demographic and theoretical variables. There were no significant correlations among the size of the student population, the number of students on free and reduced lunches, the population structure of the community, years of principal experience, and the theoretical variables. The student/teacher ratio was negatively correlated with Freedom to Control the Pace. Teacher robustness was positively correlated with the number of years the school was involved in a school improvement effort. School robustness and total robustness were positively correlated with schools participating the "2020" school improvement program.

Comparison with Other Research Data

In their work "Principal Vision, Teacher Sense of Autonomy, and Environmental Robustness," based upon Street's (1988) study of elementary schools in Louisiana, Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) found that principal robustness was correlated with Vision Exchange ($r = .50$, $p < .001$), Vision Sacrifice ($r = .29$, $p < .05$), and

Freedom to Select ($r = .38, p < .01$). Of the correlations between the three principal vision and six teacher autonomy variables, the only one that was significant was the principal's effectiveness in exchanging vision and Freedom From Excessive Organization ($r = .29, p < .05$). They found that their analyses tended to support their first hypothesis: "predicting a positive relationship between principal vision and robustness" (Licata, Greenfield, & Teddlie, 1989, p. 11).

Their second hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between principal vision and teacher autonomy. Their analyses produced only one significant correlation between principal effectiveness in exchanging ideals about school vision (Vision Exchange) and teachers' feelings of freedom from excessive organization ($r = .29, p < .05$).

Their third hypothesis, predicting a positive relationship between principal robustness and teacher autonomy yielded only one significant relationship. That relationship was between principal robustness and teachers' feelings of freedom in selecting techniques of work ($r = .38, p < .01$). As reflected in Table 6 of the current study, the correlation for these two sub-variables in the high schools are at the same statistical correlation ($r = .38, p < .05$).

Of the correlations studied, Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989) found a fairly strong relationship only between vision and principal robustness. The other relationships between vision and autonomy and robustness and autonomy were relatively weak. The current study of the high school found significantly stronger

correlations between vision and robustness (particularly between vision and principal robustness), and robustness and autonomy.

Interviews with Principals

Following an initial analysis of the data, eight principals from participating schools were interviewed. These principals were deemed to be representative of the participants in the study. Individual school mean scores from the three scales were rank ordered from 1 to 33. From that ranking, two principals representing schools in each quartile were selected to be interviewed. They were not informed of their school scores or rankings. Open ended interview questions (see Appendix H), including a set developed by LeSourd and Grady (1990) for their study of "Visionary Attributes in Principals' Descriptions of Their Leadership," were used. Interviews were audio recorded and later transcribed.

Principals were asked to reflect on aspects of their leadership role in their school, including: principal responsibilities, decision making processes, influence, expectations, qualities that make for a good principal, and their vision for their school.

Clearly, those interviewed have given significant thought to their principal role. They were all able to articulate that role and how they went about accomplishing it. They spoke with significant care and feeling for the students in their school. They also spoke without hesitation regarding their vision for their school. There were, however, two contrasting responses to the questions

which support the statistical findings of this study. One related to leadership and the other to control and decision making.

Those principals from schools which scored highest on the survey instruments were more expansive in describing the impact of their leadership role and vision on their school. They spoke more metaphorically and presented themselves as idea people, intentional philosophers, and risk takers. They thrived on learning as a driving force in their school and described themselves in terms such as "head learners," "passionate learners," and "at the peak of my learning curve." Modeling their own learning was a critical component of their leadership style. Like Barth (1990), they portrayed their school as a place where everyone ought to be engaged simultaneously in experiencing the joy, satisfaction, and pain of learning. They were particularly impatient when teachers did not hold the same values for their own learning. They saw themselves as cheerleaders and sparkled when talking of their vision. They talked of nurturing those teachers committed to sharing their vision, getting those on board who might be ambivalent to it, and neutralizing those who might object to it or scuttle it.

Those principals from schools scoring lower on the survey instruments talked more about chain of command and lines of authority. They tended to be more comfortable talking about concrete management oriented aspects of school administration. They talked of seeking input and building consensus through traditional leadership roles such as the administrative team and

department coordinators. They were definitive, however, in describing their role as final arbiter and decision maker in their school.

Principals from schools scoring higher on the survey instruments, on the other hand, tended to blur the leadership and authority distinctions. They talked with ambivalence regarding how decisions were made in their school. They acknowledged that participative decision making processes were critical to their vision for the school and described these processes as very fluid and ambiguous. They expressed keen satisfaction when key decisions were made with involvement and accountability across administrative, department leader, teacher, clerical and even student lines. They expressed impatience when decisions seemed protracted or bogged down, and were particularly frustrated when the bureaucracy got in the way. They tended to talk more openly and animated about conflict and tensions in their school as inherent to effective decision making in the change process.

SUMMARY

Three hypotheses were tested in the current study. The first hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision and their perceptions of a robust school climate. A strong correlation ($r = .61$, $p < .01$) was established. The most important subscale relationships would appear to be vision exchange and

vision sacrifice which correlated strongly with principal robustness at $r = .58$ and $r = .66$ respectively. The second hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision and their own sense of autonomy. These two variables demonstrated the weakest of the three overall correlations ($r = .29$), failing to meet the test of statistical significance. The most important subscale relationships were between vision exchange and Freedom to Select, Freedom from Distrust, Freedom from Influence, and Freedom in Student Relationships. The third hypothesis predicted a positive relationship between teachers' sense of autonomy and their perceptions of a robust school climate. These variables correlated significantly ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). The most important subscale relationships appeared to be between teacher robustness and Freedom to Select and principal robustness and Freedom from Distrust and Freedom in Student Relationships. Because of the positive correlation, the third hypothesis was not rejected.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the meaning of the results of the study. This is followed by a discussion of the conclusions gained from the study and recommendations for policy and practice as well as future research. The conclusions and recommendations are enhanced as the result of discussions with eight principals from participating schools regarding the study, its findings, and meanings attached to the findings.

SUMMARY OF STUDY

The three variables studied were principal vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy. They do not stand alone but are embedded in the leadership discussion. Principal vision is only as powerful a concept as the context in which it is shared (environmental robustness) and the receptivity and willingness to respond to it by teachers (teacher sense of autonomy). This study hypothesized a positive relationship among the three variables.

The vision for a school can be the energizing focus which provides coherence, direction, and a common sense of values for that organization. Environmental robustness is an organizational climate variable related to satisfaction and productivity. Teachers are more likely to act on the principal's vision when they have a sense of efficacy, are satisfied with their work and feel productive. It is believed that principals of schools perceived as robust are more successful in challenging faculty to resolve the disparity between their present performance and a shared vision of what the school should and ought to be (Licata & Johnson, 1989). Thus, a positive correlation between principal vision and environmental robustness was hypothesized.

Most schools are structurally and programmatically designed to allow teachers broad discretion within the classroom. Historically teachers have cherished their sense of discretion and autonomy. If one's vision for a school is to have not only broad teacher acceptance but also their willingness to work and sacrifice for it, that vision must be seen and internalized as a liberating purpose rather than experienced as a burdensome or interfering edict. It is believed that teachers' perceptions of their role expectations and discretionary power in classrooms are positively related to their perceptions of their principals' sense of vision. Hence, a positive relationship between principal vision and teacher sense of autonomy was hypothesized.

