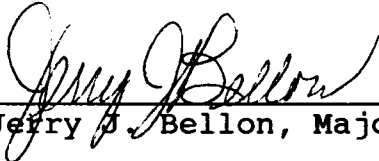
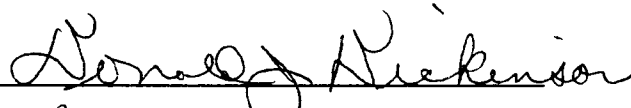


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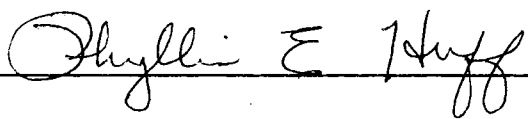
I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Sharon Roberts entitled "Creating Collaborative Cultures: Is It Tinkering With Educational Reform or Improving Student Learning?" I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Curriculum and Instruction.


Jerry J. Bellon, Major Professor

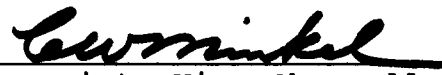
We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:







Accepted for the Council:



Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of The Graduate School

CREATING COLLABORATIVE CULTURES:
IS IT TINKERING WITH EDUCATIONAL REFORM
OR IMPROVING STUDENT LEARNING?

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Sharon Roberts

May 1995

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. The teachers' perceptions in relation to what actually happened within the school culture that affected student learning and their predictions for future connections to student learning were examined.

Six schools in the state of Tennessee, all participating in the Shared Leadership Project supported by the Tennessee Department of Education, served as the data source for this study. Forty-eight teachers, eight from each school, composed the sample population and participated in a semi-structured interview.

The data were analyzed by content analysis and thematic analysis procedures. The following categories guided the analysis: collaboration, relationships, change, student learning, predictions, recommendations, and miscellaneous. Tabulations were calculated and patterns identified from the data with regard to individual school cultures and the entire sample.

The shared leadership process was found to cause the school culture to become more collaborative. Seven indicators and four inhibitors of collaboration were identified. The majority of teachers reported a positive effect on relationships within the school culture. Shared leadership was found to affect the day-to-operations within the school in

four ways. Contributors and inhibitors to change were also noted.

The majority of teachers recognized a connection between shared leadership and student learning, while several others failed to recognize the connections even though they identified examples. The observable connections between shared leadership and student learning were found to be: an increased usage of varying instructional strategies; collaboration among teachers with regard to sharing, planning, problem solving, and decision making; increased student decision making; improved and relevant staff development; curricular changes; and increased parental involvement in the classroom. Few teachers, however, were able to predict future connections to student learning.

It was concluded that shared leadership does affect student learning even though school cultures vary considerably. The greater effect is in cultures which have been able to make initial first order changes, have received training, practice sharing, and are persistent about staying with the shared leadership journey. The principal is noted as a key factor in the success or failure of shared leadership within any culture.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An extensive study of educational change has occurred only in the last thirty years even though the progressive education movement has been around since the turn of the century. Due to the scientific hysteria caused by Russia's launching of Sputnik I and the inequities related to the Civil Rights movement, the 1960's became the decade of reform adoptions. Major curricular reform efforts, technological innovations, and organizational innovations which were based on the notion that any innovation was good -- change for the sake of change -- spattered the decade. It was assumed that change could be enacted from afar. However, there were no specific plans for change, only single innovations supported by federal funds.

The 1970's, as a result, were characterized by implementation problems, stagnation, and recoupment. Educators experienced a "crisis of confidence" (Fullan, 1993a). As disillusioned educators "plugged" away during this period, the effective schools movement and staff development research evolved demonstrating what was working. Researchers, theorists, and practitioners began to recognize that single innovations were ineffective and that systems needed multiple innovations simultaneously.

In 1983, A Nation at Risk mirrored the public's

dissatisfaction with "educational reform" and called for governmental action in reforming education. The Carnegie Forum published A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century (1986) which was another powerful national mandate for action. Numerous state bills emphasizing comprehensive reform were also passed across the country. What had previously been educational tinkering with reform became large-scale tinkering by national and state governments. "Tinkering" is identified as "a clumsy attempt to mend something" according to Webster's New World Dictionary (Fullan, 1993a). In the mid-1980's, the focus shifted to the restructuring of education to include school-based management and other decentralized components. Even though such restructuring was found to increase teacher participation in the decision-making process, no real connection was made to student learning.

Shifting from single innovations to multiple, simultaneous innovations to comprehensive reform has not solved the problems associated with education. The 1990's have already been called the years of systemic reform by theorists. Systemic reform is seen as linking assessment, curriculum, instruction, staff development, personnel decisions, and all other educational actions together. Governments and business are also involved in the debate of educational reform (Fullan, 1993a). National standards for curriculum are under development for all major content areas.

The SCANS Report (which is supported by the business industry) is calling for students to be prepared for the world of work by emphasizing specific work-related skills in school. There is talk of a national curriculum and standardized assessment to evaluate the curriculum. Clearly, we are engaged in high stakes educational reform.

Statement of the Problem

It is obvious that society in general believes that schools in the United States are declining. A multitude of national reports and mandated reforms, the private business sector's increasing involvement in education, and the press's continued attention to the issue provide evidence of society's view of education's condition. Educational leaders and researchers, though at times disagree about the true state of education (whether it is in a decline or not), tend to support that reform is needed. Goodlad (1984) contends that "American schools are in trouble," and that many as they are now will cease to exist. Even though we will continue to have schools, we will have schools that bear little resemblance to what we have always known.

Whether one believes that schools in this country are declining or not, it does appear obvious that there is a need for educational reform. Our world is constantly changing. Education should be a mirror of the world. Fullan (1993a, p. vii) notes:

What appears to be a linear track becomes a new world. It is no longer sufficient to study factors associated with the success or failure of the latest innovation or policy. It is no longer acceptable to separate planned change from seemingly spontaneous or naturally occurring change. It is only by raising our consciousness and insights about the totality of educational change that we can do something about it. We will learn that it is not possible to solve 'the change problem', but we can learn to live with it more proactively and more productively.

Our educational system is very resistant to change despite efforts like A Nation at Risk and state mandates. Most of the past attempts to reform education have failed. A theory that explains these failed attempts contends that such reform does not affect the school's culture. It supports the idea that people within the actual setting must be involved for change to take place. As Fullan (1993a) notes, "You can't mandate what matters." With regard to improving unsuccessful American businesses, Deal and Kennedy (1982, p.5) remark:

We need to remember that people make businesses work and we need to relearn old lessons about how culture ties people together and gives meaning and purpose to their day-to-day lives.

A connection can be made between the organizational structures of industry and schools.

The endeavors aimed at restructuring schools, such as site-based management and shared leadership, have been a part of systemic reform. Though successful in some ways (due probably to their involvement of people at the school site level), these restructuring efforts have not been linked to student learning. Fullan (1993b) and Newman (1993) maintain

that restructuring has had little effect on student learning. However, it persists as a major educational focus. Limited research has been conducted connecting shared leadership or other such restructuring efforts to student learning.

Shared leadership recognizes and promotes leadership from the entire school community rather than from an individual. The involvement of all people within the school community in policy development produces a collaborative school culture. Few would question the inherent value in establishing collaborative cultures. However, we need to examine the collaborative culture's relationship to student learning. The effect of collaborative cultures upon student learning is the problem that has been pursued in this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. The teachers' perceptions in relation to what actually happened within the school culture that affected student learning and their predictions for future connections to student learning were examined. Teacher predictions were included due to the researcher's assumption that schools could be in the planning stages of change that might affect student learning.

This study analyzed the effects of the practice of shared leadership within a school setting and its relationship to

student learning. The major research question was:

What impact do collaborative cultures have on student learning?

Because teachers have the most direct contact with students and are also participants within the school community and in the shared leadership process, their perceptions focused the study. The study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. Has the shared leadership process caused the school cultures to be more collaborative? If so, what are the indicators? If not, what are the inhibitors?
2. Have there been any observable changes in the relationships between all participant groups (students, teachers, administrators, and parents)?
3. Has the shared leadership process affected the day-to-day operations within the school? If so, in what way?
4. Have there been any observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning? If so, what are they? If not, what are the inhibitors?
5. What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

Significance of the Study

Research suggests that positive relationships within the school culture support teaching and learning (The Institute for Education in Transformation, 1993; McLaughlin, 1993). Conditions of collegiality, rather than isolation, appear to positively affect student learning (McLaughlin, 1993). Leadership no longer is assumed to emanate only from the "instructional leader", but can come from others within the school context (Barth, 1988; Gardner, 1990; Quality of Schoollife Research, Bellon, 1991; Johnson, 1993). The relationship of sharing leadership and connecting that to student learning is the focus of this study.

Judith Warren Little in her chapter on "Teachers as Colleagues" (1987) examines the research on teacher collaboration. The teacher-student relationship is identified as the main source of rewards in teaching and also as the most important obligation to which teachers are held accountable. Little maintains that the relationships formed with colleagues, therefore, must be evaluated by their ability to make the teacher-student relationship stronger and more effective. She calls for a more systematic inquiry of "the specific mechanisms by which collegial relations among teachers operate to the benefit of students" (p.168).

Do collaborative schools increase student learning? Present research is unfortunately inconclusive. The importance of this study was to examine the relationship

between building collaboration within the school culture, through the sharing of leadership, with student learning. The results of this study will contribute to the body of literature and the advancement of knowledge regarding collaborative cultures' relationship to student learning.

Assumptions

This study was based upon the following assumptions:

1. The teachers will feel comfortable in the interview process and provide open, honest, and valid information. Trust is an issue because the questions ask participants to reveal detailed information about their school's culture.
2. The teachers will be reflective-in-action and reflective-on-action. Schon (1983) terms thinking done about one's profession as "reflection-on-action" and thinking about the situation at hand as "reflection-in-action." It is assumed that the teachers will be reflective and engage in a type of problem solving during the interview that integrates their values, theoretical knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and experience.
3. The participants have been trained adequately in the shared leadership process and are capable of assessing the process in relation to student learning.
4. The shared leadership process is a work in progress, and, therefore, the participants may have to make predictions about connections to student learning.

5. The school culture can be altered to encourage sharing leadership.

6. Because all participating schools have been involved in the process for a minimum of two years, each school has experienced change.

Design and Procedure

A descriptive case study approach, utilizing semi-structured interviews as the main source of data, was chosen for this study. Participants in the study were selected from six elementary schools involved in a Shared Leadership Project funded by the Tennessee Department of Education. The six schools (which represent three different school systems) had participated in the state project for a minimum of two years and depict schools across the state of Tennessee: rural (or county), urban, and suburban. Even though the forty-eight teacher participants (eight from each school) are not representative of all elementary educators, they personify the teachers involved in this Shared Leadership Project. A range of experiential levels is also represented.

Semi-structured interviews focused on obtaining the perceptions of teachers involved in the shared leadership process. Some of the teachers at each site had been trained by the Shared Leadership Project Team in special training sessions once a month for a duration of a year or more and had experienced the shared leadership process within their own

building, while others had participated in the process within their building only. A predominantly open-ended question format was used to provide for in-depth responses from participants and to allow teachers to offer information regarding collaborative levels, relationships between participant groups, day-to-day functioning, shared leadership's effect upon student learning, and predictions for change. The goal was to discover the emic or insiders' views that reveal the participants' reality.

The interview schedule was pilot tested in an elementary school from the target population. Audiotapes were made and listened to repeatedly. Notes were taken during each practice interview and subjected to content analysis. As a result, changes were made in the researcher's introduction of the interview process (the cover story) in an effort to relax the participants. Minor changes were also made in the interview schedule itself.

All participants voluntarily contributed to the study. Notes were taken of each interview instead of being audiotaped. The participants had access to what was being written down at all times. The practice of summarization was used frequently during the interviews as a means of clarification and prompting for in-depth responses. The notes were reviewed after each session for clarity and completeness.

Analysis of the Data

The interview data were analyzed using content analysis procedures and thematic analysis. Interview notes were typed and analyzed individually by predetermined categories based upon the study's research questions and then cross-analyzed with other interviews in two ways: within each school and with all other interviews. The predetermined categories were: collaboration, relationships, change, relationship to student learning, and predictions for future connections. Results found through content analysis were tabulated by school and the total sample. The coding of the predetermined categories and other categories which evolved from the analysis led to a thematic analysis. Thematic patterns were also identified by school and the total sample. Unintended outcomes identified through analysis are also presented.

Limitations and Delimitations

The participants for this study were limited to those school sites in Tennessee which participated in the Shared Leadership project, a special project funded by the Tennessee Department of Education during the 1993-1994 school year. Because this was a case study approach, the findings are
* generalizable only to the participating sites. The study was
* also limited to participating teachers' perceptions at the particular time during which they were interviewed.

Delimitations of this study restrict the timeframe⁺, data

collection, school sites chosen, and participants. Because funding for the Shared Leadership Project was determined on a year-by-year basis, data collection corresponded with the closure of school during the 1993-1994 school year. A decision was made to delimit the participating schools to six elementary schools who have been in the project for a minimum of two years. Those teachers from the participating schools who attended the Shared Leadership Project sessions were invited to participate in the study and asked to suggest other teachers within the school building who could be invited to participate in the study.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions were used:

With regard to change

1. Innovations usually refer to single strategies such as curricular changes, instructional strategies, or organizational change.
2. Reform, though somewhat vague in definition, is more sweeping. It refers to major change. An example is the Kentucky Educational Reform Act (a government's engagement in reform).
3. Restructuring is usually related to structural or organizational change. Examples are site-based management, restructuring programs and timetables, developing a

collaborative work culture, and establishing new designs for teaching.

4. Systemic reform refers to the systemic linkage of all educational "parts." Assessment, curriculum, instruction, staff development, management decisions, etc. interrelated and interdependent.

With regard to the school community

5. A school community refers to all people involved in the schooling process: students, teachers, administrators, support personnel, and parent.

6. Stakeholders are all people and parties interested and involved in the educational process: students, teachers, administrators, staff, parents, politicians, etc.

With regard to cultures

7. Culture is defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as "the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thought, speech, action, and artifacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations." A simpler definition is "the way we do things around here" (Deal and Kennedy, 1982).

8. A collaborative school culture is an environment in which teachers and administrators work collaboratively to problem solve, establish policy, and improve teaching and learning.

9. A collegial culture is characterized by congeniality and a generally supportive environment; there is no guarantee that individuals work collaboratively. However, it should be noted

that in the literature, the terms collaboration and collegiality are often used interchangeably. Therefore, within the format of this document, collegiality is used as a form of collaboration unless otherwise noted.

10. Inclusion is used to mean "the act of including" as defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary. It refers to involving individuals or groups.

11. An isolating culture is one in which everyone keeps to himself/herself. Each individual plans and problem solves in isolation of others.

12. The organizational context refers to the organization's environment. The organization may be a business, government, or school.

With regard to shared leadership

13. Shared leadership, simply put, refers to the sharing of leadership within a school site. Leadership is recognized and promoted from all individuals. The development of a collaborative culture is a goal. Such a culture provides an appropriate environment for group decision making with regard to problem solving, policy development, and improvement efforts. In the Shared Leadership Project, shared leadership is viewed as "the process of strengthening the leadership competencies, knowledge, and skills of all personnel in the school so that the school will be more effective in achieving its most important goals" (Bellon, 1990).

14. Site-based management is a management approach whereby

virtually all of the important educational decisions and resources decisions are made at the school site. In many cases, a school site management council is responsible for developing policies for school governance and monitoring the principal and other administrators to see that the policies are carried out. The council is usually comprised of the principal, several teachers, and several parents. In some cases, students are also included on the council. The power of councils varies considerably. . . The councils. . . can remove principals and have a major voice in other personnel matters. They may also have a major responsibility for resource allocation and curriculum decisions. In other school systems, the councils are less powerful and work more in a collaborative mode. (Taken from Bellon, 1990.)

15. Site-based decision making, generally speaking, is viewed as the decision process for site-based management. In other words, it is the decision process used where site-based management is in place. . . (Taken from Bellon, 1990.)

Organization of the Study

Chapter I is composed of the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions to be answered, the significance of the study, underlying assumptions, the research design and analysis procedures, limitations and delimitations of the study, and definitions of terms used throughout the study. Chapter II contains a review

of related literature, and Chapter III explains data collection methodology and analysis procedures. The findings of the study are reported in Chapter IV. The final chapter, Chapter V, summarizes the study and makes conclusions of the research and recommendations for further inquiry.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Assumptions about the work of schools are so strong that the processes of schooling look very much the same in thousands of schools across the country. Teaching and learning occur, for the most part, in age- and grade-level groupings within relatively isolated classrooms. Teachers are assigned to grade levels in the elementary school and to subject areas in the secondary school; instructional specialists are added to handle special students and curricula. The general curriculum is regulated by state and local policy makers, constrained by the availability of curricular materials, and adapted to fit the organizational context of the school and beliefs about students and learning. Instructional strategies conform to organizational contexts and curricular requirements.

(Astuto and others, 1994, p.63)

Despite the national drive for educational reform during the last few decades, contemporary school forms and practices have their "roots" in the turn of the century educational practices. Industrialization, immigration, and compulsory attendance produced great numbers of students and teachers. Bureaucracy became the organizing structure (Astuto and others, 1994) and remains so.

Even though the educational organizational structure is bureaucratic, the United States has been immersed in an era of reform since the 1960's. A brief look at the history of

reform in this country reveals the 1960's as the time of adoption of reform, the 1970's as the period of implementation problems, the 1980's as the decade of multiple innovations, and the 1990's as the season of systemic reform (Fullan, 1993b). (These themes are approximations; exact transition periods overlap and are not distinct.)

The 1960's ushered in major curricular reform, technological innovations, and organizational innovations. Examples of each of these are New Math, teaching machines, and open schools. The assumptions were that national scale innovations would lead to school/system adoption, any innovation was good, and change could be initiated from afar (Fullan, 1993b).

The next decade illustrated innovations gone sour. Goodlad (1970) and Sarason (1971) noted the condition of irresponsible adoptions and nonexistent follow through with the adoptions. Educators "adopted" innovations without asking appropriate questions about their value, and schools failed to implement the innovations. By the mid 1970's, educators began to look for what **was** working. Thus, local schools became interested in the effective schools, instructional leadership, and staff development research (Fullan, 1993b). Berman and McLaughlin (1978) found in studying 293 federal educational change projects in 18 states that successful implementation occurred when teachers were involved in the process and understood the goals, implementation decisions were made at

the local school level, the project was contextually adapted, and the school's organizational climate was positive.

The idea that systems needed multiple, simultaneous innovations was becoming ever more popular. The National Commission on Excellence in Education published A Nation at Risk in 1983 which attacked one innovation at a time. It was followed by the Carnegie Forum's (1986) A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century and the National Governors' Association's (1986) A Time for Results along with numerous state bills and mandates.