It would also seem that teacher perceptions about their work environment is enhanced in a positive climate that encourages

teacher discretionary power and teacher autonomy. It has been suggested that a dramatic school environment where teachers would be more likely to view their role, the role of their principal and the role of their school as "interesting," "challenging," or "meaningful," is correlated with, among other factors, teachers' ability to be self governing and responsible for their own actions. Therefore, it was hypothesized that environmental robustness, as seen in teacher, principal, and school robustness, is positively correlated with teacher sense of autonomy.

Using the Pearson product moment correlation as the statistical test, positive relationships were observed for all three of the hypotheses. The strongest correlation was between the vision of the principal and environmental robustness ($r = .61$, $p < .01$). Environmental robustness was positively and significantly correlated with teacher sense of autonomy ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). The weakest correlation was between principal vision and teacher sense of autonomy ($r = .29$). Through the testing of the hypotheses and further analyses, three basic conclusions have emerged. Each conclusion is discussed below.

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusion # 1: Teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision is positively correlated with their perceptions of a robust school climate.

The positive relationship between vision and robustness was validated in virtually all of the subscales. Vision Internalization ($r = .46, p < .01$), Vision Exchange ($r = .58, p < .01$), and Vision Sacrifice ($r = .66, p < .01$) strongly correlated with principal robustness. In fact, principal robustness' correlation with total vision ($r = .63, p < .01$) was the strongest correlation of any subscale with a variable. This finding indicates that principals who create robust schools may be more successful in getting teachers to accept, internalize, and share the vision of what the school should be, exchange and share ideas about that vision, and actually sacrifice for that vision.

The correlation between Vision Internalization and environmental robustness was positive ($r = .42, p < .05$) although not as strong as the correlation of environmental robustness with Vision Exchange and Vision Sacrifice. Of the vision and robustness subscales, the weakest relationship was between teacher robustness and Vision Internalization ($r = .13$). This suggests that teachers who don't see or accept their role as being as "meaningful" or "important" probably have difficulty in accepting, internalizing, or sharing the significance of a vision of what that school should be.

The relationship between vision and robustness has been clearly established. Based upon an analysis of the data, it could be inferred that in a robust school, two of the more significant indices are the robustness of the principal and his or her ability to enable teachers to be motivated enough to sacrifice in order that the vision might be realized. The robust school is one which is perceived as

"interesting," "fresh," "unusual," "active," "powerful," and "challenging." Certainly these qualities are all important in moving teachers beyond their own provincialism and outside the four walls of their classroom. As implied in the study, the vision of the principal goes far beyond any personal goals or narrow perspective on schooling. It is a vision of what the school ought to be and is embedded in the importance of doing what is right for all children in the school. Sacrificing for that vision means a commitment to taking action to achieve that vision. It means broadening one's horizons to the greater good of the school and its community. It may even mean, as James Baldwin (1961) so powerfully shares in Nobody Knows My Name, that one is able "without bitterness or self pity, to surrender a dream he has long cherished or a privilege he has long possessed, that he is set free - that he has set himself free-for higher dreams, for greater privileges" (p. 117). To bring staff to a point of sacrifice, the principal must be able to effectively exchange ideas with staff and facilitate the internalization of that vision. There is a spiritual quality in all of this for it means creating a community where openness and trust are valued and practiced. It also means encouraging the taking of risks and the willingness to experience failure. It really means creating a climate where appropriate sacrifice ultimately reaps rewards that far outweigh the pain involved (Peck, 1985).

The elements of environmental robustness lend themselves well in creating a climate within the school community for a vision to become a reality. Based upon the data in this study, however, it

would appear that the robust principal role may be more important than either the robust teacher role or robust school in encouraging and compelling teachers to act on the vision.

As noted in the literature, there is a myth that the effective leader must be a dreamer, a visionary, a mystic, and a prophet who generates creative, profound, and noble ideas in a clairvoyant fashion. Yet often times people with these charismatic gifts are least able to take the dreams, exchange their meanings with others, have them internalized, and placed into action. The model that emerges in the literature and is suggested by this study is a model of shared vision and shared leadership. Those principals interviewed, who were perceived by their teachers as more effective in establishing a vision for their school, articulated more clearly the significance of creating a climate for dialogue around fundamental ideas of teaching and learning. Perhaps they understood that the profound and mundane are often times separated by surprisingly small gulfs. Those viewed as more robust by their teachers were also seen as leaders with whom teachers indicated a greater willingness to exchange ideas and desire to work in cooperative relationships.

Based on supplementary interview data, those principals viewed by their teachers as being more visionary, saw themselves as idea people who were in tune with the research, continually analyzing and examining every aspect of school life, and unrepentant in asking "why." As one principal described this aspect of leadership:

Knowledge is power and nobody reads as much as I do and that reading and searching the literature provides a massive amount of influence. Through it I am able to engage others to much more actively pursue their craft knowledge. Increasing the professionalization of this staff requires raising the eloquence of our dialogue through reading and providing opportunities to share information.

Principals interviewed, whether their schools scored higher or lower on the variable scales, had little difficulty articulating a vision for their school. When asked to describe his vision for his school, one principal said:

My number one job is to make people successful. To do that I build on the notion that people need to work together. My vision for the high school is to build community while encouraging people to take risks

Another prefaced his vision with the Cheshire cat's admonition to Alice in Through the Looking Glass. "If you don't know where you're going, any road will get you there." He articulated his vision as follows:

The premise for my vision is innovation, integration, and collaboration. I believe that failure is a good thing; in fact, it is the best form of staff development. People must be allowed to fail. Risk taking and experimenting must be encouraged and supported.

Another was more intentional in describing his vision of preparing students for the workplaces of the future:

My vision is to speak to the student in the workplace. I'm committed to critical inquiry and flexibility which are essential to restructuring. I also want to spread my vision through peer inquiry teams. My vision includes communicating and packaging what's going on at my school.

Another principal discussed vision in terms of having ownership by the participants whether they be staff, students, or community. His vision is driven by technology:

My vision is dynamic. It is creating a desire to see the future knowing that there is never a fixed point in the future. It is measured not in what we are doing but in what we are producing. Part of my vision is in teaching people to let go of what is, and to create a paradigm shift.

Those principals interviewed, who were able to most clearly articulate their role, saw one of their key purposes as keeping their school focused on the mission and goals. This was done through keeping staff informed, asking the right questions, and setting up people for success. They worried, however, that their passion and almost obsessive challenging of the status quo would be seen by teachers, as one principal fretted, "as brow beating them into submission to share my vision for the school. Sometimes I wonder if I just keep talking about it, they will eventually see the light." They leveraged the support of anyone willing to participate in moving the school in the direction they felt it needed to go. They used metaphors such as "dive bomb" to describe how they move in on teachers who, although perhaps reticent to participate in change, show some glimmer of willingness to get on board. Clearly these principals were neither passive bystanders nor "talk show hosts." They moved beyond the exchange of ideas and into the realm of action. They were determined not to be manipulated by the situation they were in or by other players. These same principals

were seen by their teachers as more robust. They understood the complexity of their schools but also described them as "extremely exciting places, full of inventiveness and pioneering." Restructuring and change were the words for the day.

Like Vaill (1989), they were leaders who appeared to have little tolerance for organizational jargon such as "role model," "participative leader," "facilitator," "manager." Instead their metaphors and images of leadership might be more appropriately placed in context of "voyager," "knight," "quarterback," "chaplain," "minister," "father," "mother," or "servant."

Conclusion # 2: There is a positive relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness in advancing a school vision and their sense of autonomy.