During the 1980's reform took two forms: state regulation and site-based restructuring (Fullan, 1993b; Smylie and Denny, 1990). State regulation introduced uniformity and conformity through standardization. External control was substituted for local autonomy, and the bureaucratic organizational structure was supported. Critics of regulation and external mandates maintained that change cannot occur or cannot be maintained over time through regulation. Because schools are more complex and less structured than the bureaucratic/factory model, they argue, change must occur on a local level (Smylie and Denny, 1990). However, it has been difficult to make a connection between such restructuring and student learning (Fullan, 1993b; Newman, 1993). Fullan (1993b) also notes that this period of multiple innovations revealed that neither centralization or decentralization work in isolation. Pascale (1990) stresses that restructuring moves

on a continuum between overcontrol and chaos.

Astuto and others (1994) contend that the educational reform movement that began in the 1980's has provided disappointing results. There is also the issue of blame. Educators blame the policymakers, policymakers blame educators, many blame parents and the students themselves, and everyone blames the delivery systems. Astuto and others (1994, p. 1) maintain that, regardless of blame, the cause of failure was "narrow limits of imagination" that guided reform efforts. For example, some schools implemented a form of site-based management but continued to support a daily schedule with 45-50 minute classes. These authors contend that efforts need to be reformulated because current practices and policies are "rooted firmly in a set of dominant assumptions that reflect orthodox views and conservative interpretations of the knowledge bases and practices of organizational studies, schooling, and educational policy" (p. 5).

The present decade has been referred to as the time of systemic reform. However, Fullan (1993b) warns that change is extremely more complex than we have acknowledged. Limitations of systemic reform, Fullan maintains, are the underestimation of system dynamics and the inability to recreate successful systemic coordination in a different situation.

The debate continues about the state of education in this country. Schools continue to bear the brunt of criticisms

about being responsible for the nation's decline in the global industrial marketplace and their graduates being unable to compete in the competitive, technological job market (McClellan, 1994). These views are supported by published test scores (which are compared to other countries' scores) amid intense media attention. One report that found a "steady" or "slightly improving trend" in each area studied (dropout and retention rates, standardized test scores, higher education, spending for education, international comparisons, and skills of the work force) was not released to the public until 1993 even though it was commissioned in 1990 (McClellan, 1994). The Sandia Report, funded by the U.S. Department of Energy, reported favorably on the status of elementary and secondary public education (Huelskamp, 1993). As Goodlad (1992) notes, "healthy nations have healthy schools" and not vice versa. The intent is not to debate or persuade the issue, but to recognize the malleable condition of reform in our country.

The Theoretical Basis for Creating Collaborative Cultures Through Shared Leadership

The review of the literature on leadership and restructuring and this study itself were undertaken from the symbolic interactionism and critical social theoretical perspectives. This framework provides the lens through which the literature and the research were viewed. This researcher believes that meaning constructed through social interaction

and the questioning of the adequacy of current social theory lead to improving human conditions and increasing empowerment. In acknowledging my bias, I believe that sharing leadership within a school culture can improve the culture for all involved. Teachers experience empowerment, student learning can be affected, and all professionals become renewed.

In examining the literature, I found that the key descriptors and concepts related to shared leadership and collaborative cultures are interwoven and usually dependent upon each other. Thus, in this review there are no clear delineations of concepts, only an attempt to organize the information. This chapter contains research and theories on the following concepts: leadership, change, restructuring efforts, teacher empowerment, relationships within school communities, collaboration/teaming, the organizational culture, and learning issues. Other related educational research issues (qualitative analysis, content analysis, thematic analysis, and the interview as a research tool) are thoroughly reviewed in the following chapter.

The Theory of Leadership And Related Research

The theory of leadership has been approached within this section by reviewing the literature on: definitions of leadership, leadership versus management, vision as a part of leadership, instructional leadership, and ethics and morality in leadership.

Definitions of Leadership

There are various definitions of leadership in the literature. Burns (1978) views leadership as transformational with leaders inducing others to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations of all involved. DePree (1989) ascertains that leadership is an art of weaving relationships. Kotter (1990) sees leadership as a process that directs and organizes individuals. Gardner (1990) discusses "dispersed leadership" and notes that in a healthy organization there are numerous people who share leadership tasks unofficially. Garfield (1986) writes of "peak performers" who translate mission into practice, are always willing to evolve and grow, complete their work and learn from it, and exemplify the phrase: "to be better than I ever was." Bellon (1993b, p.1), drawing from various leadership theorists and practitioners, operationally defines leadership as "the use of purposeful, ethical actions to achieve critical individual and organizational goals." Bellon and Bellon (1991) also characterize leadership as an art and a science. The art of leadership involves: vision, modeling, renewal, judgment, power, and trust. The science of leadership, on the other hand, includes: team building, communication, decision making, conflict management, planning, and resource allocation. Sergiovanni (1990b), building upon Burns' concept of transactional and transformational leadership, defines leadership developmentally as bartering, building, bonding,

and banking. Bartering provides the initiative to get things started, while building (climate) and bonding allow for the support and the inspiration needed in school improvement. Banking (incorporating improvement) insures a routinization of school improvement efforts. Even with all of these definitions of leadership, one might agree with Bennis (1989): "leadership is like beauty - hard to define, but you know it when you see it."

Leadership versus Management

In the study of leadership, leadership and management are often confused. Developing a vision, aligning the vision with the organization's mission, and guiding the process are associated with leadership. Management activities are more closely associated with getting the job done in an orderly manner. Such tasks may include budgeting, planning, and organizing routine daily procedures. The two concepts of leadership and management are not independent of one another, but instead are interrelated. There is a need for strong leadership and strong management if the organization is to be healthy. Strong leadership and weak management may create chaos, while strong management and weak leadership may develop a change-resistant organization that eventually becomes dysfunctional (Bellon, 1993b).

Vision as a Part of Leadership

It is almost impossible to escape the idea of developing vision when reading in the area of leadership. Current theorists place an emphasis on vision. Research on leader effectiveness identifies the following characteristics of effective leaders: a clear organizational vision, the ability to communicate that vision, a strong commitment to the empowerment of others, and the ability to "cultivate" trust in the organization's functioning (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Rogus, 1990). DePree (1989) suggests that the leader should have a vision of what the organization should be. Bennis (1989) lists "guiding vision" as the first basic ingredient of leadership. Vision, defined as "the creating of focus" is considered to have a magnetic quality (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). In essence, "vision grabs." They purport that a leader must first develop a mental image of the futuristic state of the organization which may be as vague as a dream or as specific as a goal or mission statement.

Vision statements are inspirational and lead to empowerment within an organization. A vision is something desired so passionately that it summons complete commitment (Garfield, 1986). Senge (1990) identifies a shared vision as a force in people's hearts that answers the question of what the group wants to create. He believes it guides the work of individuals in an organization, creating commonality and improved relationships. Visions often change the

organizational culture due to these relational changes (Bellon and Bellon, 1993).

Vision is important within the organizational context. In their "search for excellence," Peters and Waterman (1982) found that a vision was a driving force in every excellent organization they studied. Sheive and Schoenheit (1987) studied twelve New York state administrators identified as leaders and drew some connections between the visions of these administrators and their work. It was found that these leaders were: interesting; risk-takers and "holders of an organizational vision;" involved in conflict situations a great deal; seizers of opportunities; and constantly in a sense of struggle. Ovard (1990) suggests that a reliance on values and principles remains the basis for maintaining the vision to provide leadership in schools.

Because every school has a unique culture created by the interrelationships of its administration, staff, parents/community members, and students, a vision for the organization can be developed and implemented numerous ways. It is a contextual, culturally-based activity. Even though the literature, as a body, is supportive of developing a vision for the organization, Fullan (1992) notes that leaders should beware of imposing their own vision. Principals would be more effective in building collaborative cultures which establish a shared vision (Fullan, 1992; Herman, 1989; Bellon and Bellon, 1993).

Instructional Leadership

Much has been written in regard to instructional leadership, especially in the body of research on effective schools. Acheson (1990) notes that instructional leadership originated as an inspectorial model. Because leaders usually had (and often still do) the dual responsibilities of evaluation and staff development, the opportunity for professional growth was (and is) inhibited. Teachers in such an organizational structure rarely take risks, accept feedback, or change as a result of the process.

Currently, the trend is toward teachers working with colleagues for the purpose of change that affects learning. Cunard (1990) suggests that the principal should assume a new leadership role, one that is innovative in preparing the school for the twenty-first century. He supports the following strategies for sharing instructional leadership: let teachers become responsible for staff development; create an instructional council composed of teachers interested in planning and developing staff development/instructional programs; create the position of instructional dean; and recognize the value of peer coaching. Cunard maintains that these strategies represent the initial stages of sharing instructional leadership.

In a literature review of the principal as the instructional leader, Uchtman (1992) found several "myths" such as: the effective principal is a great manager and

instructional leader, principals are the best instructional leaders for the school, and instructional leadership is a management theory. According to Uchtman, the literature supports the following premises instead. To view the principal as the effective manager and instructional leader sets impossible and impractical job standards. Instructional leadership needs can be better met by restructuring the organization and using teachers as instructional leaders. Instructional leadership is an organizational theory issue. Uchtman proposes an organizational model of instructional leadership which is based upon rational, human resource, political and symbolic frames of reference. This model supports using peer coaching (or some other form of collaboration) to create a teacher-led and teacher-evaluated instructional leadership program.

Stronge (1990) believes that student learning would not be enhanced by principals ignoring their broad-based management duties to focus more on instructional issues. The effort must be more global. Principals should practice effective school management that includes instruction. Barth (1990) contends that the principal does not need to be the instructional leader, pretending to know everything. But, instead, should be the "head learner" - experiencing modeling, supporting, and celebrating learning within the culture.

Ethics and Morality in Leadership

Organizational theorists have for years discussed the most common leadership styles in terms of expected typical behavior. Bellon (1991a) proposes that it is just as important to assess the ethical or moral basis for leadership behavior to determine its impact upon organizational members. This concept has the potential for controversy given today's standards of "political correctness." Bellon suggests, however, that morality:

can be viewed as the set of standards by which a community judges the rightness or wrongness of conduct in actions that affect others. Moral behavior in this context would be based on values such as tolerance for others, integrity, mutual respect, and how we honor ourselves and others.

The contention is made that different leadership styles could lead to behavior that may be moral, immoral, or amoral:

- Abdicratic leaders who relinquish both their authority and responsibility are immoral.
- Autocratic leaders who have absolute power can range from being immoral to moral.
- Transactional leaders who make deals can be anywhere along the continuum of moral to immoral.
- Transformational leaders who help others do their best are usually always moral, but never less than amoral.
- Confrontational leaders who challenge certain actions/behaviors of others can be moral, amoral, or immoral. The absence of such behavior could be immoral also.

Fullan (1993a) discusses the need for educators to become skilled change agents in today's world, but adds that such skills must be coupled with a moral purpose. There is also

the concept of moral authority as a basis for management and a source of motivation (Etzioni, 1988). Even though intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is important, what matters most to people is what they believe, value, and feel. The shared values and cultural bonds that hold groups/communities together are more powerful than any extrinsic concerns and most intrinsic concerns. Sergiovanni (1990a, p. 23) notes, "When moral authority transcends bureaucratic leadership in a school, the outcomes in terms of commitment and performance far exceed expectations."

The Concept Of Change

It is a world where we will need generative concepts and capacities. What will be needed is the individual as inquirer and learner, mastery and know-how as prime strategies, the leader who expresses but also extends what is valued enabling others to do the same, team work and shared purpose which accepts both individualism and collectivism as essential to organizational learning, and the organization which is dynamically connected to its environment because that is necessary to avoid extinction as environments are always changing.

(Fullan, 1993a, p. viii)

The idea of growth, learning, self-renewal of the individual and the organization was initially suggested by Gardner (1981), but now the concept appears to have more depth (Fullan, 1993a). The history of educational reform for the last three decades represents continuous change in a conservative, bureaucratic organizational structure. Because of this, Fullan maintains that the answer is not to design better reform strategies. Instead, efforts should be aimed at

transforming the educational system into a learning organization with professionals who are adept at dealing with change as a routine event. This would be compatible with Senge's (1990) description of a learning organization.

Change Issues

Teachers and Morality. Teachers are now in a position to actually participate in change, learn from it, and help students learn from change. The ability to do this is necessary for the continued development of society. Educators must become change agents guided by a moral purpose (Fullan, 1993a). Fenstermacher (1990) contends that the mere existence of human interaction makes teaching a moral activity:

Thus matters of what is fair, right, just and virtuous are always present. Whenever a teacher asks a student to share something with another student, decides between combatants in a schoolyard dispute, sets procedures for who will go first, second, third, etc., or discusses the welfare of a student with another teacher, moral considerations are present. The teacher's conduct, at all times and in all ways, is a moral matter. For that reason alone, teaching is a profoundly moral activity. (p. 133)

Most teachers would maintain that they teach because they want to make a difference in students' lives. Fullan (1993a) maintains that teachers who continue to try to make a difference at the one-to-one and classroom level become "moral martyrs." Making a difference, he asserts, must be "recast in broader social and moral terms" (p. 11). To make an interpersonal difference, teachers must become concerned with the issues regarding teaching and the skills and actions

needed to make a difference.

Requirements for Change/Lessons of Change. Fullan (1993a) describes four interrelated core capacities required to lay the foundation for change agency: personal vision building, inquiry, mastery, and collaboration. (Change agency is defined by Fullan as a self-consciousness of change and the change process.) Personal vision building is directly related to moral purpose and can lead to shared vision within an organization. Inquiry is a state of continuous questioning and learning and is the vehicle for renewal. Mastery involves educators practicing new skills and ideas rather than just thinking them. Collaboration is a key to personal learning and a requirement for interaction in today's society. At a minimum, collaboration develops peer relationships and team building. Without collaboration and resulting relationships, it is impossible to continue to learn and be the necessary change agent in society.

Eight lessons of change suggested by Fullan (1993a; 1993b; The Developer, November 1994) are:

1. You cannot mandate what matters. Although mandates are important, what really matters is creativity, commitment, and the acquisition of skills.
2. Change is a journey, not a blueprint. You cannot really know what matters until you are involved in the journey.
3. Problems are our friends. Conflict is necessary for any successful change effort. Ownership comes from the learning associated with problem solving.

4. Vision and strategic planning come later. Vision evolves from action.

5. Individualism and collectivism must have equal power. It is important to overcome professional isolation, just as it is to avoid "groupthink."

6. Neither centralization nor decentralization works. Both are necessary. A school can become collaborative despite district support, but cannot remain collaborative without it.

7. A connection with the wider environment is critical for success. A changing school seeks ideas from the outside. "Internal development and external involvement" are compatible.

8. Every person is a change agent. Change is too important to be left to the experts.

Other points of interest regarding change (Fullan, 1993a; The Developer, November 1994) include:

- Ideas easily acquired are just as easily discarded. Change is a process, not a quick fix.
- Students will not become continuous learners when teachers are not.
- Often change efforts do not focus on issues that make a difference such as collaboration, instruction, curriculum.
- In becoming a true learning organization, the principalship may change drastically because all teachers will be considered leaders.
- All school employees must "buy into" the school's philosophy and how it relates to the organizational structure.
- Educators must examine themselves and determine if they "practice what they preach."
- Learning organizations learn from their experiences.

- Restructuring does not include reculturing. But, to reculture a school is to restructure it.

There are numerous studies on successful change, but most

of these identify characteristics of "excellent" schools. Miles and Louis (1990), however, offer information about how to lead and manage the process of school reform within the findings of their study on change in urban high schools. They suggest five issues, clarity, relevance, action images, will and skill, as a means of moving from knowledge to action. Because clear, relevant, and action-focused findings often go unutilized, Miles and Louis concentrate on the will and skill needed for effective change. The authors/researchers provide will and skill issues related to the major topics of their study: the context, vision building, resources, and problem coping. They found that: school improvement is most successful when schools and their districts are actively engaged with each other; shared visions of what the school should become guide improvements; effective change requires money and time; and since problems arising during change are multiple, good problem coping skills are necessary. Issues of will include transforming beliefs of central office personnel regarding empowerment, having people confront their fears of the unknown, accepting that change costs money/persuading powerful others of that fact, and realizing that passivity and denial are adversaries of good coping skills. Key skills which need development are: empowerment, clear decision allocation, relationship-building, creativity, the ability to design/invent new structures and procedures, collaboration, negotiation, the ability to scan for whatever fits the

structure, and an acceptance of problems as learning tools.

Change, of any magnitude, should be based on the assumptions that it is desirable according to the values of the group and that the intended outcomes are clear (Sarason, 1971). Other issues of concern identified by Joyce are: the prevalent condition of teacher isolation; the inadequacy of professional training for specific skills and opportunities for study, research, and planning; and the money and time necessary for change (Sullivan, November 1994).

In examining the literature on change, it seems obvious that change is inevitable and necessary. Rather than construct new ways of changing the educational organizational structure, perhaps educators and other stakeholders should revise their thinking. Wheatley (1992) calls for a new way of seeing the world, the quantum physics of leadership. She discusses chaos that contains order, growth found in disequilibrium, a participative universe, dynamic connectedness, inventiveness, and team players. Process is deemed more exciting than the output. Models are irrelevant because each situation is new and different and the world is always subjectively shaped by personal interactions. Nothing is independent of the relationships that occur. As Fullan (1993a) notes, "Systems do not change themselves, people do."

Restructuring Efforts

In a review of educational trends, Stedman (1993) notes that although U.S. schools are not declining, they are still in need of "far-reaching reform." Educational stakeholders have tried a multitude of strategies to improve public schools, to have had most fail (Deal, 1990). New skills acquired through expensive staff development have disappeared amidst old routines. Newer structural strategies (such as changed roles, decision making, and evaluation) have often been quickly replaced by older, more established arrangements. Empowerment and individual/collective "voice" are not very effective among the "disenfranchised." As one strategy fails, a new one replaces it. Thus, new reforms "look suspiciously familiar" to veteran educators (Deal, 1990). Overall, wave after wave of reform has left most schools basically unchanged (Cuban, 1984) and some even worse off than they were (Deal, 1990). Rather than recycling ideas and viewing change as an outcome-driven activity, stakeholders should consider change as an expressive event (Deal, 1990).

Many opinions and suggestions for educational reform based on theory, research, or a mixture of both exist within the body of literature. In this section, various theories (some supported by research, others based upon "expert" opinion) have been examined. A close look will be taken at site-based management/shared decision making and shared leadership, two common forms of restructuring for the 1990's.

Theories and Suggestions for Educational Restructuring

Theories. As long ago as the mid-1950's, Argyris studied human behavior within the organizational structure (1957). McGregor published The Human Side of Enterprise in 1960 which proposed a different way of viewing people within the organization (i.e. Theory Y). The work done by these researcher/authors and others helped "stimulate new ways of thinking about the structure of organizations and the people in them" (Astuto and others, 1994, p. 3).

Argyris' most recent research focuses on defensive routines that deter learning and effectiveness (1993). He maintains that an organization's "theories-in-use" must first be identified before "pro-learning" actions can be initiated.