The correlation between vision and autonomy was the weakest among the three main variables ($r = .29$). There are, however, several significant relationships which can be addressed. Vision Exchange correlated positively with autonomy ($r = .46$, $p < .01$). Vision Sacrifice demonstrated a positive though non significant relationship with autonomy ($r = .30$) while Vision Internalization had virtually no correlation with autonomy ($r = .07$).

Of the three vision subscales, Vision Exchange had the strongest relationship with the autonomy subscales. It correlated significantly with five of the six autonomy subscales. Vision Sacrifice and Vision Internalization did not correlate with any of the autonomy subscales.

Vision Exchange is the only vision subscale which calls for no commitment from the teachers. Vision Internalization requires teachers to accept and share in the vision. Vision Sacrifice requires teachers to take action and go beyond the call of duty in order to see that the vision is realized. Vision Exchange, on the other hand, measures the perceived success the principal has experienced in exchanging and sharing ideas with teachers, students, parents, superiors, and the community, in order to achieve the vision. The concept of Vision Exchange is embedded in a public process of interaction and critical analysis of a vision. It refers to the principal's effectiveness in exchanging rather than imposing ideas on virtually all clients of the greater school community. Theoretically, it is from that exchange that the vision is actually achieved.

It is much safer for teachers to observe, appreciate and value the principal's ability to exchange ideas and interact with them in a public manner than to actually take action on those ideas. As teachers perceive they are going to be affected by a vision, they may be less likely to incorporate that vision, particularly if it means giving up their sense of autonomy to some degree.

Vision Exchange correlated most positively with Freedom from Distrust ($r = .47, p < .01$). It also correlated significantly with Freedom to Select ($r = .43, p < .05$), Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = .43, p < .05$), and Freedom from Influence ($r = .42, p < .05$). It could be speculated that teachers who positively view their principal's ability to exchange ideas perceive him or her as

open, communicative, and non-controlling. They, therefore, may be more trusting and less bound by the aura and formal authority of the principal.

Ironically, the only autonomy subscale which did not correlate with Vision Exchange, Freedom from Excessive School Organization ($r = .22$), was the subscale to correlate most positively with Vision Sacrifice ($r = .33$). This phenomenon suggests that teachers who felt freer from the bureaucratic organization of the school were more willing to internalize a vision and act on it.

If teachers are to have a sense of autonomy and empowerment in their roles, the mere exchange of ideas with their principal regarding a vision for their school may not be sufficient. Teachers would have to act on that vision, and action implies commitment. Traditional views of teacher autonomy as synonymous with teacher power, discretion, independence, and isolation would no longer seem to be appropriate. Autonomy, as described in this study, may mean giving up some independence and control to act for a "greater good" and a common commitment to students. That "greater good" can be defined by the vision for the school. Ironically, then, internalization of the vision, and ultimately sacrifice for it could lead to greater autonomy. Thus a paradox emerges in the relationship of vision and autonomy. If autonomy is embedded in the concept of empowerment and professionalization of staff, perhaps the teacher has to be willing, of his or her own volition, to freely share in and sacrifice for that vision to truly gain autonomy.

Those principals interviewed who were perceived by teachers as more effective in setting forth a vision, thriving in a robust environment, and supporting teacher autonomy saw their jobs as "building coalitions of leaders among teachers so that everything doesn't have to come from the command central post of the principalship." They were committed to collaborating with teachers on significant decision making models. They described their role as both mediator and shield in protecting school wide decision making from district interference. They talked about themselves as "data disseminators," "boundary pushers," "consensus builders," "turf breakers," and "community makers." As with creating a school vision, the process involving decision making was as fundamental to the health of the school as the actual decisions themselves. As one principal described his role, "I'm into less input and more innovation and collaborative decision making."

Principals interviewed from schools where vision, environmental robustness, and teacher sense of autonomy were not perceived as positively affirmed cooperative decision making in their schools but they restricted the parameters for staff decision making. They described their own roles as "bottom liners." They used phrases such as "The buck ultimately stops with me," "I'm the one the superintendent holds accountable" and "final decisions rest with me" in describing how decisions are made at their schools.

One of the principals interviewed offered grading practices as an indicator of the conflict between principal vision and teacher sense of autonomy. When he came to the school he discovered a

high failure rate for students. He articulated his belief that the staff must be committed to the success of all students. However, when he tried to inculcate his staff with this belief they resisted, accusing him of interfering with their academic freedom. His experience parallels findings from other studies regarding perceived administrative interference with teacher zones of influence (Lortie, 1975; McLaughlin et al., 1986; Nyberg & Farber, 1986; Porter 1989; Powell et al., 1985; Shedd & Bacharach, 1991; Vidich & McReynolds, 1971).

Clearly, the relationship between vision and autonomy is the most perplexing and paradoxical of the three sets of variables. It is the most likely to create conflict. If a vision is imposed on teachers, the likelihood of its acceptance is greatly diminished. The process of creating a shared vision is not without potential for tension and conflict. Roles and relationships become, by their very nature, more ambiguous and ambiguity breeds discomfort. Principals who are effective in creating a shared vision while sustaining a climate of teacher autonomy do indeed operate in a state of painful tension as they seek to balance the competing demands of these variables. It may be at this point that the variable of robustness is particularly significant.

As the data indicated, principal robustness was much higher in schools where a stronger sense of vision was perceived. It was also higher in schools where teachers perceived they had a greater sense of autonomy. Conversely, in schools where principal vision and teacher autonomy scores were lower, principal robustness was also

generally lower. Therefore, it might be speculated that principals who are perceived as more robust are better able to address the ambiguities of vision and autonomy. Furthermore, they might also be better equipped to channel the tensions and cross purposes into meaningful action.

Once again traditional roles and relationships between teachers and the principal are no longer sufficient. In order to act on the vision, teachers need to be involved in creating it. To this end they need to be involved more substantively in decision making and school governance. Professionalism needs to be increased along with shared authority, the breaking down of hierarchies, and the creation of strong collegial relationships.

As with the study by Licata, Greenfield, and Teddlie (1989), the findings of this study could support the notion that whoever initially creates the vision may be less important than the extent to which the staff actually supports the vision. High school principals who view relationships between themselves and their teachers as static and autocratic will have little success, over the long haul, in getting teachers to support, work for, and sacrifice for a common vision. Further, "public and critical analysis of a vision in terms of what is morally appropriate and what is achievable may be our best defense against misguided or unscrupulous leadership" (p. 16).

Principals who are able to move their schools positively toward doing what is right for all children in their school must be willing to accomplish this vision through others. Formal relationships with teachers as a collective group with collective

power must be reconsidered. Schools can no longer be institutions of fossilized power (i.e. teacher union, or informal teacher power brokering). The principal with a shared vision for the school must have the support and involvement of the teachers, students, community, and the school district. Thus, school districts need to consider giving local schools greater freedom and flexibility in decision making to enhance a climate and culture of mutual collaboration. Perhaps the lower correlation ($r = .29$) on the second hypothesis suggests the fragile nature of the authority relationship between principals and teachers. It also suggests the importance of a transformational type of leadership reflected in principal responsiveness to teacher values, needs, and interests as the basis for an authority relationship resulting in voluntary compliance (acceptance) by teachers of the principal's vision.

Given the norms of the occupation, the relationship between vision and autonomy may be a key indicator of how the principal breaks into the teacher's sphere. He or she may accomplish this by drawing connections between teachers' needs and priorities and a vision espoused for the school.

Conclusion # 3: There is a significant positive relationship between teachers' sense of autonomy and their perceptions of a robust school climate.