Various concepts are important in understanding Argyris' work (The Developer, January 1995). Organizational defensive routines are actions, policies, or practices that prevent people within the organization from experiencing embarrassment or threat. As a result, the organizational members never discover the causes of the embarrassment or threat. Thus, defensive routines inhibit organizational learning. Argyris also talks of single-loop and double-loop learning. Single-loop learning is associated with changing behavior, while double-loop learning involves changing the underlying values that determine people's actions. Two types of theories-in-action, according to Argyris, are espoused theories (verbalized values) and theories-in-use (actual

beliefs/values). His research has found that these two types of theories-in-action are often in a state of dissention within the individual.

Model I and Model II are two types of theories-in-use that Argyris describes. Model I theories are beliefs, attitudes expressed in ways that others are unable to question or test them. Model II theories are more open and reveal how/why they were formed. Argyris maintains that Model II theories-in-use facilitate double-loop learning and inhibit defensive routines. It is also important, he suggests, that individuals make their real assumptions and inferences known so that the "undiscussables and cover-ups" that nourish organizational defensive routines can be identified (Argyris, 1993; The Developer, January 1995).

In effective educational restructuring, long-held, basic assumptions must be challenged (Sizer, 1991; Astuto and others, 1994). Sizer (1991, p.34) asserts:

American education is stuck today, stuck on well-intentioned, deeply traditional, but flawed ideas about learning and teaching. Honestly - commonsensically -challenging these ideas leads us on to new and challenging ground.

Attempts to redesign school organizational structures that are responsive to everchanging student needs and sensitive to adult needs (for freedom and support) are confined by assumptions and beliefs that are rooted in perspectives about the "necessary" features of an organization (Astuto and others, 1994). Bureaucracy is the accepted pattern for

structural workplaces. Along with challenging such assumptions, negotiating compromises and deciding what is truly important in education will lead to improvement in schools (Sizer, 1991). Sizer also suggests a type of synergistic consideration. To change one aspect of school affects all others. Failure to take account of this synergistic character "delivers. . . (the) faculty into the frustration of institutional paralysis or smothers the change (process). . ." (p. 33). Thus, it is necessary to attend to all parts of the organization at once.

Joyce (1991) also subscribes to a similar idea of synergistic reform. In his review of the literature and research, he found that there are five major emphases for school improvement approaches:

1. Collegiality: developing cohesive and professional relations within school faculties and connecting them more closely to their surrounding neighborhoods.
2. Research: helping school faculties study research findings about effective school practices or instructional alternatives.
3. Site-specific information: helping faculties collect and analyze data about their schools and their students' progress.
4. Curriculum initiatives: introducing changes within subject areas or, as in the case of the computer, across the curriculum area.
5. Instructional initiatives: organizing teachers to study teaching skills and strategies.

All of these approaches can lead to change within a school because they can affect the school's culture. Joyce refers to

these approaches as "doors to school improvement" and contends that the passageways are connected. The real pitfall is to accept that one passageway is better than another.

Another holistic viewpoint envisions schools as social systems that function in relation to roles, responsibilities, and relationships in an attempt to reach goals and objectives. As a result of this process, cultures are established which are based upon rituals and routines, norms, and value systems. When schools are viewed as social systems, the change process is "holistic" instead of "piecemeal" (Bellon, 1990).

Research. As early as 1976, a longitudinal study (Siskin, 1991) was begun at a high school in California which offered increased site-level autonomy, shared goals, norms, and objectives, and teacher involvement in decision making. This study provides longitudinal data of how departments have developed into professional communities. Another study (Kramer, 1994) examined the interrelationship of restructuring and the "effective school" correlates. It was found that the effective school correlates were not present in the mandated restructuring efforts of selected schools in Texas.

Lieberman and others (1991) looked at restructuring in 12 schools in the "Schools of Tomorrow. . .Today" project in New York City which initiated work teams to create change. They found issues such as inadequate resources, relationships between all personnel, and organizational support needs to be of interest. Lessons of restructuring efforts include:

recognizing the relations between process and content; redefining success; understanding that big visions require small building blocks; building team relationships; and linking the team to the school.

The following findings represent a synthesis of several recent case studies of restructuring efforts: 1) leadership at the level of principal is very critical in restructuring schools (Shumway, 1993; Barnes, 1993; Williams, 1993) and autocratic leadership at this level impedes change (Williams, 1993); 2) shared values and beliefs within the school are necessary for school improvement (Shumway, 1993); 3) locally developed change is more powerful than adopted/canned approaches (Shumway, 1993) and it requires support by all participant groups (Williams, 1993; Bak, 1992; Torian, 1993); 4) cultural change is related to different roles and collaboration (Barnes, 1993; Akins, 1993; Bak, 1992; Torian, 1993); 5) vision building is essential for restructuring (Barnes, 1993); 6) participants must be "ready" for change (Bak, 1992); and 7) change should become an institutionalized process (Bak, 1992). DeFrank (1993) noted problem areas also. He found that change must be given attention or it will not occur, change agents must be effective leaders and managers, responsibility must accompany empowerment, resources are necessary, and accountability is needed by stakeholders.

Suggestions. Various theorists/researchers have identified critical elements needed for effective change and

offered proposals for restructuring schools. Some of these lists and proposals follow. Glickman (1993) proposes a four-part restructuring strategy based on local, state, and federal funding because adequate funding is necessary for responsible decision making (Sizer, 1991; Glickman, 1993). Glickman's restructuring strategy includes:

1. Allowing schools to develop their vision of learning with districts, state, and federal input being limited to helping the schools set priorities, develop assessments, learn new practices, and other assistance activities;
2. Establishing 20 to 30 "Centers of Educational Innovation" in each state that provide leadership and support for school-based instructional improvement;
3. Providing "risk capital," funds from corporations, state, and federal government, for the neediest schools;
4. Establishing university-public school preparation sites that attract the best students to teacher education through internships, student teaching, and classes/seminars linked to exemplary schools.

For a school to be successful, it must be a community of professionals who collaborate and share a vision of teaching and learning. Such a school must develop a vision, determine decision making practices, evaluate strategies being used, establish goals, identify and control resources, and avoid distractions (Glickman, 1992). David (1991, p. 11) maintains that the critical elements required for successful restructuring are a "sincere invitation to change, authority and flexibility, access to knowledge, and time to plan."

Educational reform is in a tug of war between excessive

control (legislated mandates) and excessive freedom (empowerment) (Glickman, 1990). One idea is not to destruct the current bureaucratic system, but instead to restructure it in a more effective, hierarchical manner (Hansen, 1989). An opposite suggestion is one supporting a grassroots movement focused on "teacher- and student- centered reforms"(Astuto and others, 1994, p. 96). Glickman (1990) suggests a more balanced center of change. Without such a balance, he contends, the pendulum will continue to swing from one extreme to the other as it has repeatedly in educational reform. The real improvement of schools must come from professional motivation which results from having the choice to make decisions about educational issues and being held accountable for those decisions (Glickman, 1990). Whether it is choice without responsibility or vice versa, as it has been at different swings of the educational pendulum, the students are negatively affected. Glickman maintains that the message to policymakers is to make schools accountable for achieving negotiated goals, but to allow the schools to determine how they will achieve their goals.

Deal (1990) cautions against the impact of constant change on the culture of schools and the "spirit" of educators. Seemingly needless change (as perceived by the teachers) erodes the joy of teaching and creates strain within the school's culture. He questions the ability to actually change formal roles and relationships within the educational

organization and contends that "tinkering" with such will not make a significant difference in the lives of students or teachers. The alternatives, instead, are a look backwards at time-tested traditions and a transformation of the basic character of schools.

A Closer Look at Site-Based Management/Shared Decision Making

Definition of Terms. In examining the literature, one can easily become confused due to the various terms used and their meanings. More confusion results when terms are not defined. Bellon (1990) differentiates between site-based management (oft referred to as school-based management in the literature) and site-based decision making (sometimes referred to as shared decision making in the literature). Since these are the definitions this researcher has used as a guide, they follow:

Site-based management - This is a management approach whereby virtually all of the important educational decisions and resource decisions are made at the school site. In many cases, a school site management council is responsible for developing policies for school governance and monitoring the principal and other administrators to see that the policies are carried out. The council is usually comprised of the principal, several teachers, and several parents. In some cases, students are also included on the council. The power of councils varies considerably. . . The councils. . . can remove principals and have a major voice in other personnel matters. They may also have a major responsibility for resource allocation and curriculum decisions. In other school systems, the councils are less powerful and work more in a collaborative mode.

Site-based decision making - Generally speaking, site based decision making is viewed as the

decision process for site-based management. In other words, it is the decision process used where site-based management is in place. . .

Because site-based management (SBM) and site-based decision making (SBDM) are two common forms of educational restructuring and are sometimes confused with shared leadership, the following review is included.

An Overview of SBM/SBDM. David (1989) provides a synthesis of research on SBM that presents one viewpoint. She contends that although earlier forms of SBM previously existed, current forms focus more on empowerment that supports improvement, innovation, and professional growth. SBM replaces bureaucracy with professional responsibility, school autonomy, and professional accountability. It alters roles and responsibilities within the individual schools and the district office. The rationale for SBM is based on the propositions that: the school is the primary decision making unit and change requires ownership. Policies that evolve from this rationale are: increasing school autonomy through site budgetary control and relief from confining rules and regulations and sharing the authority to make decisions with teachers and possibly other stakeholders. School autonomy includes budgeting, staffing, curriculum, and other "second-order" changes. ("Second-order" changes is a term popularized by Cuban (1984) and refers to more difficult educational issues such as the school calendar, criteria for pupil assignment and promotion, etc.) David notes that there are

few examples of second-order changes as a result of SBM. Two common problems of SBM are identified: substituting participation for authority and delegating authority without strong leadership and support.

Bellon (1989), in a review of the research, suggests other findings related to SBM: relationships are not substantially influenced; the positive impact upon morale seems to dissipate; there is little evidence that the quality of planning improves; the instructional component of schools often is not affected; schools react differently when making decisions related to resources; job satisfaction is increased with real authority; and administrators require new skills and competencies as roles change. It is known that the organizational culture has an impact upon the success of SBM which takes years to implement adequately. Bellon also notes that considerable research is needed to determine the effects of SBM upon the entire educational program.

The literature is filled with practitioner suggestions, lessons, success stories, and cautions related to SBM and SBDM. Hoyle (1992), in his list of "ten commandments" for principals suggests such as: learn the language of effective teaching and learning, train teachers in consensus building and decision making, promote a school vision, be truthful, and make heroes/heroines of others. Bergman (1992) provides eight lessons for principals relating to: listening, communication, trust, reflection, and action. Guthrie (1986) maintains that

for schools to function as the primary decision making unit, they need: 1) principals who function as a chief executive officer, 2) school advisory councils, 3) school-site budgeting and accounting, and 4) annual planning and performance reports. In a report issued by the Hawaii State Department of Education (1992) on a school/community based management process used in some schools, key success factors were identified: the principal's role in the initiation process, shared vision, open communication, respect, trust, collaboration, empowerment, operational guidelines, and continued support by the district and state offices. Lange (1993) enumerates the benefits of SBM/SBDM from a study: administrator role redefinition, autonomy's effects on improving the school's culture, an increased commitment to decisions, increased staff cohesion and trust, and the development of new skills.

Others provide a glimpse of the not so positive side of SBM/SBDM. Mutchler (March 1990) offers eight barriers to change in this process: the fear of taking risks, the fear of losing power, resistance to changing roles and responsibilities, the lack of trust, a lack of definition and clarity, inadequate or inappropriate resources, the lack of skills, and the lack of hierarchical support. She also stresses that change at the school site level must be accompanied by change at all levels of the system (April 1990). Lindquist and Mauriel (1989) predict that SBM is

doomed for failure due to the disparity between the theory of SBM and actual implementation results. They identify three general problems that have hindered the development of SBM: "conceptual flaws in the idea of SBM and incongruence in the various definitions of SBM used" (p. 403); the lack of delegation of authority to schools; and the overwhelming requirements of time and skill that the implementation of SBM dictates.

SBDM, as an lone entity, has been treated favorably and disfavorably in the literature. Kessler (1992) depicts an example of SBDM as improving communication, developing trust, and focusing attention on school improvement efforts. However, Weiss and others (1991) note that problems emerge with SDM: conflicts between who participates and who does not, conflicts among participants, internal conflicts within the individual, confusion regarding the final authority on decisions, and the obvious need for teacher training on decision making skills. Reed (1992) also found that teacher preparation is necessary due to the fact that teachers "wield" their power to maintain a comfortable working environment; and since many teachers feel greater efficacy in isolated situations, informal power tactics support isolation. Cialfi (1992) notes that when decision making units exist, there must be an organizational structure that connects the decision making units (teams, committees or such) or isolation definitely will result.

In a study published in the U.S. Office of Educational Research and Improvement's Research Reports, "Who's in Charge? Teachers' View on Control Over School Policy and Classroom Practice," teachers report that SBM/SBDM does not lead to a sense of control over their schools. They are more likely to feel in control of classroom practices than school related issues (The Developer, January 1995). When schools and/or teachers are only given "marginal authority" and are expected to form site councils and prepare reports, teachers perceive this as another form of top-down control. Thus, SBDM does not necessarily bring benefits to those involved (David, 1989). Tye (1992) identifies why current restructuring is doomed for failure and suggests that the decision making process must change. Decision making is usually perceived hierarchically and authority flows from top to bottom. State department of education and district administrators will have to learn to support and facilitate, while teachers and principals will have to learn to make collective decisions.

The purpose of SBM/SBDM should not be empowerment, but the ability to respond to the needs of students (Bellon, 1989). Often the process is in place, but the participants actually have very little authority to make important decisions related to the needs of their students. Just as SBM must be effectively linked with SBDM to make a lasting impact on school improvement (Mutchler, 1989), participants must be trained to effectively participate and be given the authority

to do so.

A Closer Look at Shared Leadership

Definition. Just as there are numerous definitions and approaches for the concept of site-based management, so, too, are there for shared leadership. In reviewing the literature on this topic, shared leadership was examined in relation to the following definition which has been used as a guide for the shared leadership project that is a focus of this study:

Shared leadership - In the Shared Leadership Project, shared leadership is viewed as the process of strengthening the leadership competencies, knowledge, and skills of all personnel in the school so that the school will be more effective in achieving its most important goals. The purpose of the project is to develop schools where there is greater collaboration in all important phases of operation. (It is the desire) that schools in the project develop a better understanding of leadership and ways that more people can and should be involved in the leadership process. Some form of team leadership is strongly recommended, but no particular approach is prescribed. Each school is unique and improvement can only come when the participants identify their own needs and make their decisions about how to attend to the needs. The shared leadership project helps schools to understand what is needed for effective leadership, but does not impose any structures or organizational expectations on them. (Bellon, 1990)

An Overview of Shared Leadership. Shared leadership in essence is more vague and less prescriptive than SBM or other restructuring approaches. It is based upon the position that there is no quick fix for local improvements. Schools should be centers of decision making and renewal (Sirotnik and Clark, 1988) instead of the end product of change efforts. Such

centers of decision making and renewal will seek to involve and empower all stakeholders. The feeling of empowerment improves one's attitude and, with appropriate training, one's skills and competencies. Through effective collaboration, "communities of learners" can be established. Lieberman (1988) contends also that a school should have a community of leaders and for this to occur, teachers must have opportunities to assume responsibility, make decisions, and be accountable for those decisions. Such teacher leadership can build collegiality and improve communication (Lieberman, 1988).

Leadership has often been viewed as a "property" of an individual. However, leadership has only recently been considered in terms of a group or shared process. Johnson (1993) found support for the conceptualization of leadership as a process that can come from numerous people within an organization and for the need to expand the definition of shared leadership to include instructional, professional, and organizational factors.

According to the literature, a combination of the following characteristics indicate the presence of shared leadership in a school: the use of shared decision making, some form of leadership teams/committees, increased self esteem (teachers and students), greater participation in leadership activities by school personnel, improved identification of needs, and improved communication among all

parties (Fields, 1993). Bair (1992) maintains that research supports the concepts that: being a part of the decision-making process is more important than actually making the final decision ("getting one's way"); collaboration positively affects self-esteem; and shared leadership recognizes collective expertise which affects loyalty, job satisfaction, and shared ownership for decision making.

Shared Leadership Project Information. Because a particular Shared Leadership Project in Tennessee serves as the basis for this research study, the following information regarding Project rationale, assumptions, propositions, and guidelines is presented as part of the literature review. The Shared Leadership Project evolved from other research conducted by the project team on improving the quality of school life (QSL) (Bellon, 1991b). Through this research, they found: that improvements in the school depend on the quality of the school's leadership; the principal is not the only important leader in the school; and that when leadership is shared with others, improvements are more likely to be initiated and sustained over long periods of time. The QSL research also found that teachers want to be involved in the decision making process and want to be empowered to make a contribution to schoolwide decisions. However, teachers recognize the need to develop leadership skills. It was also found that school climate and student attitudes were positively affected by teacher empowerment. The QSL research,

conducted over a period of several years, convinced the project team that improving school leadership is the key to improving education. The team supports participation by all appropriate stakeholders and the enhancement of leadership skills and competencies of all involved.

The Shared Leadership Project is based upon the following assumptions (which were formulated from the QSL research and other work in the educational field) (Bellon, 1991b):

1. The single school unit is the most appropriate unit for making long term high quality change.
2. Recipes or "canned approaches" to school improvement will not be effective over the long term.
3. Schools should be centers of renewal and not targets of change or reform.
4. Leadership is the key ingredient in the renewal process.
5. Leadership is not vested in a single position.
6. Leadership renewal is dependent on enhancing the knowledge skills and attitudes of the participants.
7. Important qualitative organizational changes take commitment, conviction, and sufficient resources.

In an effort to implement the Shared Leadership philosophy of the project, these propositions were made (Bellon, 1993a):

1. If Shared Leadership is going to make a significant contribution to schooling, we must make the connection to student learning and school success.
2. The process of school transformation must be systemic.
3. Understanding, accommodating, and dealing with

paradoxes is an important requisite of effective leadership for change. (Examples of paradoxes are: in order to compete effectively, we must cooperate; we must have both centralized and decentralized governance structures; problems are our friends; success requires failure; the most effective people have a strong commitment to improving while the least effective believe that they do not need to change or improve, etc.)

After three years of participation in the Shared Leadership Project, the following guidelines (Bellon, 1993c) were constructed. The guidelines are intended to be evolutionary and not a set of static, rigid principles or a formula. The Shared Leadership Project has always been emphasized as a highly contextual process focused on restructuring for school improvement.

Shared Leadership Project Guidelines:

Developing Understanding

1. Clarify and define
2. Develop a shared understanding
3. Determine the state of your organization
4. Decide upon the future direction of your organization

Taking Action

1. Determine the capacity for implementation
2. Develop a flexible structure for implementation
3. Focus on meaningful change
4. Develop a plan of action
5. Evaluate and celebrate

Theories And Research On Teacher Empowerment

The term teacher empowerment stirs different emotions and conceptualizations within different people. Various philosophies and concerns related to authority,

responsibility, accountability, job security, professional growth, and the ability to meet student needs are connected to teacher empowerment and are dependent upon whether one is a teacher or an administrator (Heller, 1993). As Glickman (1991) notes, those schools in the nation which have faculties and administrators who want to share in the choice and responsibilities of schoolwide decisions are rare -- possibly 10 to 20 percent. In the majority of places, suspicion rules:

The leaders think that to empower teachers will lead to anarchy and evil, and most of the teachers think that administrators and supervisors who talk about empowerment are giving paternalistic lip service to listening to their suggestions rather than truly sitting with them as co-equals in real decisions (Glickman, 1991, p. 9)

Various research studies have described the complexities of teaching in U.S. public schools. Findings from such researchers as Lieberman and Miller (1984), McLaughlin and others (1986), and Lortie (1975) present teachers as individuals who spend 5 or 6 hours with students; have little opportunity to work with other adults; make innumerable daily decisions; deal with students from diverse backgrounds and with varying levels of skills; and often have inadequate resources. Elementary teachers face "curriculum overload" and the lack of coordination from one grade level to the next. Secondary teachers deal with large numbers of students daily and often have to compete for resources among the various departments within their school (Wasley, 1991). Wasley maintains:

Teachers find it impossible to foster the growth and development of students for a variety of reasons. The clientele is conscripted, and teachers have little or no control over the way things are done. They have too many students and inadequate resources. . . .The result is that they are unable to meet their own goals -- improving learning for students -- and the effects of this are devastating. (p. 10)

In addition, low salaries cause some teachers to take on extra jobs and sometimes leave the profession. The absence of a system for advancement and the isolating work environments of most schools also are weak incentives. These weak incentives can contribute to high rates of turnover and low commitment levels from teachers and can cause teachers to look elsewhere for external rewards outside of teaching (Wasley, 1991).

Wasley (1991) suggests that teaching in its current state is "problematic and unlikely to produce more competent students in the years to come" (p. 21). Recent findings from teacher empowerment research and change research directly influence the discussion on teacher leadership and affirms that teachers must be involved in the restructuring process if results are to be achieved. The new perception of teaching views it as "a non-routine activity drawing on a reliable body of technical knowledge and conducted in collaboration with other professional colleagues" (Leithwood, 1992, p. 100). Sykes (1987) maintains that if a teacher's main reward comes from his/her students (a finding supported by Little, 1987), the structure of rewards needs to be recalculated to promote greater student success. Fullan (1994) supports this by

recommending a transformation of the teaching profession so that teacher leadership is attained and sustained for all teachers instead of just a few. He asserts that quality learning for all students is unattainable until all teachers' leadership skills are developed.

Given the established need for teacher involvement in restructuring efforts and the fact that teaching is a complex act associated with numerous problems, teacher empowerment will be examined by looking at the issue of professionalism and a review of the research.

The Issue of Professionalism

Even though most refer to teachers as professionals, the debate regarding whether they are truly professionals and whether they are treated as professionals goes on. Generally agreed upon definitions of professional practice include a possession of a specialized knowledge base; the ability to use that knowledge in nonroutine circumstances and in ways that affect "clients;" a strong commitment to do what is best for the "client;" and an opportunity to make an impact upon one's profession through licensing, etc. (Wasley, 1991). A review of the literature acknowledges the difficulty in describing teachers in this manner. Teachers in traditional situations have few opportunities to participate in decision making, work with colleagues, or determine the standards against which they or their students are evaluated. Such inhibits real learning in schools (Wasley, 1991).

Wise (1990) suggests that to transform teaching into an authentic profession would require several reforms including restructuring for teacher decision making. Keedy (1992) also contends that there is a need for "intellectual" empowerment for teachers. Without this, teachers will continue to look for answers from "above" (research centers, universities, mandates, administrators, etc.) rather than from themselves. This is an interesting point in light of what Moomaw (1984) proposes. Even though his focus is on the university level, a connection can be made to public education teachers at all levels. Moomaw suggests that leadership in the academic community is different from the business or government arena due to who educators seek to lead (the faculty) and the job itself. His view of educators are that they are highly educated, trained to question, and dedicated to modeling appropriate behaviors. Faculties have their own ideas and are quite skeptical about alternative ideas. He contends, "Unlike the proverbial horse, they often can neither be led to water nor made to drink it." The comparison is also made (by Moomaw) to Peters and Waterman's (1982) "loose-tight" principle for business because educational organizations also support the coexistence of centralization and individual autonomy.

Glickman (1991) urges educators to confront their professional knowledge in a first step toward restructuring -- to stop "pretending not to know what we know." This knowledge

base is related to empowerment issues and the concept of decentralization. Glickman says:

Today, as we answer the calls for restructuring, school faculties can begin by opening up their suppressed knowledge, thus creating debate and fostering their own value-driven enthusiasm for "doing the right thing" for students. . . (p. 4)

He enumerates eleven things known to educators related to teaching and learning, teachers and work conditions, and school improvement. Glickman stresses that the point of his list (or any variation of it that one might prefer) is: that knowledge must be confronted and used to guide all change efforts and that schools must be operated in different ways using this knowledge. Even though the decentralization, deregulation, site-based, empowerment movement is "on the right track," it will not be effective unless the quality of education improves. He recommends forming "elite" schools to improve the quality of education. Elite schools are defined as:

. . .places where central office people, building administrators, and teachers trust each other to share in decisions about teaching and learning. Elite schools are places where those with formal leadership responsibilities know, as Schlechty has remarked, "In democratic environments power is achieved by giving it away rather than struggling for more." (p.9)

A Review of the Research

There are varying views of teacher leadership in the literature. In a review of the literature on teacher leadership, Wasley (1991) found that: teachers are interested

in new roles which expand their skills and increase their involvement; teachers who hold these positions benefit from them and develop new skills; much of the work involved is administrative and not related to instruction; there is a lack of security related to these roles; high costs of time and conflict are related to these positions; teacher leaders are often not adequately trained; and there is little evidence to suggest a connection to student learning or that the roles support teachers. Bachus (1991; 1992) confirms through his research that teachers in small districts want to participate in schoolwide decision making. Even though a majority of teachers want to be involved in all decision making activities, all teachers surveyed want to be involved in issues related to teaching and the classroom. Hallinger and Richardson (1988) found, in a review of the research and from field experiences, four models of teacher involvement: the principal's advisory council, an instructional support team, the school improvement team, and the lead teacher committee. Each of the models, they contend, contribute to teacher empowerment and an improved school culture. However, Little (1987) maintains as a result of her research that teacher leadership, as it is currently being considered by reformers, is unlikely to succeed.

Relationships Within School Communities

With the current focus on teachers participating in

schoolwide decision making processes, sharing leadership, and becoming change agents in the restructuring efforts, the aspect of relationships within school communities must be considered. Restructuring will ensure changed relationships.

As Conley (1990) notes, relationships must be examined because SBM (or any other restructuring effort) cannot guarantee the necessary environment for change. School cultures will need a "participatory management philosophy" that respects teachers as professionals and as decision makers. A facilitative power structure that is based upon trust, reciprocity, and relationships between professionals who behave as peers is also necessary (Dunlap and Goldman, 1991). Facilitative power differs from authoritative, democratic, or anarchic power and is consistent with current reform efforts and previous effective school research. It is defined as "power manifested through someone" rather than power that controls someone and is rooted in conditions of "interaction, negotiation, and mutuality descriptive of professional organizations" (p. 13). Rusch's (1992) research found that participation itself disrupts the traditional hierarchy of power and influence and, therefore, creates new tensions among all members of the school culture. According to Holcomb (1993), saying that roles are changing is not enough. A conscious effort to model new behaviors must be made, especially by those in formal leadership positions. Although preliminary research on SBM (one form of

restructuring) shows some progress in redefining leaders, restructuring roles, and establishing new relationships within the school culture, roles are still somewhat vague and there appears to be little impact upon student achievement (Education USA, April 15, 1991).

The remainder of this section will explore the research and various theories related to relationships within the school and new roles assumed by members of a changing school culture. Different relationships and role changes will be examined.

Relationships/New Roles

Voices from the Inside (1993), research conducted by The Institute for Education in Transformation at the Claremont Graduate School, suggests that positive relationships within the school culture support teaching and learning. This study was an examination of schooling from inside the classroom. The report contends that:

Because of multiple, competing and often contradictory demands placed on schools largely from outside, because of the responses and resistance to these and other pressures generated on the inside, and because of the increasingly limited resources -- school participants have great difficulty focusing significant attention on their students, regardless of their desire to do so. Currently, the education system in the U.S. is one in which deeply committed people inside schools feel incapable of acting on their own values. The result is that participants inside schools, from students to administrators, feel unable to meet responsibilities, expectations and goals for themselves and for others. (p. 12)

Seven issues repeatedly raised by all participants within the

schools studied were: relationships; race, culture, and class; values; teaching and learning; safety; physical environment; and, despair, hope, and the process of change. These seven issues suggest the following should be done before attempting other reforms:

1. We must change the nature of the national conversation about the problems of public education to include these issues.
2. We must reexamine current practices and proposed solutions in light of these issues.
3. We must develop productive participatory processes that will allow for all participants inside schools to identify for themselves the problems and successes that exist at each school site.

Teacher Collaboration. Smylie (1992) found that teachers' beliefs about collegiality (or collaboration as used in this study), interdependence, and professional status are important in establishing working relationships. His findings are related to previous research conducted on teacher collegial interaction (Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986; Glidewell and others, 1983; Little, 1989; Smylie, 1989; Hargreaves, 1990; Hart, 1990; Nicholson, 1984; Lazzara and others, 1989). These researcher/authors suggest that when teachers are given opportunities to interact, the frequency and focus of the interactions are affected by the teachers' beliefs about professional status, rights, obligations, their students, and whether their interactions with others will improve or detract from their relationships with their students. Even though opportunity is necessary for teacher

interaction, teachers' beliefs guide the interactions within available opportunities.

Smylie (1992) found in his study that teacher leadership roles may conflict with two important professional beliefs: equality of status and independence. Leadership roles create different levels of status between teachers which could affect feelings of obligation to respond to the advice of teacher leaders. Such feelings of obligation could negatively affect the independence that teachers generally enjoy in their work. As a result, the frequency of interaction could be lessened. Smylie also, unexpectedly, found that the school context is a "negligible influence on teacher-teacher leader interaction" (p. 95). Therefore, collegial relationships established within the school setting might not be extended to teacher leaders due to the differences in their roles. Teachers might deem their environment as collegial, but not interact with teacher leaders.

Even though Smylie's study was drawn from a small sample, he maintains the conclusions are consistent with "theoretical perspectives emphasizing the importance of psychological orientations and characteristics of social context in individuals' choice of and participation in social interactions" (p. 96). In other words, if there is conflict between psychological orientation, rules, and roles, interaction is less likely to occur.

Monson and Monson (1993) also discuss the tension and

conflict that can result from new teacher leader roles. Teachers who participate in decision making relating to the curriculum, for example, experience conflict with regard to centralization and decentralization issues. Because there is a need for uniformity and consensus across a district, new roles are in conflict with the traditional expectations of following a curriculum guide. Currently, there are mixed visions of curriculum development ranging from the individual teacher making isolated decisions, school-based decisions made by a group, individual teachers who follow a guide written by the system, to national quality/accountability measures like the national standards. These conflicting visions affect autonomy. Monson and Monson suggest that the parameters of autonomy must be defined to eliminate the vagueness of new roles and to actualize them. This definition should include both collective and individual levels of teacher involvement in decision making.

There are a variety of new roles that teachers assume and characteristics that enable them to be effective in their new roles. Fasold (1992) looked at teachers as change agents and found that teacher leaders participate in various roles and are effective because of good communication skills, initiative, and the ability to connect people with information. Effective teacher leaders work toward inclusion and collaboration and enjoy diversity. Some teachers are assuming the new role of self-evaluator or peer-evaluator.

Such can take many forms, for example: peer coaching (Rooney, 1993), peer appraisals (Walen and DeRose, 1993), horizontal evaluation (Gitlin and Price, 1992), "critical friendship" (Costa and Kallick, 1993), and self-evaluation (Black, 1993).

Teachers also are increasingly becoming involved in action research. Calhoun (1993) suggests three types of action research which allows educators to study areas of concern and to meet the challenges of their classroom and schools: individual teacher research, collaborative action research, and schoolwide action research. Action research is seen as a means to curricular and instructional improvement, reflective teaching, professional growth, and collegial sharing when given support from the school and district (Calhoun, 1993; Johnson, 1993; Bennett, 1993).

Teachers and Principal Relationships. The relationships between principals and teachers are very important, especially in schools wishing to restructure. Bredeson (1992), looked at teacher and principal perceptions of organizational changes caused by restructuring and found that the difference in perspectives was related to role specific changes. Restructuring and issues of empowerment led to role conflict within the schools. Those schools that had poor teacher/principal relationships were found more likely to resist restructuring.

In order for principals and teachers to be successful in forging new collaborative relationships, some previously held

beliefs about each other must be erased, student learning must be most important, each must assess his/her own philosophical and psychological orientation, and everyone must "work smarter together." Liftig (1990) cautions that principals and teachers must reexamine their "hostile misconceptions" of each other for true reform and "exorcise" the "Terminators," "Snoopervisors," "Harrassers," "Loafers," "Successful Incompetents," "Artful Dodgers," and "Them." Student learning should be the focus of anything and everything done in schools. Empowerment and relational changes will allow schools to move in different directions for the purpose of meeting student needs. Garner and Bell (1990, p. 29) maintain:

Decision making in itself should never take precedence over what is happening in classrooms. In other words, teachers and principals should be concerned first with the students and second with who controls the power.

Each individual has his/her own philosophical and psychological orientation. Some people prefer to work alone while others enjoy working with others. Some people desire the freedom to create while others want to follow a predescribed set of steps. These orientations might be related to various educational theories such as cooperative learning and Gardner's (1983) interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Awareness of one's own orientation is important in functioning in an unbiased manner within an organizational setting. Glickman (1991) contends that some

formal leaders are unable to relinquish power and some teachers do not desire to function outside of their classroom. These are issues that must be given consideration. In examining principals' psychological types and their openness to selected changes in the organizational culture, Huang (1993) concluded that principals need to be aware of their own preferences and counterbalance them by working with opposite types. Principals and teachers must develop faculties that "work smarter together" rather than harder (Donaldson, 1993). Both must be willing to concede both authority and responsibilities to others within the organization, appear unknowledgeable and vulnerable, trust others to accept responsibilities and use power wisely, and share information that is needed to make decisions.

Parental and Student Relationships. Finally, the issue of parental and student relationships within the school community will be examined. These relationships are very significant in a healthy, learning community. Often in the traditional school setting, parents' roles include attending PTA meetings, open houses, and parent conferences. The students' role is one of a passive or (hopefully) active learner. In both scenarios, neither participant has any input into the decision making process of the school. With restructuring, parents and students are in some cases assuming new, more involved roles. In these situations, parents are often included on various school committees and/or attend

school retreats that focus on establishing new relationships between the home and the school.

Vandegrift and Greene (1992) suggest that educators rethink parent involvement and realize that the "ideal parent" is a rarity. Parent involvement is composed of two key elements: involvement and support. They propose that there are actually four types of parents based upon their involvement and support levels. The key to garnering real parent involvement is "meeting the parents where they are" (p. 59). Therefore, schools wishing to include parents in decision making will need to begin this inclusion process at the level appropriate for their community.

In traditional settings, students are thought of as the recipients of information rather than co-participants in the learning process. Those schools immersed in the change process often view their students differently and involve them in decision making opportunities within the classroom setting. These decision making opportunities range from choosing their own seats in the classroom or solving a classroom problem to curricular and instructional issues. Bottery (1990) contends that allowing for and supporting student participation in school organizational and curricular decisions reflects the school's values and teaches democracy and citizenship.

Collaboration And Teaming

There is an extensive overlapping of issues related to teacher leadership and empowerment, relationships within the school context, and collaboration and teaming. Beyer (1992) concludes in his study that collaborative inquiry is a means to teacher empowerment. Teachers acquire power due to the fact that they have opportunities for input and related action. Collaborative power through a team approach to problem solving is stronger than isolated individual power. Another researcher, Evans (1992), found that there is a linkage between trust and a collaborative, collegial workplace whose members have shared values and utilize shared management practices.

Much also has been written and discussed in the educational arena about community. Senge's (1990) "community of learners" and learning organizations, Kofman and Senge's (1993) "communities of commitment," and Gardner's (1989) sense of community are examples. Gardner (1989) listed the following characteristics of community: wholeness incorporating diversity; a shared culture; good internal communication; caring, trust, and teamwork; group maintenance and government; participation and the sharing of leadership tasks; development of young people; and links with the outside world. To complete the review of these interwoven topics, this section will examine the research and expert opinion related to collaboration and teaming.

An Examination of Collaboration

Since the mid-1980's several researchers and theorists have recognized collaboration and collegiality (which will be treated synonymously in this discussion) as the best way to produce positive change. "People change" is the only way to change the norms, beliefs, policies, and procedures of the organization according to Lezotte (from the Foreword of Searce, 1992). He characterizes the tools for such change as "stick power" (intimidation, punishment, force), "carrot power" (rewards and incentives), and "hug power" (shared beliefs, visions, and values), and he recommends "hug power" which comes from collaboration and teaming. Collaborative relationships are necessary among all school community members if restructuring is to occur in meaningful ways (Wasley, 1991).

Little (1986), Rosenholtz (1989), and McLaughlin and Yee (1988) have studied the benefits of collaboration and collegiality. Little (1986), initially, made an argument for the need for collegiality with her study of principals who shared leadership with teachers on a daily basis. These principals guaranteed that teachers practiced collaborative skills, encouraged experimentation, and allotted time for teachers to work together. Rosenholtz (1989) examined teacher growth within the school context and found that "learning enriched" schools set collaborative goals, had shared values, and were given opportunities to work together. Fear and

uncertainty and impediments to change were diminished in such schools. McLaughlin and Yee (1988) found that collegiality is one of the factors contributing to a satisfying teaching career. Because teachers do not view growth as an ascent up a hierarchical ladder, success is related to improved teaching skills that increase their effectiveness with students. Collaboration allows for professional growth. Such research indicates that professional growth and change flourish in collaborative environments where there are shared values and goals, where professionals are taught how to work collaboratively and given the opportunities, and where the focus is on curricular and instructional improvement (Wasley, 1991).

Little (1987) considers the research on teacher collaboration. She identifies the teacher-student relationship as the main source of rewards in teaching and also as the most important obligation to which teachers are held accountable. (McLaughlin, 1993, found something similar which will be reviewed in the next section.) Little maintains that because of the impact of the teacher-student relationship, relationships formed with colleagues must be evaluated by their ability to make the teacher-student relationship stronger and more effective. Some studies embellish the classroom benefits of collegiality such as achievement gains and behavioral improvements (Little, 1981; Bird and Little, 1985). However, the flip side is that

teachers experience frustration in the early stages of working together and sometimes opt to go back to more familiar routines. A commitment may be the only reason that a group initially stays together (Little, 1981).