The relationship between autonomy and robustness was significant ($r = .42$, $p < .05$). The strongest subscale correlations with autonomy were principal robustness ($r = .45$, $p < .01$) and teacher robustness ($r = .35$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, principal robustness

correlated significantly with five of the six autonomy subscales and teacher robustness correlated with four. There was only one significant correlation between school robustness and the autonomy subscales.

Four of the autonomy subscales correlated significantly with total robustness. The strongest was Freedom to Select ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), followed by Freedom in Student Relationships ($r = .43$, $p < .05$), Freedom from Distrust ($r = .41$, $p < .05$), and Freedom from Influence ($r = .35$, $p < .05$).

The strongest correlation among the robustness and autonomy sub-scales was between teacher robustness and Freedom to Select ($r = .62$, $p < .01$). Teachers who saw their roles as "important", "powerful", and "challenging", felt much more positively about their ability to select the techniques of their work. Teachers who saw their role as robust also felt greater freedom in student relationships ($r = .38$, $p < .05$).

When principal robustness was perceived positively, teachers felt greater freedom from distrust ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), more freedom in student relationships ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), more freedom to select ($r = .38$, $p < .05$), more freedom to control the pace of student work ($r = .37$, $p < .05$), and more freedom from influence ($r = .36$, $p < .05$). When teachers believed their principal was robust, they appeared to exhibit greater ownership and autonomy in their roles.

Principals interviewed who were perceived as more robust described a variety of avenues for getting teachers to participate in and accept ownership for their schools. One described it in terms of

"getting more teachers playing." He talked of actively pushing staff to be involved with every aspect of the school even though, he recognized, some staff were not comfortable with that style.

Another talked of reducing cynics and cynicism within the staff. Principals interviewed saw themselves as challenging staff to know the research and examine everything critically. They described their commitment to making staff more accountable while creating an environment where everyone is a researcher and ideas and data are freely and openly shared. They also portrayed a climate where risk-taking was rewarded rather than punished and emphasis was given to "why innovations and ideas by teachers will work rather than all the reasons why they won't."

In the Street (1988) study of teachers in 57 elementary schools in Louisiana, robustness and autonomy were not highly correlated ($r = .18$) versus ($r = .42, p < .05$) in this study. Although the correlations between autonomy and the various robustness subscales resulted in a positive direction in the Street study, none were statistically significant. One possible reason the high school sample was not only statistically significant but also much stronger than the elementary sample might be that high school teachers, by the very nature of their work, expect greater autonomy and less supervision than their elementary counterparts. High school teachers pride themselves in their independence and discretion over instruction and curriculum issues. While it is quite common for an elementary school to embrace a uniform teaching or discipline model, such cohesion at the high school is rare.

Further, high schools might be perceived as organizations where robustness is more evident than in elementary schools. It could be argued, for example, that high schools, with activities such as drama, athletics, music, student government, a smorgasbord of classes, and a clearly accepted role in the community, are more likely to be organisms which encourage the metaphor used to describe robustness, "school as interactive theater" (Licata & Johnson, 1989, p. 18). It may simply be that the RSD is not as good a measure of climate at the elementary level. Metaphorically, a temperature gauge which assesses hot and cold weather is accurate for certain weather conditions but is obviously not adequate for other aspects of climate such as humidity, wind speed, or cloudiness. Perhaps the RSD, like the temperature gauge, is a more suitable "fit" for certain climate aspects in the high school which may not be as relevant in elementary schools.

Another reason for the discrepancy between elementary and high schools might be more a factor of the environment and economics than anything else. The elementary sample was from three rural districts in Southern Louisiana. The high schools in Oregon, on the whole, represent a more affluent middle class environment.

Further Implications

Initially, this study viewed the vision of the principal as the catalyst for leadership in the high school. However, based on the findings of the study, robustness may, in fact, play an essential role.

Robustness implies less routinization, repetition, and monotony in the school structure. Principals who understand the importance of environmental robustness for themselves, their teachers, and their schools, may choose to not be inundated with the daily minutia of school business. They are less likely to insist on uniformity or prescribed ways of doing things. They would also appear to be more capable to cope with the "white water" of a world in turbulence and chaotic change. As a result, they are more likely to encourage teacher freedom to: select the techniques of their work, control the pace of student work, and have greater freedom in and responsibility for student relationships. In so doing, they may create an environment of trust and caring where teachers feel free from undue pressure or influence.

As a school climate variable, it would seem that school robustness can positively influence principal and teacher robustness and vice versa. To better understand how the robustness subscales impact and influence one another, it would be helpful to further clarify the relationships within this variable. In creating a climate for robustness, a principal can establish an environment where teachers are engaged in the joy and pain of learning and participating in a vibrant community. In such a community, teachers may feel more empowered to positively influence their own world and the life of the school.

While robust schools are not necessarily effective ones, schools characterized by robustness, legitimate professional leadership, and goal direction are clearly the most promising in

terms of desired student outcomes (Licata & Johnson, 1989). A robust principal is more likely to develop a shared vision with various members of the school community. Schools would do well to consider principal robustness as a major characteristic in the hiring process. Yet, as one principal cautioned:

If you're looking for a robust principal without considering vision, you're looking at an outdated model. The effective principal concept has changed in the past ten years. The expectation that the principal needs to be all things to all people no longer works. Regardless of how vocal, or inspirational, or robust the principal, it is only when teachers become involved in the leadership of the school and see the school differently that the school starts to move.

The leadership of the high school principal is more than visions and ideas, robustness and climate, or autonomy and independence, as important as each might be. It is more than surveys and quantifiable data. The correlations discussed in this paper are more than statistics and numbers. They describe relationships among not only variables but more importantly, among people. Ultimately, as Peter Vaill (1989) portrays leadership, it is all about people. There is nothing a leader can do that does not depend for its effectiveness on the meaning that other people attach to it. Leadership, then, is making and interpreting meaning, it is building and sustaining community. It is caring for and feeding the members of the community. It is building trust while encouraging the taking of risks. Vaill adds to this description the notion of leader as robust steward who values faith in the human prospect over the objectives and techniques of a particular

program or course of action. His credo "helping men and women live and work purposefully and decently in the midst of seeming paradox and contradiction" (p. 212) would serve just as well for the high school principal. It is within this context that the interdependence of the three variables comes more clearly into view.

Just as this study has implications for principals in high schools, it also has implications for district officials in hiring principals and enhancing their growth and success as they do the work of the principalship. When hiring a new high school principal both the vision and autonomy variables might be considered as defining and embellishing qualities of robustness. Districts would do well to consider candidates who are able to focus on "the big picture" and are less likely to major in minors. Successful candidates should be able to thrive in an environment which gives strong adherence to a few broad guiding values and allows considerable discretion and autonomy in daily operations. They also should be individuals who: can articulate a clear sense of direction and vision; are friendly and supportive in relationships; provide active and visible leadership; create a climate of openness in communications; establish positive supervisory relationships with the emphasis on opportunities for personal and professional growth; relate well to students and are committed to their involvement in the life of the school; model learning and leading; and welcome diversity of ideas, and positions.