Little (1987) contends that the advantages of collaboration revolve around "breaking the isolation of the classroom" by expanding teachers': instructional range, depth, and flexibility; influence and respect; career rewards and daily satisfactions. Schools also benefit from the establishment of a collaborative culture (Little, 1987). Parents, teachers, students, and the principal increase their knowledge of curricular content and process through working together. Such schools are generally better able to examine and test new ideas, methods, and materials. Also, collaborative schools handle staff turnover better by enveloping new staff members into their culture. The teaching profession, however, does not seem to benefit from collaboration. Teachers have few opportunities to add to the knowledge base (Little, 1985; Lortie, 1975).

Though collegiality is relatively rare, in some schools it is a state of being (Little, 1982). In such schools, teachers: talk about teaching, share in planning and preparation, participate in classroom observations, train together, and train one another (Little, 1987). These relationships are supported by: "1) symbolic endorsements and rewards that place value on cooperative work and make the

sources of interdependence clear; 2) school-level organization of staff assignments and leadership; 3) latitude for influence on crucial matters of curriculum and instruction; 4) time; 5) training and assistance; and 6) material support" (Little, 1987, p. 183).

Even though serious collaboration is rare and it contradicts the historical precedence of "doing school" (which leads to many abandoning the idea early on), those who successfully collaborate are enthusiastic about the experience. Theoretically, it just makes sense. Practically, it works and it doesn't -- given the circumstances. Little (1987, p.188) maintains:

For teachers to work often and fruitfully as colleagues requires action on all fronts. The value that is placed on shared work must be both said and shown. The opportunity for shared work and shared study must be prominent in the schedule for the day, the week, the year. The purpose for work together must be compelling and the task sufficiently challenging. The material resources and human assistance must be adequate. The accomplishments of individuals and groups must be recognized and celebrated.

Heller (1993) discusses the collaborative school, collaborative practices, conditions necessary for collaboration, and steps toward successful staff collaboration. Collaborative schools value educational improvement and encourage teachers to engage in dialog about teaching, take risks, cooperatively plan and evaluate curriculum, and seek collegial feedback about instructional practices. They stimulate new, creating thinking and problem

solving so that the focus is on helping the student rather than blaming the student. Examples of collaborative practices include: lead teachers, department chairs, school improvement teams, cooperative professional staff development, peer observation, peer coaching, mentor programs, teacher support teams, peer evaluation, quality circles, building councils, etc. All of these practices allow for professionals to work with other professionals for self-growth and student improvement. Isolationism must be overcome for such practices to develop within the school culture. There must be a healthy balance between principal guidance and teacher decision making.

Conditions necessary for collaboration include the modeling of desired practices by those in formal leadership positions, training, and providing opportunities to collaborate. Developing a plan for success; conducting an assessment of the staff's willingness/need to participate in the collaborative process; planning a detailed implementation process; improving communication with the staff and sharing information which builds the teachers' knowledge base; and, offering training in brainstorming, problem solving, critical thinking are steps toward successful staff collaboration. It should be noted that because of personal preferences, fear of the unknown, stressful work loads, or other possible reasons, some people may not wish to be a part of the collaborative efforts. Therefore, peoples' needs

should be considered when initiating collaborative projects (Heller, 1993). For similar reasons, care should also be taken in choosing people to participate in leadership activities (Bellon and Beaudry, 1992). However, in schools where the principal is highly supportive of collaboration, the process is favorably viewed by the teachers and there is enthusiasm for the level of change opportunities available (Bellon and Beaudry, 1992).

An Examination of Teaming

The concept of teaming has long been a successful form of collaboration to get the job done. Team members who collaborate to win the ballgame initially come to mind. Quality teams in the business world became quite prevalent in the 1980's. However, they have not always proven most effective in the business arena. Their failure has been blamed on a lack of quality leadership and cultural influences (Miskin and Gmelch, 1985). Educational teaming has been most effective up to this point in the middle school context. Kasten, and others (1988, 1989) found that interdisciplinary teaching teams, one form of a self-managing work group, were effective. They produced a different working environment that had a positive affect on the problematic aspects of teachers' work. In relation to learning, team building and teamwork can also be compared to the effective use of cooperative learning strategies within the classroom.

Team building and the relationship between teamwork and

performance is covered extensively in the literature. Katzenbach and Smith (1993) recognize that groups, committees, and task forces are not teams and that the most effective teams have performance challenges. A team is a small group of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose and goals. The team members are held jointly accountable for the team's work. High performance teams pursue performance, are committed to other members of the team, and do not need to be managed. They, too, are very rare.

Assumptions made by those who advocate teams are that: those closest to the work know how best to improve their jobs, most employees want to feel ownership and to make contributions to their work, and that teams provide empowerment (Maeroff, 1993). Maeroff (1993) contends that team building can improve education by the formation of committed people in a school culture who take risks inside and outside of their classrooms. He compares this approach to what is happening in business and industry currently. Maeroff further maintains that teachers rarely collaborate and they are not generally expected to be leaders. Team building can negate these tendencies and shape leadership so that it evolves from cooperation.

Bellon and Bellon (1992, p. 2) summarize the characteristics of effective teams that promote inclusion within the school culture: the climate is positive and people

feel included; there is open and freewheeling discussion which is focused; no one is allowed to dominate the discussions; there is open disagreement which is not personalized; decisions are made carefully after all points have been considered and consensus is strived for; the majority of team members make the commitment to support all decisions made; and team members are reflective and participate in self-evaluation.

Lieberman (1991) identified team building and linking the team to the school as two early lessons found in restructuring schools. In this study of twelve New York City schools involved in the "Schools of Tomorrow. . .Today" project, two problems associated with team building that had to be overcome were found. One problem was interpersonal relations. Participants had doubts about others' motivation for team membership which affected communication and led to misperceptions. The second problem resulted from forming a team from people used to a hierarchical situation. Dispersed leadership had to be developed by learning how to work together, engaging teachers, and disengaging the more traditional leaders. Lieberman found that teachers and administrators both have the capacity to assume shared leadership roles in an effort to improve education. Linking the team to the school was found to be difficult, but necessary. Even though the results were mixed overall, most teams experienced a steady growth. Those teams that kept

others in the school informed of their efforts were more appreciated and had their projects accepted. Teams which did not communicate effectively with others had their projects rejected. They were often characterized as "elitists" and criticized by their peers. Some teachers remained uninterested in the team's efforts regardless of the situation. Lieberman maintains that those teams which "saw themselves first as responsible for learning from and speaking to the rest of the school" rather than being the decision makers were most powerful (pp. 28-29).

The Organizational Culture

In reviewing the literature up to this point, the concepts of leadership, change, restructuring, relationships, and collaboration have been considered. To use an analogy, these are only pieces of a puzzle board. The board itself, which provides the foundation and "connectability," is the culture. Culture is defined in Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as "the integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thought, speech, action, and artifacts and depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations." Deal and Kennedy (1982, p. 4) quote Marvin Bower, business leader and author, as saying that culture is "the way we do things around here." The culture of an organization, whether weak or strong, has a powerful influence. It can determine how decisions are made, how

people act and dress, and among other things, if the organization is successful (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). The culture of an organization consists of the beliefs and values held by those people within the organization. These beliefs support the assumptions that people hold and guide their actions (Bellon and Bellon, 1992). It is important to identify the beliefs and assumptions of a culture. If established goals or ideas for change are not congruent with the culture's beliefs and assumptions, it would be a waste of time to attempt them.

By the mid-1980's, culture became one of the main concepts evolving from the literature on leadership. "Organizational culture" was both examined in relation to business (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982) and education (Deal, 1987). The educational concept of culture focused on the "symbolic and social reality of schools" rather than the bureaucratic aspects (Pajak, 1993, p. 172). Various authors helped establish the belief that effective leaders can help determine the culture through storytelling, rituals, and symbols (Firestone and Wilson, 1985; Deal, 1987).

Before examining educational cultures and related issues in depth, an appraisal of business cultures will be made. This analysis will serve as a foundation for educational discussions about culture.

Information on "Corporate Cultures"

Due to the decline in American productivity and increasing numbers of failing businesses, people have been searching for answers. Deal and Kennedy (1982) studied corporate cultures and offer the following information. They maintain that gimmicks and national homogenization will not work. Instead, the lessons of successful early leaders of American business provide the answer: create a strong culture in which employees feel secure and, therefore, do the work necessary to make the business a success.

Strong Cultures. There are various characteristics of strong cultures. Strong cultures produce success through establishing a widely shared philosophy; recognizing the importance of all people; instituting "heroes" -- the leaders and the product; and constructing rituals and ceremonies. A strong culture guides behavior through a system of informal rules that explicitly expresses expected behavior and enables people to feel good about what they do which results in improved work habits. Successful leaders know how to create a strong culture. They are able to read the culture and reshape it to fit a changing marketplace; create a guiding vision for the company; establish shared values; and provide leadership for the people with whom they work. Such leaders understand that it "all comes down to understanding the importance of working with people" (p. 18) and feel strongly about suggesting standards to live by.

People often underestimate the culture's effect on their work life. When they choose a specific company, they often choose a "way of life." The culture can shape their behavior in subtle ways that are not recognizable until they leave that job and work within another culture. "Culture shock," too, often is the reason for supposed failure at a job. Rather than not being able to do the job, often the problem is in not "reading the culture correctly" and making related mistakes. Thus, employees need to determine "what makes their culture tick."

Leaders. Leaders in strong culture companies shape the culture. Deal and Kennedy call them "symbolic managers" because they "spend a lot of time thinking about the values, heroes, and rituals of the culture, and because they see their primary job as managing value conflicts that arise in the ebb and flow of daily events" (p. 141). These managers are sensitive to the culture, place a great deal of trust in their employees, and view themselves as players in the day-to-day affairs of the company. Symbolic managers are adept at cultural management because:

they have a very good, very detailed understanding of the culture and their role in it. They know when it is crucially important to stay within the culture; they know equally as well when it is critical to step outside. Moreover, they know how to work with groups of people -- cabals or subcultures -- to make the overall culture stronger. Finally, they have the courage of their convictions -- courage that leads them to take a direct hand in the shaping and refining of the culture (p. 146).

Change. Even though change has become the quickfix of the corporate world, it is threatening to a culture. The stronger the culture, the more resistance to change. Deal and Kennedy explain that culture causes "organizational inertia," and is the "brake that resists change" in order to protect the organization from "willy-nilly responses to fads and short-term fluctuations" (p. 159). There are times when change is necessary in business. However, change costs time and money! Considerations they make regarding change (which can be related to education also) include:

1. the argument for change must be credible;
2. many change efforts fail because there is not enough of an investment made in them;
3. change may be uneconomical in some cases; and
4. it is necessary to decide which cultural problems should be attacked and which should be ignored.

Deal and Kennedy predict the demise of large, traditional, hierarchical organizations as a rule. Smaller units, they contend, can be more effective because people can feel more in control of their destinies; peer pressure can be stronger; strong cultures can be more easily built; and telecommunications and computer technology can bond units together more efficiently than middle management. Strong culture companies have a bright future because they can respond to the environment and can adapt to change. When problems arise, they can "reach deeply into their shared values and beliefs for the truth and courage to see them

through. When new challenges arise, they can adjust" (pp. 195-196).

Mission. Another issue of concern in business which also affects educational cultures is creating a sense of mission. A mission statement is broad and specifies the organization's purpose, role, and scope. Campbell and Yeung (1991a) maintain that even though mission is often considered a strategic tool which defines a company's rationale and market, it actually is about the culture and strategy. They contend that the two must be mutually supportive to promote a mission. Mission is the "organization's character, identity, and reason for existence" (p. 145). In another study, Campbell and Yeung (1991b) found that when the organization's mission is more clearly defined it can be better managed and based on a model that includes purpose, strategy, behavior standards, and values. Companies which had strong links between these four elements also had employees with a strong emotional committed "sense of mission." Such a commitment is strongest when there is a match between employee values and company values (Campbell and Yeung, 1991b; Klemm and others, 1991). Klemm and others (1991) also found that mission is a symbol of leadership, an attempt to communicate beliefs, and an indication of expected behavior.

Discussion of Educational Cultures

The individual school's culture is increasingly being viewed as a powerful entity which can enable change or prevent

it (Lieberman, 1987; Fullan, 1990; Deal, 1990). Because the culture of an organization serves as the basis for the attitudes that people have, it guides the decision making process (Bellon and Bellon, 1992). Often change efforts fail due to a lack of attention to or an underestimation of cultural aspects (Fullan, 1990). As Deal (1987) notes, culture and change are opposites because change threatens stability, predictability and comfort.

Research on the School Culture. The culture of the school as a workplace has been noted by numerous researchers/theorists (Little, 1982; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sarason, 1982). Research on effective schools, school change, and staff development emphasize the issue of culture (Stevenson, 1987). Effective schools research indicates that the school's learning climate is the determinate of success in relation to learning. This climate results from interactions between the organizational structure and the roles, norms, and values of the people involved (Purkey and Smith, 1982). Climate is viewed as more than the affective atmosphere of a school. It includes: cohesiveness -- the ability of staff members to work together; expectations -- the degree of high expectations for both staff and students; esprit -- the feelings of satisfaction and loyalty among the staff; goal orientation -- a sense of direction shared by all; and leadership -- the process of organizing and motivating all to work toward the established goals (Sweeney, 1983).

Berman and McLaughlin (1978) studied 293 Federal educational change projects in 18 states. They found that successful implementation occurred when teachers were involved in the process and understood the goals, implementation decisions were made at the local school level, the project was contextually adapted, and the school's organizational climate was positive.

Several researchers have examined culture's effect on staff development issues. Hopkins (1990), building upon McKibbin and Joyce's (1980) work, looked at the correlation between teachers' psychological states, their involvement in staff development training, and the climate. He found that teachers who operate at a higher psychological level in an open, democratic school climate use the greatest number of educational ideas. Admittedly, results indicate a stronger effect for teachers' psychological states than climate. However, these two factors are in reality inseparable and it is the total effect on the process of use. Therefore, "a positive climate evolved by positive people equals effective use" (p. 58). Several researchers (Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Little, 1982; Joyce and others, 1990; Fullan, 1990) connect effective teacher collaboration with the increased possibility of successful implementation of staff development innovations.

The Traditional School Culture. In examining the traditional school culture (which is most prevalent), one finds little effective teacher collaboration. This

traditional school culture is best classified as one of Deal and Kennedy's (1982) process cultures. A process culture is one of low risk and slow feedback and, when out of control, resembles a bureaucracy. Because no one transaction "makes or breaks" the organization, no one knows how they are doing until they are "blamed" for something gone awry. The lack of feedback forces organizational members to focus on how to do something instead of what they do. The structure resembles a hierarchy or class system. This current organizational structure does not promote excellence in teaching or learning (Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, October 1988). Such a system supports dysfunctional consequences of rules, authoritarian methods, communication problems, controlling use of resource allocations, and creative insubordination. A reliance on hierarchical control inhibits creativity, ingenuity, and the professional judgement of educators. Excellence in schools require input from all people involved in the process (Corey, 1963; Joyce, 1986; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, October 1988 and February/March 1989; Deal, 1990).

Stevenson (1987) calls for a balance between district support and school site autonomy stressing that school improvement results from the complementary process of top-down and bottom-up approaches. However, the school site must be the locus for change because each culture is unique (Lezotte, 1982; Stevenson, 1987). Joyce and others (1990), also

supporting the individuality of each culture, contends that the majority of interaction within schools is related to day-to-day functioning. As a result, schools cannot solve problems that cannot be solved by individuals. Instead, collaboration is needed so that there is a balance between managing school operations and studying curriculum/instruction. Changing a school culture is difficult, and the individual mode of operation fights change and collaboration. Joyce maintains that relationships, professional knowledge, and values/beliefs must be the pivotal forces for change.

Collaborative Cultures. The idea of creating a collaborative culture is discussed by many theorists. Guthrie and Reed (1986) identify the following benefits of school collaboration:

1. Collaboration can provide assistance to administrators regarding persistent school problems;
2. Collaboration utilizes the talent, energy, and creativity of a wide variety of people;
3. Participation (of those affected by the decisions and who are knowledgeable about the issues) enhances feelings of satisfaction, encourages new ideas, improves the quality of the decisions by the mere generation of more alternatives, and builds feelings of commitment to implement solutions.

Fullan (1990) suggests that establishing a strong staff development program can increase collegiality among teachers in addition to positively affecting teacher behavior and student achievement. At a minimal level, all teachers would

be focusing on the same goals while interacting with one another. However, he notes that a culture is too strong to be influenced for a long period of time with a single project. Also, unfortunately, collaborative cultures occur through the work of individuals and often are not sustained over time or falter when key players leave the culture. Little (1989) examined the concept of the "form and content" of collaborative cultures. The four forms that she identified are storytelling and scanning for ideas, aid and assistance, mutual sharing, and joint work. The first three forms are weak and have little impact upon the culture. Interaction alone can be beneficial or not, depending upon the content of the interaction. Therefore, the content of collaboration is also important.

Although many theorists write about collaborative cultures, few offer suggestions on how to create one. Stevenson (1987), however, offered the following strategies for building communal relationships which are based on research:

Among staff--

1. Identify formal and informal strategies that produce interaction and communication;
2. Redesign certain organizational features or procedures (such as team teaching or teacher/mentor programs) which lead to teacher observation of others, collaboration on materials preparation/evaluation, etc.;
3. Modeling of and planning for collaboration by those in formal leadership positions; and
4. Utilize informal social networks to support

collaboration.

Among students--

5. View and treat students as members of the organization by including student representatives on appropriate planning councils;

6. Allow students to help each other through peer tutoring, counseling, etc.; and

7. Allow students to express any sense of injustice to authority.

With parents--

8. View parents as allies and actively involve them with issues in which they might meaningfully contribute.

Stevenson also contends that such strategies must be supported. Time must be given for all parties to meet. Financial support, principal/district support, training, and a reduction of paperwork and other external demands are needed. Teacher evaluation should be altered in light of the collaborative process. The culture would also require support from teacher unions, parents, and the local community.

Collaboration cannot be considered without discussing the issue of autonomy also. Schools have long been filled with autonomous teachers going about their work. As Fullan (1990) notes:

We cannot assume that autonomy is bad and collaboration is good. One person's isolation is another person's autonomy; one person's collaboration is another person's conspiracy (p. 14).

Sometimes isolationism is thought of as a "barrier to improvement" and/or "protection from scrutiny" (Fullan, 1990). However, as Flinders (1988) suggests, it might be a strategy

for getting work done.

Hargreaves (1991) identifies four types of school culture ranging from one that supports isolationism to one that supports collaboration. They are: fragmented individualism (the traditional form of teacher isolation), Balkanization (cliques or subgroups, often conflicting with each other regarding decisions), contrived collegiality (unwanted/unnecessary contacts among teachers), and collaborative cultures (with interaction central to teachers' work).