While those interviewed affirmed these characteristics, they also described some additional qualities they would look for in a successful high school principal. Their responses include:

- Someone who has a real sense of the world and world view
- Someone who reads the right kind of stuff
- Someone with the knowledge of how to create a vision
- Someone who has the ability to focus the staff and focus himself or herself
- Someone who is research oriented, both in terms of knowledge and application
- Someone who models learning as well as leading
- Someone who is a people grower, who can make others stronger and bring out the best in them
- Someone with a lot of juggling skills who can balance agendas at once
- Someone who loves kids and wants to make the schools best for them
- Someone who can ask the right questions
- Someone who is not intimidated by change and is a risk taker

These qualities, while not inclusive, certainly embrace the variables studied in this project. If hope is defined as "waiting with anticipation for something we do not possess," these qualities offer us a sense of hopefulness in finding or creating high caliber high school principals for a new millennium.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

1. Charters' (1974) "Teacher Sense of Autonomy Scale" was developed as a measure of teacher control over his or her work environment. This scale is somewhat inadequate in dealing with the issues of 1990s. It does not, for example, address issues such as empowerment, site-based decision making, cooperative learning, and team teaching and other contemporary teaching styles. Collaboration as a means of professional autonomy is not part of the Charters survey. This limitation was insightfully addressed by one of the teachers who wrote in response to question 68 (This is one school, at least, in which I do not feel as though someone were peering over my shoulder at the way I teach): "This is a bad question. Peering needn't be negative. We do a lot of sharing of ideas for teaching and have an in school 'ambassador' program to get into each other's rooms and I like it."

2. The true/false categories of the "School Vision Inventory" are very limiting. This can be seen in the very narrow range of standard deviation statistics for this instrument (see Table III). Future researchers might consider expanding this scale from true/false categories to a graded Likert scale.

3. Although it is labeled "School Vision Inventory," the instrument actually deals primarily with the vision of the principal. The concept of principal vision would appear to be too limiting since it does not represent an emerging concept of vision developed by a leadership team. Consideration should be given to redesigning the

"School Vision Inventory" to correlate with current practice of shared vision. Also, the term vision sacrifice is or can be misconstrued. It tends to create an uncomfortable and emotional response. As one teacher wrote, "Sacrifice is too strong a word when we are salaried people and talking about lost personal time."

4. Each of the three variables suggests some caution in interpretation. For example robust schools are not necessarily effective ones any more than are autonomous teachers necessarily more effective in the classroom. In future research, the hypotheses should be tested against achievement levels, outcome measures of high schools, attendance, dropout statistics, or other quantifiable data. It would be of value to consider the impact of vision on the performance of the school.

5. Future researchers should look more closely and in different ways at robustness and vision variables and their relationships. For example, are principal vision and principal robustness totally different variables or are they really variations of the same concept? Also, it may be useful to unpack the robustness measure itself. What is its association with other climate measures? Is there, for example, a parallel but different measure of elementary school climate? Also, how much of the robust school climate is attributable to principal action and how much to the community, students, and/or parents (e.g. a winning athletic program, energetic or heavily involved parents).

6. Further analysis of the nine high schools which scored above the mean on all three of the variables and the seven high

schools which scored below the mean on all three variables could be very constructive. By spending time on the campuses while using qualitative methods such as school observations and interviews, one might gain rich understandings regarding these three variables and their impact on leadership and effective schools.

7. The data used for this study came primarily from a survey based on three variables. The instruments themselves and the quantitative data generated are limited in the kind of questions they can answer. Correlations tell us the degree of relationship between variables but don't purport to justify or confirm any cause and effect. Subsequent studies which would refine the variables and instruments and examine potential causal relationships, would add to our body of knowledge. Such designs as longitudinal studies, case studies, and other designs incorporating a temporal dimension may permit examination of causal relationships among these variables (as well as among others).

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APPENDIX A

VISION SURVEY

VISION SURVEY

Directions:

There are 17 statements about "vision" in this questionnaire. For our purposes, vision is defined as an image one might have about what one's school should be like. You are to decide which statements below are true and which are false.

Circle "T" (true) if you think a statement is true or mostly true of vision in your school. Circle "F" (false) if you think the statement is false or mostly false in regard to vision in your school.

T F My principal regularly emphasizes the importance of doing what is right for all children in this school.

T F My principal has a vision of what this school ought to be.

If you have answered "false" to either of these questions, DO NOT answer the remaining questions on this page and proceed to the next part.

T F This vision can be achieved.

T F This vision serves the best interests of all children in this school.

T F I share in this vision.

T F I have accepted this vision of my own free will.

T F My principal effectively exchanges ideas with teachers to achieve this vision.

T F My principal effectively exchanges ideas with students to achieve this vision.

T F My principal effectively exchanges ideas with parents to achieve this vision.

T F My principal effectively exchanges ideas with superiors to achieve this vision.

T F My principal effectively exchanges ideas with members of the community to achieve this vision.

T F My principal regularly encourages teachers to make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.

T F My principal regularly encourages other members of the school community to make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.

T F I make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.

- T F Other members of the school community regularly make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.
- T F My principal regularly makes personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.
- T F My school is making meaningful progress toward accomplishing our vision.

APPENDIX B

ROBUSTNESS SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

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**177
179-180**

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APPENDIX C

TEACHER AUTONOMY

APPENDIX D

SCHOOL VISION INVENTORY SUBSCALE

SCHOOL VISION INVENTORY SUBSCALE

SUBSCALE	ITEMS
1. INTERNALIZATION	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. This vision can be achieved.2. This vision serves the best interests of all children in this school.3. I share in this vision.4. I have accepted this vision of my own free will.
2. EXCHANGE	<ol style="list-style-type: none">5. My principal effectively exchanges ideas with teachers to achieve this vision.6. My principal effectively exchanges ideas with students to achieve this vision7. My principal effectively exchanges ideas with parents to achieve this vision.8. My principal effectively exchanges ideas with superiors to achieve this vision.9. My principal effectively exchanges ideas with members of the community to achieve this vision.
3. SACRIFICE	<ol style="list-style-type: none">10. My principal regularly encourages teachers to make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.11. My principal regularly encourages other members of the school-community to make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.12. I make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.13. Other members of the school community regularly make personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.14. My principal regularly makes personal sacrifices to accomplish this vision.

APPENDIX E

TEACHER SENSE OF AUTONOMY SUBSCALE

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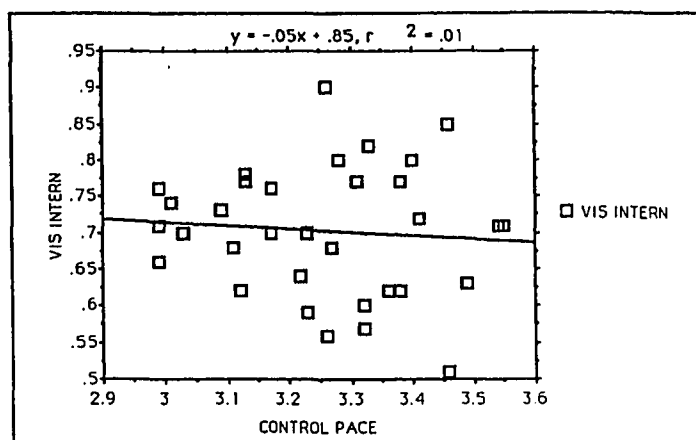
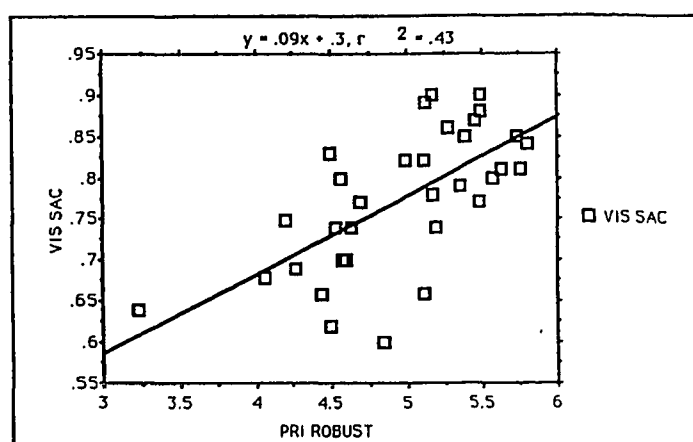
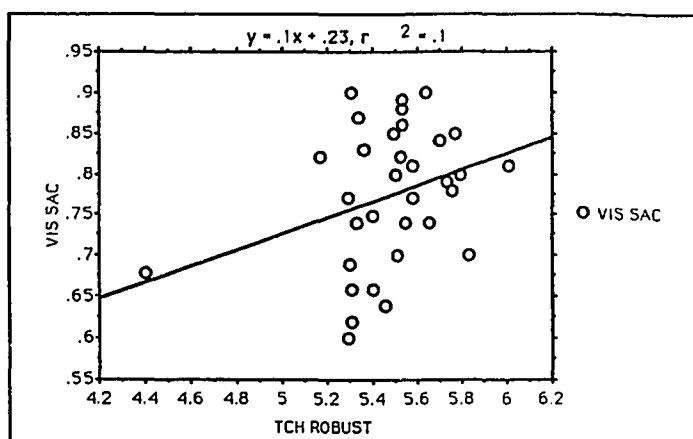
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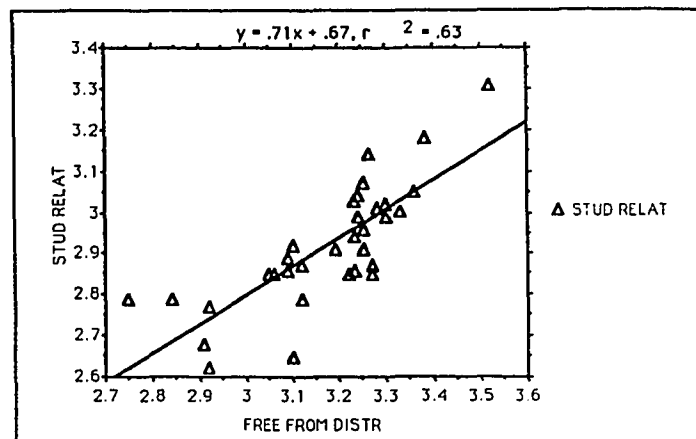
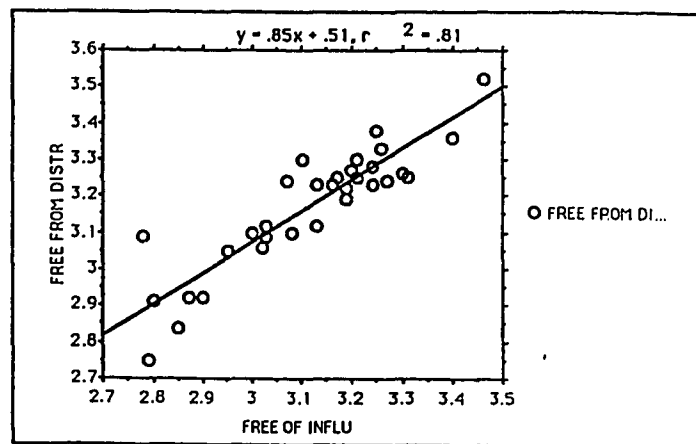
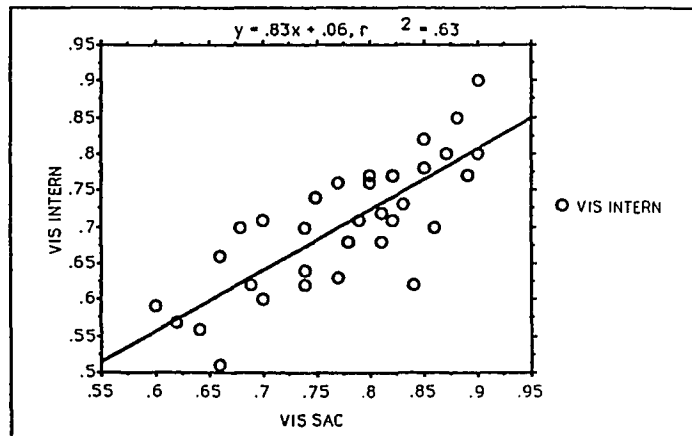
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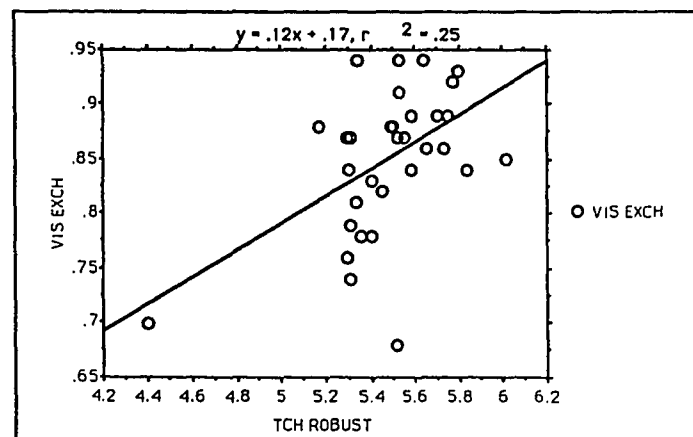
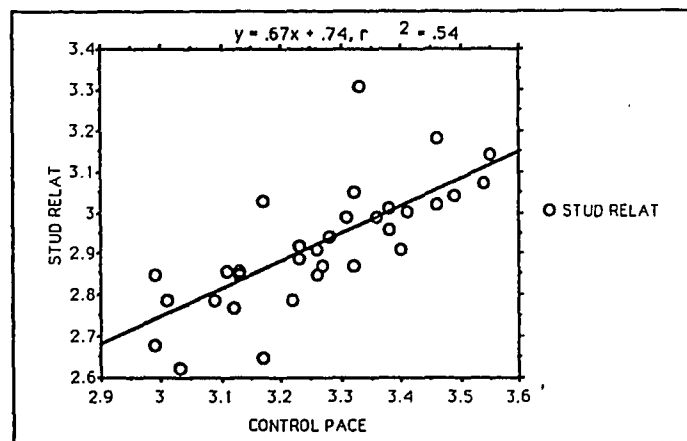
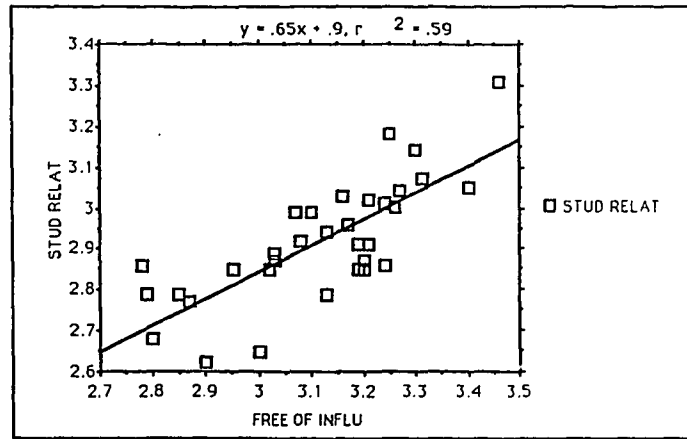
APPENDIX F