From an interesting viewpoint, Little and McLaughlin (1993) discuss the "campaign" to break the isolationism of teaching. Due to small scale case studies of collaborative cultures (which note the rarity of real collaboration), the benefits of collaboration have been glorified at times. As a result, the emphasis has been on the creation of collaborative cultures without an adequate understanding of the conditions, characteristics, and consequences of such. Little and McLaughlin recommend a form of patient skepticism. Not only is the act rare, but often it is in the form of "contrived collegiality" (Hargreaves term). Even though Lortie (1975) stressed the negativity of isolationism, these authors contend that isolationism is a part of the American culture. Thus, any dichotomous considerations of isolationism and collaboration should be avoided. Privacy, they suggest, could actually be a form of collegial relations. Huberman (1993)

and Hargreaves (1993) question collaboration as a remedy for classroom isolation. They note that teachers' latitude to develop relationships with students, engage in creative classroom practice by reacting to the immediacies of classroom life, and pursue individual forms of renewal are important aspects of the isolation.

Student Effect. Whether the culture is collaborative, isolating, or somewhere in between the two, student effect is an issue to be considered. McLaughlin (1993) studied restructuring from the teacher's perspective and found that "students" was the workplace factor most important to teachers. Due to increasing culturally diverse classes and the environment of the school itself, teachers responded in three ways to students: some maintained traditional standards for all students, others lowered expectations, while some adapted practices and pedagogy. McLaughlin found that responses to students result from a teacher's conception of the teaching task as supported by the school culture. She noted that cultures may be collegial or isolating, with collegial cultures advocating risk taking and group decision making.

Metz (1993) also discusses teachers' "ultimate dependence upon their students." Teachers are faced with a paradox daily. They must have authority and control within the classroom while they are vulnerable to the students, needing the students' cooperation and interest. Teachers are in

constant fear of failing to get students to learn and not being able to respect their abilities as teachers. Metz (1993) suggests that changes intended to improve schools must focus on the major condition of teachers' work -- students. To change teachers' roles and provide time for collaboration with other teachers may be beneficial overall, but may not change the "balance of teachers' experience." To do that, one must change teachers' intrinsic rewards in working with students.

As previously mentioned, cultural change is at best difficult to attain. The culture must be examined from its members' viewpoints because their shared values and rituals are central to any change that can take place, and the teacher/student relationship must be given priority (Cooper, 1988).

Several authors (DeVaney and Sykes, 1988; Little, 1988; McLaughlin and Yee, 1988) call for "building a professional culture in schools." Because student needs are constantly changing, teachers and students would benefit from continual teacher renewal. Teacher leadership is a "collective" responsibility of teachers which has the potential to change the culture of a school (Little, 1988).

Concluding Remarks. Deal (1990) contends that the character of school cultures can be transformed with diligent work. Because schools are symbolic organizations that all stakeholders relate with (in other words, everyone attended

school and has vivid memories of that experience), there must be a renegotiation of "cherished myths and sacred rituals by multiple constituencies" (meaning parents, local politicians, residents, administration, teachers, staff, and students) (p. 9). Deal recommends holding "funerals" for old, inefficient ideas and "celebrations" for new, innovative ideas. Reform should come from practitioners and parents and craft knowledge should guide the process. Deal asserts that "the core problems of schools are more spiritual than technical" (p. 12).

Learning Issues

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines the process of restructuring as changing "the makeup, organization, or pattern" of something. It would seem reasonable that restructuring of a system occurs in order to make improvements. In educational systems, such improvements should focus on student learning since education is about learning.

A Linkage Between Restructuring and Student Learning

Fullan (1993b) and Newman (1993) maintain that educational restructuring has had little effect on student learning. The research is limited and inconclusive, and theorists often refrain from discussing the effects of restructuring on student learning -- concentrating instead on issues of teacher leadership and collaboration.

As Fitzpatrick (1991) who has been involved with restructuring within an outcome-based framework suggests, we (as educators) "cannot afford to merely hope that outcomes of significance for our students might somehow become the consequences of our decisions" (p. 22). Similarly, educators cannot simply hope that student learning will result from other restructuring efforts. The focus must be on student learning.

However, even if the focus is on student learning, the process can get skewed. Caldwell and Wood (1992) discuss one school district's experiences with restructuring within site-based management. The intent of the process was to "restructure in a way that would allow a school faculty to make good decisions about student learning" (p. 41). The positive results of the restructuring noted are: increased faculty understanding and ownership of SBM; improved school climate; increased commitment to SDM and SBM; increased teacher participation in decision making; and improved relationships between teachers and administrators. It is noteworthy that there is no connection made to student learning or students in general even though the initial focus concentrated on student learning.

Collaborative Effects

As previously mentioned, theorists generally support collegiality and collaboration in current restructuring efforts as a means to decrease teacher isolation, develop

teacher leadership, and improve schools. Heller (1993) contends that the key to success for students is for educators to relinquish their autonomy through seeking, accepting, and utilizing the expertise of others. Little (1989), however, suggests that collaboration per se is not magical. It can promote student learning or block change and hurt students. Therefore, collaboration must be associated with "norms of continuous improvement and experimentation" in which teachers are searching for better practices and sharing them with others (Fullan and others, 1990, p. 14). Leckvarcik (1992) found that teachers perceive curriculum integration and shared decision making as the best means of fostering collegial relations between educators. Increased collaboration is perceived as benefitting students by improving achievement, increasing individualization, and creating a quality educational system. Kain (1992), in studying the thematic planning of interdisciplinary teams in a middle school, found that teachers who engage in dialogue are able to make professional judgements and balance curricular demands.

Students are sometimes left out of this collaboration process itself. Astuto and others (1994) maintain, however, that high levels of interaction between students and teachers lead to learning. Such fosters "curricular relevance, authenticity, and meaning" for students (p. 76). In creating a positive school experience for students, student engagement, social opportunities, and flexible structures are needed.

These authors suggest that student engagement with school and opportunities for social contact require developing relationships. Teachers play a big role in this relationship building because students need to know that adults care about them.

As previously cited, McLaughlin's (1993) findings also support the importance of relationship building between students and teachers. "Students" was determined to be the workplace factor most important to teachers. Thus, there appears to be a reciprocal need from both students and teachers. Students also need social contact with peers (Sizer, 1984). Even though consistent routines are needed in schools, organizational structures can inhibit relationship building between all parties and the teaching/learning process itself. Flexible structures are needed to allow teachers to react to student needs (Astuto and other, 1994).

A connection needs to be made between the organizational level and the classroom where most learning occurs. Fullan and others (1990) describe a framework designed by the Toronto Learning Consortium which links classroom improvement to school improvement. This framework evolved from the collaborative efforts of four school districts and two higher educational institutions and guides initiatives of the consortium. In effective schools, classroom improvement and school improvement affect each other in an interactive, dynamic manner. Therefore, such a framework provides

participants involved in restructuring efforts an understanding of this interrelatedness. These authors contend that for positive change to transpire, there must be a mutual dependence between not only classroom improvement and school improvement, but also teacher development. Student engagement/learning and leadership/mobilization must "drive" the process. They maintain:

Progress cannot be sustained by individuals working alone no matter how energetic and skilled they may be. Systematic links must be made across classrooms. Progress cannot be measured by the successful implementation of a valuable innovation or even by having a good year. Sustained, cumulative improvements at the classroom and school level, by each and every teacher in the school, are required to meet the challenge of our collective vision of the potential of schools. (p. 19)

SUMMARY

Most adult educators have a difficult time remembering when education was not in a state of reform. In this country, reform efforts have been ongoing since the 1960's. The more recent reform efforts are involved in a type of tug-of-war between state regulation and site-based restructuring. However, the predominant organizational structure remains bureaucratic and static.

Many contend that educators cannot be eliminated from the equation intended to improved education. Therefore, involving teachers in decision making has garnered support. A great deal of research has been conducted and theories proposed regarding teacher empowerment issues, relationships, change,

and shared decision making within the school context which reveal promise, as well as, problems. However, it is not enough to simply decide to restructure and/or to involve teachers and significant others in the decision making process, the focus must be directed toward creating educational cultures which improve student learning.

This study focused on collaborative cultures' effect upon student learning. In preparation of such an analysis, several concepts were reviewed in the literature: leadership, change, restructuring, teacher empowerment, relationships within the school community, collaboration/teaming, culture, and learning. An overview of each concept was presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The intent of this research was to identify teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. Predictions for future connections to student learning were also of interest. This study examined shared leadership's effect upon school collaboration, relationships within the school community, and change with regard to day-to-day functioning.

Sources of Data

The Total Population

The total population for this study was forty-four schools from middle and east Tennessee which have been involved in the Shared Leadership Project for a minimum of one year. The project was funded by the Tennessee Department of Education. The forty-four schools represent seven school systems and elementary, middle, and high school levels.

To provide background information regarding the Shared Leadership Project, the following is offered. During the 1990-1991 school year, a project team consisting of individuals associated with the University of Tennessee, Middle Tennessee State University, and an independent consulting group and supported by funding from the state

department of education, began an experiment meant to strengthen school leadership. Ten schools from across the state participated in the experiment. A follow-up study was conducted for the purpose of providing direction to future leadership projects. The project was reinstated and expanded during the 1992-1993 school year with twenty-six schools participating. During the year in which this research occurred, 1993-1994, two groups participated in the Shared Leadership Project. The first group consisted of thirty schools which had not participated in the project prior to 1993-1994. The remaining fourteen schools that comprised group two had participated in the 1992-1993 Shared Leadership Project.

The Participants

The participants in the study were selected from six elementary schools involved in the Shared Leadership Project for a minimum of two years. The six schools represent three school systems, one in middle Tennessee and two in the eastern part of the state. The schools are representative of schools across the state of Tennessee (with the exception of the typical inner-city school) and those involved in the Shared Leadership Project: rural (or county), urban, and suburban. Table 1 provides basic information about the participating schools. In order to maintain the anonymity of the participating schools, they are referred to as Schools A, B, C, D, E, and F.

TABLE 1
SCHOOL INFORMATION

School	Grade Levels	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Geographic Location in Tennessee	System
A	K-5	500	32	East	1 (Total of 8 schools)
B	K-5	375	25	East	1 (Total of 8 schools)
C	K-2	490	24	East	2 (Total of 80 schools)
D	K-5	650	32	East	2 (Total of 80 schools)
E	K-4	685	40	Middle	3 (Total of 121 schools)
F	K-4	325	19	Middle	3 (Total of 121 schools)

Elementary level schools and the three participating school systems were chosen due to the researcher's decision to include only schools which had been involved in the project for at least two years. The six elementary schools selected for participation evolved from a form of purposeful sampling, site selection. Patton (1990, p. 169) defines purposeful sampling as "selecting information-rich cases for study in-depth." Purposeful sampling is done "to increase the utility of information obtained from small samples" (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993, p. 378). It requires that information be obtained about subunits before specific samples are chosen due to their ability to be knowledgeable and informative about the phenomena under study. Site selection, as a form of purposeful sampling, involves choosing sites in which people are involved in a particular event (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). The researcher conferred with the consultants associated with the Shared Leadership Project to obtain necessary information about the subunits and in making the final site selections.

After the school sites were chosen and permission was obtained to collect data within each school system and school site, the administrator and teacher representatives involved in the Shared Leadership Project were asked to help in identifying and procuring the involvement of other teachers within their school in the study. The researcher requested the participation of those teachers (or a number of them that

did not exceed four) who had been involved in the project. The rationale was to have "trained" and "untrained" participants. Even though most schools did not have four or more trained teachers, the intent was to ensure that the results would not be biased by the issue of training.

The researcher gave the following guidelines to the Shared Leadership Project representatives for the selection of other participants in this study: various teaching experiential/expertise levels, differing levels of support for the shared leadership concept, various school leadership experiences/opportunities, a desire to participate, and the ability to express oneself. Selltiz and others (1960) note that the most "direct" method of selecting participants is to ask the administration to identify the "most informative, experienced, and analytical people." They also contend that the usefulness of the selected people increases as other sources recommend them -- especially when the sources have differing perspectives. Each school's Shared Leadership Project representatives selected additional participants and requested their participation in the study. The researcher provided all participants with written information regarding the study prior to data collection. Appendix A contains examples of written information provided participants.

The individual participants are not representative of all elementary educators; however, they are representative of this study's total population. The eight participant teachers from

each school depict the faculty as a whole. Various teaching experiential levels and expertise, attitudes regarding the Shared Leadership Project, and gender are represented. Each participant group of teachers comprise a part of their faculty without being a majority number.

Techniques for Data Collection

Rationale for Qualitative Research

The choice of utilizing quantitative or qualitative research methods is dependent upon the research questions, purposes of the research, and interests of the researcher (Guba, 1990). Whereas in quantitative research the researcher attempts to report "what is" (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993), in qualitative research the researcher attempts to answer the question: "What is happening here?" (LeCompte & Priestly, 1994).

Qualitative research analyzes events, people, and concepts rather than simply reporting what is observed (King and others, 1994). Qualitative research provides a description of social processes and patterns and an emic explanation of these (Sanders, 1974). It pays "attention to the unfolding of events in the natural flow of activity" (LeCompte & Priestly, 1994, p. 142). Qualitative studies usually utilize smaller groups, are informed by participant constructs, and occur in naturalistic (unmanipulated) settings more so than quantitative research.

Qualitative research is considered to be interpretive. Erickson (1986), who actually prefers the term interpretive to qualitative, views this type of research as an interpretation of human meaning in social life. Interpretation is considered useful when it permits one to develop a new conceptual awareness. Interpretation and "similar forms of detailed cultural understanding" help researchers identify the theories that need to be examined (King & others, 1994). Sanders (1974), in his comparison of a researcher to a detective, contends that the stereotype of the detective who wants "just the facts" is inaccurate. Both detectives and researchers need theories which provoke them to ask specific questions which lead them to notice certain "facts" (Parsons, 1937; Sanders, 1974). Thus, what is viewed as evidence (for both researchers and detectives) depends upon the context (Sanders, 1974).

Rationale for the Case Study Method

Case study research refers to an investigation of a single phenomena with the purpose of understanding it (Stake, 1978; Merriam, 1988; Schumacher & McMillan, 1993; LeCompte & Priestly, 1994). Behavior is studied as it naturally occurs in an uncontrived situation. Because of its flexibility and adaptability to a variety of contexts, processes, and people, the case study is considered one of the most useful methods in educational research (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993).

A case study is viewed as being representative of other

cases with similar events or groups of people (Borg & Gall, 1983). However, one should not attempt to generalize results beyond the case being studied for there is no way to determine how "typical" a case actually is (Borg & Gall, 1983; Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Case studies, though, do provide in-depth information about how differing variables affect one phenomena. Through a thorough analysis of such, the information gained can be used in theory development or quantitative research (Stake, 1978). King and others (1994, p. 45) contend that case studies, when executed by following a procedure of systematic data collection, can "yield valid causal inferences." They deem that a valid causal hypothesis, which is complementary to a good description, is an advantage of the case study method.

The case study often gathers substantial data on the phenomenon being studied through a variety of approaches. Among these are interviews, questionnaires, archival data analysis, oral histories, and observations. Often a combination of approaches is utilized in a case study. The case study is recognized for understanding human behavior and human motivation (Best, 1970) and, therefore, is effective in determining the perceptions of people involved in the study.

Rationale for the Semi-Structured Interview Technique

As Glesne and Peshkin (1992) note, when one interviews:

you pitch questions at your respondents with the intent of making words fly. . . you toss questions which you want your respondents to 'hit' and hit

well in every corner of your data park (p. 63).

This differs in tone, but not meaning from Ackroyd and Hughes (1992, p. 100) definition of an interview as an "encounter between a researcher and a respondent in which an individual is asked a series of questions relevant to the subject of the research." Effective interviewing is viewed as an "interpersonal device" that encourages the respondent to "speak authentically;" to express his/her thoughts, feelings, and/or beliefs; to report actions, behaviors, and/or conversations; and to discuss relationships (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). The validity of the collected data depends upon the social relationship established between the interviewer and the respondent (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992).

The rationale for using the interview approach is based upon many reasons. Through this process individuals can report masses of information about their feelings, beliefs, hopes, opinions, experiences, and perceptions (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). Not only does the interview approach allow for an in-depth analysis of the respondent's perceptions, but the reasons for his/her perceptions are of issue (Borg & Gall, 1983). The participant also is able to provide information that may not be secured by any other approach except through the interview (Borg & Gall, 1983). The interview does not confine data collection to observation or direct experience (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992).

Because the questionnaire is another research method

which asks questions of the respondent, the following discussion addresses the advantages of using the interview approach for this study. As Caplovitz (1983) notes, the use of questions is effectual in obtaining factual information and information regarding one's beliefs, attitudes, values, expectations, reasons, explanations, and social relations. However, the limited return rate of questionnaires signify that many people are not willing to write their responses and return them (Selltiz & others, 1960). Most individuals are more apt to give detailed verbal information than detailed written information (Selltiz & others, 1960; Borg & Gall, 1983). The interview: decreases the chance of misinterpretation by the interviewer and the respondent; increases the assessment of the verbal report by matching verbal information with nonverbal behavior; allows for probing of all topics, especially emotional ones (Selltiz & others, 1960); and provides more complete data, especially regarding negative aspects (Jackson & Rothney, 1961).

Semi-structured interviews are generally most appropriate for educational studies because they provide a desirable combination of objectivity and depth (Borg & Gall, 1983). The semi-structured interview usually includes some structured questions along with open-ended questions which allow for gathering more complete data, obtaining clarification, and probing for expansive information (Borg & Gall, 1985; Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). Open-ended questions are effective when the

research objectives require learning about the respondent's level of information or experience, frame of reference, and/or opinions (Smith, 1981). They allow for a richness of information and clarification (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). Close-ended questions or fixed alternatives are more appropriate when the research objectives correspond with identifying an individual's attitude or behavior (Smith, 1981; Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). They allow for coding in predetermined categories and counting responses. Effective semi-structured interview schedules have a combination of question types because the intent is to get a variety of information (Smith, 1981).

Development of the Interview Schedule

The object of interview schedule construction is to compose questions that give "maximum opportunities for complete and accurate communication of ideas between the interviewer and the respondent" (Cannell & Kahn, 1968, p. 553). Smith (1981) identifies three components of this communication process: language, the conceptual level of questions, and frame of reference. Without understanding the role of language, one cannot understand what occurs within an interview (Clark & Schober, 1992). There must be a shared language with precise, clear wording which is free of esoteric language and "loadedness" or bias (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). Even when the interviewer and the respondent share the same vocabulary (including jargon), levels of cognitive

understanding may be incongruent. With regard to frame of reference, it is possible for common words to be interpreted from different perspectives. Sometimes attitudes mesh to form frames of reference (Beveredge, 1968). Though some contend that the interview is a social event (Clark & Schober, 1992), it is an unusual communicative routine (Briggs, 1986). Therefore, it should be appropriately planned.

The rationale for developing an interview schedule is to ensure that data will be obtained to support the objectives of the study, to standardize the interview to a minimum degree (Borg & Gall, 1983), and to guarantee that all respondents are presented with the same stimuli (Smith, 1981). The efficiency and quality of data collection in an interview study are directly controlled by the interview schedule's ability to measure what is being studied (Smith, 1981). A form of standardization and the presentation of questions in a predescribed format increase reliability and guard against some types of bias.