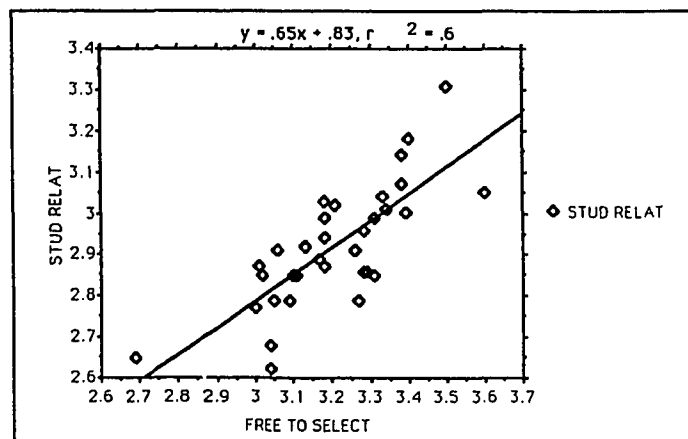
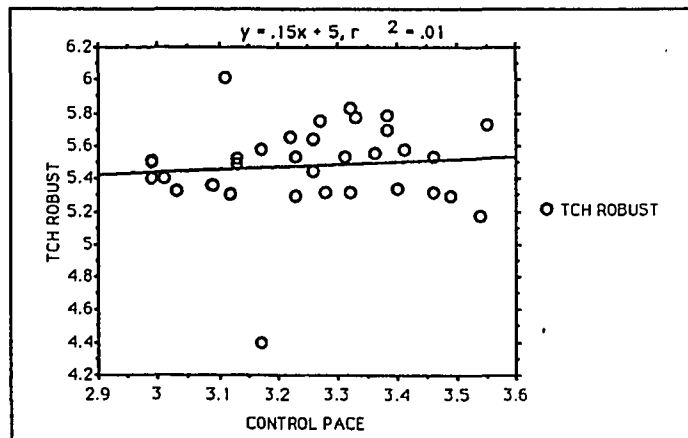
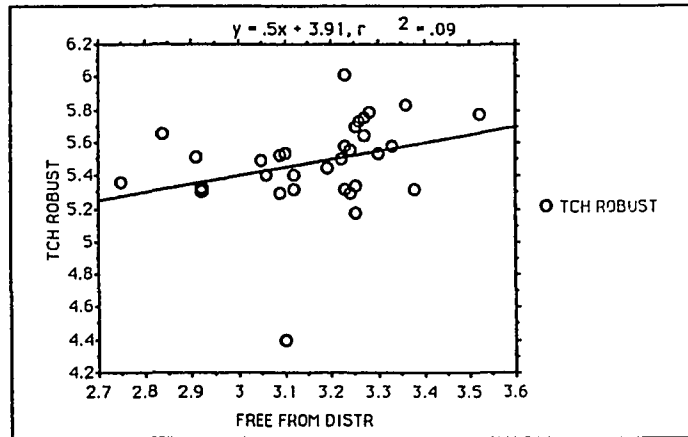
SCATTERGRAMS

SCATTERGRAMS









APPENDIX G

DATA BY SCHOOLS

DATA BY SCHOOLS

SCHOOL	N	VI	VE	VS	VT	TR	PR	SR	RT	FS	FD	FI	CP	EO	SR	AT	
1	26	0.90	0.94	0.90	0.91	5.64	5.17	5.29	5.37	3.31	3.27	3.20	3.26	3.01	2.85	3.15	
2	49	0.80	0.87	0.90	0.86	5.31	5.49	5.35	5.38	3.18	3.23	3.13	3.28	2.76	2.94	3.09	
3	28	0.80	0.94	0.87	0.87	5.34	5.46	4.56	5.12	3.06	3.25	3.21	3.40	2.59	2.91	3.07	
4	32	0.70	0.70	0.68	0.69	4.40	4.06	4.35	4.27	2.69	3.10	3.00	3.17	2.82	2.65	2.90	
5	29	0.71	0.68	0.70	0.70	5.51	4.57	4.96	5.01	3.04	2.91	2.80	2.99	2.41	2.68	2.80	
6	25	0.71	0.86	0.79	0.79	5.73	5.36	5.19	5.43	3.38	3.26	3.30	3.55	2.93	3.14	3.26	
7	35	0.85	0.94	0.88	0.89	5.53	5.49	5.00	5.34	3.21	3.30	3.21	3.46	2.78	3.02	3.16	
8	48	0.57	0.74	0.62	0.65	5.31	4.50	4.55	4.79	3.01	3.12	3.03	3.32	2.45	2.87	2.97	
9	36	0.56	0.82	0.64	0.68	5.45	3.23	4.38	4.35	3.26	3.19	3.19	3.26	2.64	2.91	3.07	
10	47	0.74	0.83	0.75	0.78	5.40	4.19	4.73	4.77	3.27	3.12	3.13	3.01	2.59	2.79	2.99	
11	50	0.70	0.81	0.74	0.75	5.33	5.20	4.96	5.16	3.04	2.92	2.90	3.03	2.41	2.62	2.82	
12	57	0.78	0.88	0.85	0.84	5.49	5.39	5.48	5.45	3.11	3.05	2.95	3.13	2.49	2.85	2.93	
13	61	0.76	0.88	0.80	0.81	5.50	4.56	5.34	5.13	3.02	3.22	3.19	2.99	2.45	2.85	2.95	
14	37	0.76	0.84	0.77	0.79	5.58	5.48	5.00	5.35	3.18	3.23	3.16	3.17	2.54	3.03	3.05	
15	9	0.83	0.95	0.87	0.88	5.92	6.02	6.02	5.99	3.39	3.30	3.33	3.37	2.84	3.07	3.22	
16	44	0.68	0.89	0.78	0.78	5.75	5.17	5.68	5.53	3.18	3.27	3.20	3.27	2.83	2.87	3.10	
17	22	0.77	0.94	0.89	0.87	5.53	5.13	5.11	5.26	3.31	3.30	3.10	3.31	2.48	2.99	3.08	
18	28	0.51	0.79	0.66	0.66	5.31	5.12	5.07	5.16	3.40	3.38	3.25	3.46	2.86	3.18	3.25	
19	29	0.68	0.85	0.81	0.78	6.01	5.63	5.65	5.76	3.29	3.23	3.24	3.11	2.67	2.86	3.07	
20	58	0.77	0.87	0.82	0.82	5.52	4.99	5.40	5.30	3.28	3.09	2.78	3.13	2.63	2.86	2.96	
21	29	0.62	0.87	0.74	0.74	5.55	4.53	4.80	4.96	3.18	3.24	3.07	3.36	2.52	2.99	3.06	
22	38	0.71	0.88	0.82	0.81	5.17	5.11	4.96	5.08	3.38	3.25	3.31	3.54	2.87	3.07	3.24	
23	36	0.82	0.92	0.85	0.86	5.77	5.74	5.49	5.67	3.50	3.52	3.46	3.33	2.76	3.31	3.31	
24	34	0.63	0.76	0.77	0.72	5.29	4.69	4.66	4.88	3.33	3.24	3.27	3.49	2.75	3.04	3.19	
25	58	0.77	0.93	0.80	0.83	5.79	5.57	5.59	5.65	3.34	3.28	3.24	3.38	2.64	3.01	3.15	
26	45	0.72	0.89	0.81	0.81	5.58	5.76	5.09	5.48	3.39	3.33	3.26	3.41	2.66	3.00	3.18	
27	47	0.66	0.78	0.66	0.70	5.40	4.44	5.14	4.99	3.10	3.06	3.02	2.99	2.52	2.85	2.92	
28	42	0.60	0.84	0.70	0.71	5.83	4.60	5.03	5.15	3.60	3.36	3.40	3.32	2.85	3.05	3.26	
29	71	0.73	0.78	0.83	0.78	5.36	4.49	4.74	4.86	3.09	2.75	2.79	3.09	2.55	2.79	2.84	
30	32	0.64	0.86	0.74	0.75	5.65	4.63	5.58	5.29	3.05	2.84	2.85	3.22	2.44	2.79	2.87	
31	22	0.70	0.91	0.86	0.82	5.53	5.28	5.24	5.35	3.13	3.10	3.08	3.23	2.78	2.92	3.04	
32	35	0.59	0.87	0.60	0.69	5.29	4.84	4.61	4.91	3.17	3.09	3.03	3.23	2.40	2.89	2.97	
33	27	0.62	0.89	0.84	0.78	5.70	5.81	5.26	5.59	3.28	3.25	3.17	3.38	2.69	2.96	3.12	
34	72	0.62	0.84	0.69	0.73	5.30	4.27	4.39	4.65	3.02	2.92	2.87	3.12	2.46	2.75	2.86	
MEAN	39	0.71	0.85	0.78	0.78	5.49	5.00	5.08	5.19	3.21	3.18	3.12	3.26	2.65	2.92	3.06	
VARIANCE		0.02	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.36	0.16	0.14	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	
STAND DEV		0.14	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.28	0.60	0.40	0.37	0.20	0.20	0.21	0.20	0.22	0.19	0.20	
TOTAL	1338																
N=	NUMBER OF RESPONSES																
VI =	VISION INTERNALIZATION					FS =	FREEDOM TO SELECT										
VE =	VISION EXCHANGE					FD =	FREEDOM FROM DISTRUST										
VS =	VISION SACRIFICE					FI =	FREEDOM FROM INFLUENCE										
VT =	VISION TOTAL					CP =	FREEDOM TO CONTROL PACE										
TR =	TEACHER ROBUSTNESS					EO =	FREEDOM FROM EXCESSIVE ORGANIZATION										
PR =	PRINCIPAL ROBUSTNESS					SR =	FREEDOM IN STUDENT RELATIONS										
SR =	SCHOOL ROBUSTNESS					AT =	AUTONOMY TOTAL										
RT =	ROBUSTNESS TOTAL																

APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SELECTED PRINCIPALS

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SELECTED PRINCIPALS

1. How would you describe yourself as a principal?
2. Tell me about your responsibilities as principal.
3. What do you expect of yourself as a principal?
4. How do you tell if you're a good principal?
5. What makes a good principal?
6. How would you describe your school?
7. Tell me about your leadership in the school.
8. How are decisions made in your school?
9. how would you describe your influence in your school?
10. how would other people describe you as a principal?
11. What is your vision for your school?

APPENDIX I

**LETTER SENT TO ALL PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS
PRIOR TO SENDING OUT THE SURVEY**

LETTER SENT TO ALL PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS
PRIOR TO SENDING OUT THE SURVEY

October 15, 1990

Dear Principal:

Thank you for your willingness to involve your teaching staff with my survey on educational leadership and effective schools. This study is part of my doctoral program in Educational Leadership at Portland State University. As a high school principal for eight years and now in my job as Sprague Area Director, I have been very interested in the conditions necessary for schools to be effective. This survey investigates the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their principal's vision, teacher work autonomy, and school climate. In the effective schools literature, these three conditions are some of the most common and integral factors.

This survey is being given to the teaching staffs of approximately 40 high schools in the State of Oregon. Participation is voluntary and respondent anonymity is, of course guaranteed. Neither you, your staff, nor your school will be identified in the study.

This study will involve you and the professional staff of your school. The teaching faculty will be asked to complete a short survey which will require about 15 minutes of their time. I would suggest that the surveys be completed at a staff meeting.

Each principal is requested to complete the same survey on a different form. Please complete it from the perspective of how you believe your teachers will respond.

The surveys should arrive by November 2, 1990. They should be returned by Wednesday, November 21, 1990. If you have any questions or if there are any concerns, please do not hesitate to call me.

Again thank you very much for your assistance. Without your help, this project would not be possible.

Sincerely,

Daniel N. Johnson 399-2638

APPENDIX J

LETTER ACCOMPANYING SURVEYS

LETTER ACCOMPANYING SURVEYS

Daniel N. Johnson
Sprague Area Operations
2572 Commercial Street S.
Salem OR. 97302

November 1, 1990

Dear Principal:

Enclosed are the surveys for your teaching staff. The surveys are a key component of my doctoral dissertation from Portland State University. The surveys investigate the relationship between three conditions in the effective school literature. The variables are teachers' perceptions of their principal's vision, teacher work autonomy, and school climate.

Again I want to remind you that participation is voluntary and respondent anonymity is guaranteed. Neither you, your staff, nor your school will be identified in the study.

The teaching faculty is asked to complete the survey which will require about 15 minutes of their time. I would suggest that the surveys be completed at a staff meeting. Teachers will be asked to complete the surveys and return them to a teacher trusted by the staff. That teacher will then place the surveys in the provided envelope and send them to me.

You are requested to complete the enclosed form and the instrument of principal vision. Please respond to the latter from the perspective of how you believe your staff will answer. When you have completed your survey, place it in the provided envelope, and return it.

The surveys should be returned by Friday, November 30, 1990. If you have any questions or if there are any concerns or problems with the timeline, please do not hesitate to call me.

Again thank you very much for your assistance. Without your help, this project would not be possible.

Sincerely,

Daniel N. Johnson
399-2638

APPENDIX K

LETTER ACCOMPANYING EACH TEACHER SURVEY

LETTER ACCOMPANYING EACH TEACHER SURVEY

November 1, 1990

Dear Teacher:

Thank you for your willingness to complete the following survey. This study comprises part of my doctoral program in Educational Leadership at Portland State University.

As you are aware, one of the virtues emanating from several of the reform and restructuring efforts is their basis in current research. My desire is to add to this research. As a classroom teacher and high school principal in Salem, I have been very interested in the conditions which contribute to school effectiveness. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships among several of the effective schools' qualities.

This study is being conducted in approximately forty of the larger high schools in the State of Oregon. It will require about fifteen minutes of your time. All respondents are guaranteed anonymity. Neither the principal, staff, nor school will be identified in the study. Once you have completed the survey, please place it in the designated envelope.

Your professional cooperation is requested. The time and effort you spend in completing this survey is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Daniel N. Johnson

APPENDIX L

COMPLETED BY THE PRINCIPAL

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SCHOOL _____

SCHOOL DEMOGRAPHICS

Current student population _____

Percentage of students on free or reduced lunch _____

Ethnic Composition of student body: (List percent) Native American____,
Hispanic _____

African American____, Caucasian____, Oriental____, Russian____.

Current number of classroom teachers _____

PRINCIPAL INFORMATION

Years of experience as a principal _____

Years of experience at your current assignment _____

SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT EFFORTS

Is your school currently involved in a school improvement program?

If the answer is yes, how many years has your school been involved?

IF YES PLEASE CHECK THE PROGRAM

Onward To Excellence _____

House Bill 2020 _____

Other (Please describe)_____

Briefly describe the information (including criteria) your school uses to assess its effectiveness in serving students. (If you need additional space please use the back or attach)

Please return this form and your response on the Vision Inventory to Dan Johnson, Sprague Area Operations, 2575 Commercial Street S. Salem, Or 97302. Please return by November 30, 1990. Thank you.