The questions on the interview schedule for this study were designed to answer the research questions:

1. Has the shared leadership process caused the school culture to be more collaborative? If so, what are the indicators? If not, what are the inhibitors?
2. Have there been any observable changes in the relationships between all participant groups (students, teachers, administrators, and parents)?
3. Has the shared leadership process affected the day-to-day operations within the school? If so, in what way?

4. Have there been any observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning? If so, what are they? If not, what are the inhibitors?

5. What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

A combination of open-ended and fixed alternatives questions were included on the schedule. Open-ended questions were used to elicit detailed responses from the respondent's own frame of reference. These questions did not constrain or precondition responses made by participants. The use of fixed alternatives in some questions allowed for an examination of attitudes and enabled the tallying of responses so that they could be reported quantitatively. The questions were ordered by an introductory question, broad-based questions, and detailed questions which were preceded by and followed with informal dialogue (Briggs, 1986). Such an approach, called "funnelling" (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992), encourages the expansion of ideas and the amplification of initial answers through moving from general questions to more specific ones. The sequence of questions was also considered. Routine, noncontroversial questions were asked at the beginning of the interview while more controversial questions were asked later (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1992). The questions were cross-checked ~~x~~ for internal consistency and limited in number to conform with an approximate forty-five minute time span for administration of the interview.

The interview schedule was pilot tested with four

teachers from a second year Shared Leadership Project elementary school located in east Tennessee. Two teachers had been trained as Shared Leadership Project participants and two had not, but they were involved in leadership activities within their school. Because pilot testing should be done in situations as close to the realities of the study as possible (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992), individuals from the target population were interviewed.

The pilot study is an opportunity to learn about the research process, the interview schedule, and oneself (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Criteria used to analyze the pilot study were:

- test the language for communication or interpretation problems that could be corrected by rephrasing the questions (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992),
- check the substance of the questions to determine if the desired data were produced (Borg & Gall, 1983; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992),
- ensure that the length is appropriate (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992),
- evaluate methods of recording the data (Borg & Gall, 1983),
- assess if the data can be analyzed and quantified (Borg & Gall, 1983),
- assess interviewer's rapport and presentation of information (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992), and
- assess the introduction to the study (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).

During the pilot study, the interview questions were administered, a verbal log of responses was taken, and the process was tape recorded. A copy of the pilot interview

schedule is located in Appendix C. At the conclusion of each interview, respondents were questioned for feedback regarding the atmosphere of the interview, the interviewer's interpersonal skills and rapport-building abilities, the information provided them, the clarity of the interview questions, and their feelings about the process itself. After the interviews were completed, the verbal log was compared to the taped recording of the interview to assess the interviewer's notation with regard to completeness and clarity.

The pilot test enabled the researcher to assess the research process, the interview schedule, and her own skills as an interviewer/researcher so that adjustments could be made. The researcher had the opportunity to practice establishing rapport, using the interview schedule, asking probing questions to obtain more in-depth responses, timing the interview, and analyzing the data collected. Data were compared to the research questions to determine if the interview questions were on target (Millar & others, 1992).

Based upon feedback from the pilot study participants, self-evaluation, and results of the pilot study data analysis, revisions were made to the interview and the interview process. The introduction (or cover story as termed by Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) was expanded to include additional information about confidentiality and the purpose of the interview. Appendix B includes a guideline for the revised

cover story. The wording of some questions was amended and long questions were broken down. Probes were added to the interview schedule to ensure "topic control," the degree to which the interviewer's probe controls the topic of discussion (Gorden, 1992). A process of "reflecting," "mirroring back" to the respondent the essence of what was communicated (Millar & others, 1992), was studied in-depth by the interviewer/researcher for usage in the study. The final interview schedule (which contains the cover story) is located in Appendix D. Because of the results of the pilot experience, care was taken in scheduling the interviews for the actual study to ensure a period of at least thirty minutes between interviews so that ample time was available to review the interview and fill in incomplete data.

The Interview Schedule

The questions on the final interview schedule: collected information regarding the respondents' perceptions of their own leadership skills; provided data needed to answer the research questions; and served as a validity check for other questions on the interview. The questions and the rationale for their inclusion follow:

Question 1: Tell me about your work in this school.
What are your responsibilities?
(Probe: noninstructional responsibilities)

This introductory question was devised to give the respondents an opportunity to "ease" into the interview situation. The rationale is that most teachers enjoy talking about their

work, and therefore, would become more comfortable beginning with this question. Through probing about noninstructional responsibilities, the respondents were given the opportunity to reveal information about duties not directly related to teaching and their perceptions of leadership roles.

Question 2: Your school has been involved in the Shared Leadership Project. Has this involvement affected the way people work together (in the organization) in relation to the day-to-day operations? If so, tell me about it. If not, why do you think it hasn't?

This question moved from the individual orientation of work responsibilities within question 1 to collaborative efforts or work relationships related to the daily operations of the school. The purpose was to focus the respondent's attention on change related to the school culture (collaboration) and daily operations (day-to-day functioning). Issues related to inclusion and involvement could be addressed through this question.

Question 3: Have you seen any difference in the way people relate to each other -- students, teachers, administrators, and/or parents? If so, tell me about it. If you haven't, why do you believe this is the case?

Question #3 provided data to answer the research question about observable changes in relationships between all participant groups of the school community. It allowed the respondents to address the issues of trust and climate.

Question 4: Can you give examples or describe situations where shared leadership has affected the way teachers teach or their involvement with students?

This question was intended to gather the respondents' perceptions about shared leadership's relationship to student

learning. Because "untrained" teachers in the study may have lacked the reflective skills (Schon, 1983) or cognitive conceptual understanding (Smith, 1981) to be able to answer a direct question about the connection between shared leadership and student learning, the wording of the question provided a stimulus of storytelling to aid in recognizing any connections.

Question 5: In thinking about the school before shared leadership and now, describe any differences you recognize. If you perceive there are no differences, why do you believe this is the case?

This general-type question was included to gather data about the change process in the school. Data related to the school culture, relationships, day-to-day functioning, and/or student learning could be addressed by the respondent. The question and related probes served as a cross-check on previous questions.

Question 6: Can you give me any specific examples of how teachers', students', administrators', and parents' involvement in problem solving or decision making processes have changed?

This question requested specific information regarding change and served as a cross-check of previous data. Depending upon the respondent's focus, school culture/collaboration, relationships, day-to-day functioning, and/or student learning could be addressed.

Question 7: (With this question, we might have to assume or even pretend that the students are mature enough and have the verbal skills required. With this in mind,) if I were to interview some students from this school, what would their perceptions likely be regarding shared leadership's affect? Would they have any idea that the

school had been involved in shared leadership? Would they be able to discuss or describe a difference in the school?

These questions focused on the teacher's perception of student perceptions, and served as an alternative means of looking at the connection between shared leadership and student learning. There was also a chance that the respondents might have introduced additional or new data regarding the school culture, relationships, and/or change.

Question 8: Do you foresee any future changes taking place that would affect the school culture, relationships (among teacher, students, parents, and administrators), the day-to-day operations, and the teaching/learning process?

Responses to this question would provide data in support of the last research question: What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

Question 9: With regard to change, what have been the factors that have contributed to any changes that have taken place? What have been the inhibitors to the change process?

These questions specifically asked for contributors and inhibitors to the change process. Responses could provide new data or support previous perceptions related to the culture, relationships, day-to-day operations, and/or student learning.

Question 10: Given what you know about shared leadership, if you were in a different school and the school was considering participation in shared leadership, what would your recommendation be?

This question, presented hypothetically, was a key question intended to focus the respondent's attention on his/her

overall feelings and beliefs about shared leadership. It was a cross-check for all answers previously given as a means of checking the respondent's truthfulness in answering (Caplovitz, 1983). The question also had the potential to provide the researcher with suggestions for necessary ingredients in a shared leadership culture and for improving the Shared Leadership Project.

Question 11: So that I have a real understanding of this school's culture, the relationships within it, and shared leadership's relationship to student learning, is there anything you would like to add that I have not asked that would contribute to my understanding?

This question was included to allow the respondent to offer any information not directly addressed by the interview.

Techniques for Data Analysis

The interview data were analyzed using qualitative procedures of data analysis which "is primarily an inductive process of organizing the data into categories and identifying patterns among the categories" (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993, p. 479). Such an analysis involves examining a phenomenon, dividing it into units, identifying relationships among the units and their relationship to the whole (Spradley, 1979). Qualitative procedures were selected due to their correspondence to the research questions.

Content analysis procedures were utilized as a component of the analysis process. It is often used in combination with other data analysis methods and serves to gather information

(Sanders, 1974). Content analysis is defined as "a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (Berelson, 1952, p. 18). In its earlier form, content analysis was relied on for simple frequency counts. However, such analysis is now often used to consider the interrelationships between several content variables or the interrelationships between the content variables and other research variables (Borg & Gall, 1983). Sanders (1974, p. 13) suggests that by analyzing the content of written communication, the researcher identifies "themes, forms, and structures that will account for the pattern of communication." Krippendorff (1980) adds that content analysis should make connections between the context and valid, reliable data.

Content analysis is appropriately used in small scale educational studies which desire to produce descriptive information, cross-validate research findings, and test hypotheses (Borg & Gall, 1983). Galfo (1975) notes its effective use in analyzing interview data.

Content analysis usually involves several steps. Borg and Gall (1983) identify the following steps: establish objectives, locate relevant data, gather contextual evidence, develop a sampling plan, develop a coding procedure, and plan the analysis procedures. Budd and others (1967) earlier enumerated stages of a content analysis study: formulate the

research question, select a sample and define categories, code the data, determine scores, compare scores with other variables, and interpret the findings. Even though the steps suggested by experts vary, most educational studies utilizing content analysis produce descriptive information through themes. This study will follow this approach.

Factors Used in Content Analysis/Thematic Analysis

Predetermined categories which were based upon the study's research questions served as the factors in content and thematic analysis procedures. The factors and codes used in the analysis were:

1. Collaboration -- CLB -- The act of working with others within the school community to make decisions, solve problems, improve instruction, plan for change, establish policy, etc.

- 1a. CLB(Ind) -- Indicators of collaboration.

- 1b. CLB(Inh) -- Inhibitors of collaboration.

2. Relationships -- RE -- The way that people within the school community relate to one another.

- 2a. RE(diff) -- A difference or change in relationships between various participant groups.

- 2b. RE(reason) -- Reasons for changes in relationships not occurring.

3. Change -- CHG -- The alteration, deletion, or addition of events, practices, procedures, policies, beliefs, etc. within the organization.

- 3a. CHG(D-D) -- A change in day-to-day functioning.
- 3b. CHG/C -- A contributor to change.
- 3c. CHG/I -- An inhibitor to change.
- 4. Shared leadership and learning -- SL/L -- Shared leadership's effect upon student learning.
 - 4a. SL/L(conn) -- Connections between shared leadership and learning.
 - 4b. SL/L(Inh) -- Inhibitors that prevent connecting shared leadership and student learning within the school context.
- 5. Predictions -- PRED -- Predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning.
- 6. Recommendations -- REC -- Recommendations regarding the use of shared leadership as a process.
 - 6a. REC/theory -- Participant recommends the theory of shared leadership as a process.
 - 6b. REC/impact -- Participant recommends the process of shared leadership due to its impact within the school culture.
 - 6c. REC/sugg.imp. -- Participant suggests improvements for the Shared Leadership Project.
 - 6d. REC/sugg.foc. -- Participant makes suggestions for focusing the shared leadership process.
 - 6e. REC/neg -- Participant is negatively opposed to participating in the shared leadership process.

- 6f. REC/pos -- Participant is in favor of participating in the shared leadership process.
- 6g. REC/cau -- Participant is cautious (unsure) with regard to a recommendation about participation.
- 7. Other (MISC) -- Those miscellaneous statements that did not relate to the other categories.
 - 7a. MISC/r -- Miscellaneous statements that are related to the subject of shared leadership.
 - 7b. MISC/u -- Miscellaneous statements that are unrelated to the subject of shared leadership.

Procedures for Data Analysis

Data analysis is a "systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing, and interpreting to provide explanations of the phenomenon of interest" (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993, p. 480). LeCompte and Priestly (1994, pp. 156-157) discuss item level analysis as a form of content analysis in which the researcher determines "what is present, where it occurs, when it occurs, how many 'its' are present, and with whom or what they associate." From this item level analysis, pattern level analysis results as linkages and relationships emerge. "Pattern seeking" is a process of examining the data in numerous ways (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993). Patterns are generally reported as themes. Themes provide an explanation of the situation, contribute to knowledge by providing information on the phenomena under study, present the complexity of social events, and enable

others to anticipate what might occur in similar situations (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993).

Within this study, the interviews were analyzed by content analysis and thematic analysis. The process included: interacting with the data to "get a sense of the whole;" developing data segments according to topics; identifying categories which are related to the research questions; breaking the predetermined categories into subcategories; comparing the data for duplication; coding the data and tabulating frequencies; testing the classification system; refining the coding system; and synthesizing the data into patterns or themes.

Initially the data were grouped into segments from a holistic perspective. The following predetermined categories came from the research questions: collaboration, relationships, change, student learning, predictions, recommendations, and other. These categories were broken down into subcategories and then compared so that duplication could be eliminated. The data were coded according to the above categories and related subcategories. Frequencies were then tabulated for the appropriate questions. A rating scale was utilized in analyzing recommendations. Such scales are considered to be valid when: 1) the attitudes that are being measured are relatively objective and 2) the ratings are given using a carefully constructed scale from judges using the same frame of reference (Selltiz & others, 1960). Due to the large

amount of judgment in using rating scales which can lead to systematic errors and researcher bias, the following considerations were made: researcher awareness of bias, the use of descriptive terms rather than evaluative terms, caution of extreme labels, and time frame for completing ratings (done at later time than the interview itself) (Selltiz & others, 1960).

Gorden (1992) recommends two methods of testing the reliability of coding in the research process: the test/retest method or the independent coder method. This researcher chose to use the independent coder method, sometimes called the inter-rater reliability method, which employs one or more additional qualified coders (raters) besides the researcher. Two of the Shared Leadership Project team members served as coders in this process. All three coders, the two Project team members and the researcher, discussed the definitions of the categories. The two independent coders completed a practice interview and discussed the results. The researcher divided the forty-eight interviews into groups according to site and randomly drew one interview from each site to be coded by each rater. The six interviews were coded individually by each rater. A quantitative comparison was done to express the degree of agreement. Based upon these interviews, the inter-rater reliability factor for all three coders was .614. Not being pleased with the results, the researcher refined the coding

system by eliminating additional duplications and refining the categories. The source of unreliability in this case was ill-defined categories which were not mutually exclusive or all-inclusive (Gorden, 1992). Using the same interviews, another inter-rater reliability check was calculated with the percentage of agreement between all three coders being .737. Between the researcher and each of the independent coders, the ratings were .785 and .716.

The interview data were then analyzed according to the factor categories in several ways. Interviews were first analyzed individually and then cross-analyzed with other interviews within each school and within the total group.

A search for patterns or themes ensued. The process included challenging "informed hunches" by searching for negative evidence and alternative explanations; testing tentative patterns for "confirmation," "adequacy," and "usefulness;" reporting the findings; and returning to the data to "validate" each pattern and modifying each as necessary (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993, p. 496). The techniques of pattern seeking used include gauging data trustworthiness, triangulation (of site data), evaluating discrepant or negative evidence, and sorting categories (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993).

Summary

The descriptive case study method was used to analyze teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within

the school community upon student learning. Six schools from the state of Tennessee representing the middle and eastern parts of the state, three school systems, and the elementary school level were selected for participation within the study. All of the schools had been participants for a minimum of two years in a Shared Leadership Project, supported by the Tennessee Department of Education. The schools were chosen by the purposeful sampling technique of site selection. Eight teachers from each school were selected to participate in semi-structured interviews by their school's teacher and administrator Shared Leadership Project representatives.

The data were analyzed by content analysis and thematic analysis procedures. The following predetermined categories guided the analysis: collaboration, relationships, change, student learning, predictions, recommendations, and miscellaneous. Tabulations were calculated for appropriate questions, and patterns (relationships) were identified from the data across variables within the research.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

This study was designed to identify the perceptions of teachers regarding the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. The intent was to examine the teachers' perceptions with respect to current connections and predictions for future connections. In addition to and in support of the learning issue, the study investigated the interdependence between the shared leadership process and a collaborative culture, changed relationships, and altered day-to-day operations.

Six schools representing three school systems in middle and east Tennessee participated in the research. Each school had been a participant in the Shared Leadership Project for a minimum of two years. The project was sponsored by the Tennessee Department of Education. The Shared Leadership Project representatives from each school, consisting of at least one administrator and two teachers, selected individual participants from their school site based upon researcher selection guidelines.

The data were collected through semi-structured interviews in on-site visits at each school. Eight teachers from each school were voluntary participants in the interview process. The interview schedule was developed by the

researcher and the director of the Shared Leadership Project. The instrument was pilot tested and revised prior to being used in this study. The questions on the interview schedule were based upon a review of the literature, were designed to cross-check the predetermined factors taken from the study's research questions, and were developed to progress from the collection of generalized data to more specific and possibly emotionally-laden data.

The data from the interviews were analyzed according to the predetermined categories that emanated from the study's research questions through content analysis and thematic analysis. Unintended outcomes were also identified through thematic analysis and quantitatively (when appropriate) through content analysis. Responses were tabulated based upon frequency of response in each of the content analysis categories.

The data were further analyzed by school and total study sample. Patterns of similarities and differences were identified. The data related to each of the five research questions and unintended outcomes are presented within this chapter.

Research Question 1

Has the shared leadership process cause the school culture to be more collaborative? If so what are the indicators? If not, what are the inhibitors?

The data generated by several open-ended questions on the

interview schedule were analyzed to answer this research question. Interview comments were initially coded by the predetermined categories, and then the category of collaboration was divided into subcategories and frequencies of responses were tabulated.

Information regarding shared leadership's effect on collaboration was quantified by type of response for each school and the total sample. Content analysis procedures were applied specifically to the "indicators" and "inhibitors" of collaboration, as identified by the respondents. By design, no indicators or inhibitors were predetermined or suggested to the respondents. These evolved from the data.

Responses of School A

Of the school's eight respondents, five perceived that the shared leadership process had positively influenced the way that people within the school community worked together. However, two respondents answered that shared leadership had and had not affected collaborative efforts offering such explanations for their answers:

Yes, because we developed a shared leadership philosophy, and no because not all implement the decisions that are made.

Yes, because it has affected the principal and the way he can see things and what the principal is open to. For those who are ready to understand shared leadership, it has worked well. . . If we lost the decision making that we have now, the teachers would recognize that we didn't have it before shared leadership. And no, because it has not affected us enough because of our culture. The culture is very traditional in that we're still

top-down in the classroom.

One respondent felt that shared leadership had not affected how people work together within the organization.

From a total of 77 responses, the respondents identified thirteen indicators of a collaborative culture. The two most frequently mentioned indicators of collaboration for this group of teachers were having a systematic form of involvement/decision making (through committees and/or a planning council) and increasing the involvement of parents in participation/decision making. Improved and increased communication, the development of a team concept among the school community members, and the increased involvement of students in decision making were also strong indicators.

Other indicators of a collaborative culture identified by the respondents were: increased professional growth experiences; the coordination of projects with other teachers; the administrator sharing/seeking input; an increased sense of teacher voice; the development of a shared leadership philosophy and complementary roles; the increased involvement of the community; the involvement of all people in school-wide problem solving and decision making; and the sharing of the Shared Leadership Project information by the school representatives. See Table 2 for a rank order listing of indicators for School A.

Fewer inhibitors of collaboration were identified by School A's respondents. Out of 14 responses, six inhibitors

TABLE 2
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL A

Indicators	Response Frequency
Committee Structure/Planning Council	13
Increased Involvement of Parents In Participation/Decision Making	12
Increased/Improved Communication	9
Team Concept	9
Increased Student Involvement In Decision Making	8
Increased Professional Growth	5
Coordination of Projects Among Teachers	5
Principals Share/Seek Input	4
Increased Sense of Teacher Voice	4
Shared Leadership Philosophy and Roles	3
Increased Community Involvement	2
Involvement of All Participant Groups In Decision Making	2
Shared Leadership Project Representatives Share Information	<u>1</u>
Total Responses	77

were suggested. Therefore, no real patterns were established. The inhibitors and the number of responses each were: some people do not "buy into" shared leadership, possibly due to their personalities (4); some people do not fully understand the process of shared leadership (3); shared leadership representatives do not share with the entire faculty (2); the communication/feedback process does not actually occur in all cases (2); school community members do not have the skills to practice shared leadership (2); and not all teachers implement the decisions that are made through the process (1).

Responses of School B

Five of the eight respondents perceived a considerable difference in collaboration levels within the school culture due to the shared leadership process, while one respondent perceived a minimal difference and two others perceived no difference at all.

Of the 80 responses made, the strongest indicators of collaboration identified by the respondents in School B were: the formation of committees, a leadership team, and more frequent meetings; the coordination and interaction with other teachers; increased parental involvement within the school; increased communication (especially in relation to problem solving); the formation of a team concept within the school environment; and the ability and opportunities to voice one's opinion. Those indicators mentioned less frequently were: the principal's increased inclusion of others in decision

making; the establishment of a shared leadership philosophy, vision and mission statements, goals, and activities; a linkage of shared leadership to student involvement; and an increased interaction between the school and the community. Table 3 contains a rank ordering of indicators of collaboration identified by the respondents of School B.

The most predominant inhibitors of collaboration from 54 total responses were identified as the principal, "the leadership team," and a lack of participation by everyone. The principal was frequently characterized as not sharing leadership and was accused of manipulating shared decisions. Respondents noted:

The principal allows us to go ahead and have meetings without him. That's a change. . . But with regard to committee authority, nothing will be done until the principal approves it. There has been some conflict recently on another committee. They feel like they had done all this work and then the principal changed it.

The principal does not coach. He is a dictator, boss, a fixer. The principal will make you think you fixed it.

With the teachers, he spends a lot of time telling us what we should do or what he thinks about an issue. . . He never backs down. He wants his way.

The leadership team was deemed "privy" to information and charged with withholding information from others not on the team. A limited amount of participation by all members of the school community was noted as an inhibitor to collaboration. Other inhibitors presented by the respondents were:

TABLE 3
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL B

Indicators	Response Frequency
Committee Structure, Leadership Team, Increased Number of Meetings	13
Teacher Interaction and Coordination	13
Increased Parental Involvement	11
Increased Communication	10
Team Concept	9
Sense of Teacher Voice	9
Principal's Inclusion of Others In Decision Making	6
Shared Leadership Vision, Mission Statement, Goals, and Activities	4
Linking Shared Leadership to Student Involvement	3
Increased Interaction Between School And Community	<u>2</u>
Total Responses	80

personality differences resulting in some not "buying into" the philosophy, some wanting only to please the principal, and others pretending that shared leadership is working; a lack of communication; the lack of community awareness/involvement in the process; a "secrecy" issue among the leadership team members; and the isolation of the classroom. A rank order listing of inhibitors is presented in Table 4.

Responses of School C

The participants' comments were favorable toward the interrelationship between shared leadership and the creation of collaborative cultures. All eight of School C's respondents perceived the process of shared leadership as increasing collaboration within their school's culture.

Of the 115 total responses related to indicators and inhibitors of collaboration, 112 were indicators of collaboration. Interaction/coordination with other teachers (including problem solving and sharing) provided the greatest number of responses. The formation of committees (including grade level groups) was also a strong indicator of collaboration. Other indicators were: the formulation a team concept within the school; increased interaction between participant groups (teachers, administrator, parents, community groups); an increased sense of teacher voice; Increased parental involvement; increased/improved communication and feedback; the inclusion of all teachers in long range planning and committee work; increased student

TABLE 4
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INHIBITORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL B

Inhibitors	Response Frequency
Principal	20
Leadership Team	9
Lack of Participation by All Groups	9
Personality Issues	5
Lack of Communication	4
Lack of Community Awareness/Involvement	4
Sense of Secrecy Among Leadership Team	2
Isolation of the Classroom	<u>1</u>
	Total 54
	Responses

involvement; and a sense of personal power. Indicators of collaboration in School C are rank ordered by frequencies in Table 5.

Each of the three inhibitors to collaboration were mentioned only once and, therefore, do not constitute patterns. The inhibitors identified were: the communication process with the PTA organization; personalities of certain individuals who "innately" resist sharing; and a lack of professional communication skills (i.e. some teachers refrain from speaking out on an issue or from disagreeing with colleagues/friends).

Responses of School D

Six of the eight respondents recognized a connection between shared leadership practices and collaboration among school community members. While one respondent's perception was that shared leadership had not caused the school culture to become more collaborative, the remaining respondent reported that there "probably" was an increase in collaboration due to the shared leadership process. Even though the respondent was uncertain of the connection, examples of collaboration were provided during the interview.

Respondents from School D identified ten indicators of collaboration within 161 related responses. Increased interaction with other teachers (involving sharing, brainstorming, and problem solving) was overwhelmingly the strongest indicator. The other indicators identified were:

TABLE 5
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL C

Indicators	Response Frequency
Teacher Interaction and Coordination	25
Committee Structure	19
Team Concept	16
Increased Interaction Between Participant Groups	14
Increased Sense of Teacher Voice	10
Increased Parental Involvement	7
Increased/Improved Communication And Feedback	7
Participation of All Teachers In Long Range Planning and Committee Work	7
Increased Student Involvement	4
Sense of Personal Power	<u>3</u>
Total	112
Responses	

increased/improved communication among all participant groups; a formation of a team concept within the school culture; a sense of personal power; increased/improved parental involvement; increased/improved interaction between participant groups; numerous emotional/professional growth experiences; increased student involvement; the creation of teacher voice; and the formation of a committee structure. Table 6 presents a ranking of indicators of collaboration for School D by frequencies.

Only three inhibitors of collaboration emerged from the data. The isolation aspect of the traditional classroom structure was identified as an inhibitor in four of the six responses, while the lack of regularly scheduled monthly meetings and limited sharing from the Shared Leadership Project representatives were also noted as inhibitors.

Responses of School E

Seven of the eight respondents recognized a connection between the shared leadership process and increased collaboration within their school. One respondent perceived no relationship.

Eleven indicators of collaboration were identified from 79 responses. There was no marked distinction between those receiving greater frequencies of responses. They were: greater teacher input with regard to decision making; increased communication, both positive and negative in nature; a greater sense of "working together;" increased parental

TABLE 6
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL D

Indicators	Response Frequency
Teacher Interaction	40
Increased/Improved Communication Among All Participant Groups	21
Team Concept	19
Sense of Personal Power	17
Increased/Improved Parental Involvement	17
Increased/Improved Interaction Between Participant Groups	14
Emotional/Professional Growth Experiences	9
Increased Student Involvement	9
Sense of Teacher Voice	8
Committee Structure	<u>7</u>
Total Responses	161

involvement; greater interaction between teachers, including sharing; increased student involvement and improved student relations; and the development of committees. It should be noted that the respondents identified any form of communication as an indicator of collaboration. The concept of "working together" was used by the respondents rather than issues related to the formation of a team concept. Other indicators of collaboration with five or fewer responses were: the participation by most of the faculty and staff; a greater sense of teacher voice; increased interaction between participant groups; and a sense of personal power. Table 7 provides a listing of indicators of collaboration ranked by frequency of response.

There were eight inhibitors of collaboration identified from 15 total responses. Only one pattern, principal control, emerged from the data (4 responses). Respondents referred to the dictation of some decisions by the administration and the lack of control that the faculty has over "real change."

Responses of School F

A majority of respondents, five of the eight, perceived that sharing leadership increased levels of collaboration within their school site. Although three respondents reported no connection between shared leadership and collaboration, two of the three gave examples of increased collaboration resulting from shared leadership at some time during their interviews.

TABLE 7
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL E

Indicators	Response Frequency	
Increased Teacher Input in Decision Making	13	
Increased Communication	11	
Increased Sense of "Working Together"	10	
Increased Parental Involvement		9
Increased Teacher Interaction	8	
Increased Student Involvement/Improved Student Relations	8	
Committee Structure	7	
Participation by Majority of Faculty And Staff	5	
Increased Sense of Teacher Voice	4	
Increased Interaction Between Participant Groups	3	
Sense of Personal Power	<u>1</u>	
	Total Responses	79

From the 80 total responses, nine indicators of collaboration were identified. Seven of the nine indicators were mentioned frequently. They were: greater teacher input with regard to decision making; a formal committee structure; increased/improved communication; a sense of teacher voice; increased parental involvement; increased interaction and sharing with other teachers; and increased participation by all participant groups. The development of a team concept and increased student involvement were also suggested as indicators of collaboration. Refer to Table 8 for a rank order listing of the indicators of collaboration in School F.

Eight inhibitors were identified by respondents from a total of 25 responses. A sense of principal control was considered to be the greatest inhibitor to collaboration within School F. The principal was reported to have continued to make many of the school decisions alone, exercised veto power on committee decisions frequently, and dictated to teachers on many occasions. Other strong inhibitors to collaboration were: personality related issues; a lack of communication between participant groups and committees; and the lack of training for the shared leadership process and appropriate communication strategies. Those inhibitors mentioned only one time were: the inopportunity to provide input on daily issues; limited involvement of different parent groups; the "process dip" associated with change endeavors; and frequent committee meetings which could be replaced at

TABLE 8
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INDICATORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL F

Indicators	Response Frequency
Increased Teacher Input In Decision Making	14
Committee Structure	13
Increased/Improved Communication	11
Sense of Teacher Voice	11
Increased Parental Involvement	11
Increased Teacher Interaction	8
Increased Participation by All Participant Groups	8
Team Concept	3
Increased Student Involvement	<u>1</u>
	Total 80
	Responses

times by staff meetings due to the small size of the school. Table 9 presents information regarding the rank ordering of the inhibitors of collaboration.

Responses of All Participants

Thirty-six of the forty-eight respondents (75%) perceived that shared leadership increased collaboration within the school culture. Only six respondents saw no connection between shared leadership and collaboration. The remaining six respondents perceived minimal effects or did not recognize examples of increased collaboration.

Patterns of similarities and differences among all responses were identified in relation to indicators and inhibitors of collaboration. The most frequent indicators and inhibitors of collaboration reported from each school were compared with one another for commonalities and differences. Increased interaction/coordination/sharing with other teachers was the greatest indicator of collaboration. Formal committee structures; increased parental involvement; and increased communication were consistently identified as indicators of collaboration. The concept of working together or working as a team was repeatedly reported in all schools except School F. A sense of teacher voice consistently denoted collaborative efforts in three of the schools. Increased student involvement, however, was only regularly noted in Schools A and E. Increased interaction between participant groups was only noted regularly in Schools C and D. A sense of personal

TABLE 9
RANK ORDER LISTING OF INHIBITORS OF COLLABORATION
FOR SCHOOL F

Inhibitors	Response Frequency
Principal Control	8
Personality Issues	6
Lack of Communication Between Participant Groups and Committees	4
Lack of Shared Leadership Training And Communication Strategies Training	3
No Opportunity to Provide Input on Daily Operations	1
Limited Involvement of Parent Groups	1
"Process Dip" Related to Change	1
Frequent Committee Meetings (As Opposed To Faculty Meetings)	1
Total Responses	25

power was exclusively identified as a strong indicator of collaboration in School D. Table 10 provides a rank ordered comparison of indicators and inhibitors of collaboration.

Similarities among school sites with regard to inhibitors of collaboration are limited. Though identified only in schools B, E, and F, principal control was found to be the overall strongest inhibitor in relation to frequency of response. Personality issues were consistently reported as inhibitors to collaboration in four of the six schools. Weakened communication systems or communication problems; limited awareness/sharing of shared leadership; the limits of the committee structure; the lack of training; and the isolationism of the classroom structure were also found to be inhibitors across the sample population. The variability of the individual cultures affected identifiable inhibitors of collaboration.

Research Question 2

Have there been any observable changes in the relationships between all participant groups (students, teachers, administrators, and parents)?

The data collected from various open-ended interview questions were analyzed to answer this question. All interview comments were coded by predetermined categories and correlating subcategories which were related to the study's five research questions. Comments linked to the category of relationships were tabulated and then analyzed to determine

TABLE 10

RANK ORDERED COMPARISON OF INDICATORS AND INHIBITORS
OF COLLABORATION FOR SCHOOLS A-F

Factors	Response Frequency						
	A	B	C	D	E	F	TOTALS
<u>Indicators:</u>							
Responses per School:	76	82	112	161	79	80	590
Coordination/Interaction							
Sharing with Teachers	5	13	25	40	8	8	99
Committee Structure	13	13	19	7	7	13	72
Communication	9	10	7	21	11	11	69
Parental Involvement	12	11	7	17	9	11	67
Team Concept	9	9	16	19	10	3	66
Teacher Voice	4	9	10	8	4	11	46
Student Involvement	8	3	4	9	8	1	33
Interaction Between							
Groups	--	2	14	14	3	--	33
Personal Power	--	--	--	17	1	--	18
<u>Inhibitors:</u>							
Responses per School:	14	54	3	6	15	25	117
Principal Control	--	20	--	--	4	8	32
Personality Issues	4	5	1	--	--	6	16
Weak/Limited							
Communication	2	4	1	--	1	4	12
Limited Awareness/							
Sharing of Concept	3	4	--	2	2	--	11
Committee Structure	--	9	--	--	--	1	10
Lack of Training/Skills	2	--	1	--	--	3	6
Isolationism of the							
Classroom	--	--	--	4	2	--	6

patterns. They are reported thematically in a narrative format.

Responses of School A

Five of the eight respondents noted that the shared leadership process had a positive effect on relationships within their school. One respondent perceived both positive and negative effects on relationships, while two respondents could identify no effect. These responses appear consistent with the thematic analysis.

A pre-existing condition should be identified before presenting data from the thematic analysis. School A's system was involved in numerous changes during this study, many of which had a direct effect upon the school. As a result, many of the comments regarding relationship issues focused upon these system changes. An attempt was made in this analysis to focus only on relationship comments directly connected to shared leadership.

Relationship changes noted by the respondents were evident for all participant groups. Teachers were able to: cooperate with other teachers in problem solving; express their opinions and concerns more openly; and develop an acceptance and understanding of others and issues. Teachers and administrators became more receptive to parental concerns, and desired parental input. They also became more receptive to student concerns and made efforts to include students more in decision making within the classroom. Parents developed a

sense of awareness regarding school issues; became more comfortable in the school setting; increased their volunteer work; became members of school committees; and got involved in problem solving activities. Students began to take on more leadership roles within the school.

Comments were also analyzed to determine reasons for varying effects on relationships within the school culture. As a result, the patterns which emerged were: "relationships have always been difficult here;" distinct, change-resistant personalities affect relationships; several staff members embody a sense of "self-importance;" and jealousies exist over who gets to do what.

Responses of School B

Within School B, five of the eight of the respondents recognized a positive effect on relationships because of the shared leadership process, while one noted a minimal positive effect. Two respondents failed to recognize any effect on relationships. These percentages are somewhat misleading when compared to the thematic analysis of the data.

School B had also been affected by system-level changes made during the past several years. However, current system-level plans for change did not directly affect School B.

In a thematic analysis, few significant differences in relationships were noted consistently by School B's respondents. Teachers were viewed as more accepting of others' ideas; supportive of the administrator's effort to

change; and open to establishing relationships with other staff members. The administrator had attempted to change his/her leadership approach; solicited parental and faculty input; and recognized student involvement and leadership. The parents had become more comfortable within the school culture. Students were becoming more comfortable expressing their opinions within some classrooms.

In analyzing the data, the following explanations for negative and no effects revealed were: personalities that result in jealousies and gossip; a lack of trust between all participant groups; the administrator's inability to share leadership in practice; the perceived power of the leadership team among all parties; a pervading sense of suspicion; and a lack of communication and listening skills.

Responses of School C

All respondents from School C reported that shared leadership had a positive effect on relationships within the school culture. This is consistent with the thematic analysis of the data.

In consideration of pre-existing conditions associated with relationships within the school culture, the following should be noted. All respondents characterized the administrator, through information provided by others or from personal experience, as rigid and dictatorial when first becoming principal of School C. This coupled with several strong teacher personalities created discord. Due to

unrelated changes imposed from the system, several teachers transferred out of the school. This situation and shared leadership allowed for change.

The patterns identified through thematic analysis were predominantly related to the faculty, staff, and administrator. Parental issues and student involvement were considered in a very limited manner by respondents. Relationships within School C were characterized as: caring, respectful, trusting, communicative, flexible, cohesive, open, responsible, fair, and fun. The culture was described as exciting, "close knit," "like family," and a happy place. Because all comments and patterns were positive, no analysis of variable data could be conducted.

Responses of School D

Due to shared leadership, relationships were positively effected in School D as reported by all of the school's respondents. This is supported by the thematic analysis of the data.

With regard to pre-existing conditions affecting relationships, the previous principal at School D was characterized as strong-willed and "hard." The current principal, however, was described as a "people-person" who shared naturally.

A thematic analysis revealed differences in relationships between all participant groups. The teachers', parents', and the principal's relationships were described as more open,

communicative, flexible, trusting, and cohesive. Teachers were happier with their jobs; excited about teaching; supportive of the principal and other teachers; and secure in suggesting new ideas and/or experimenting. They were complaining less and sharing across grade levels. The principal was more supportive and willing to listen. Parents also complained less, and felt welcome and needed within the school. Students were happier as a result of all of the relationship changes. Teachers were also encouraging more student leadership within the classroom and the school. The overall sense of feeling value in oneself and one's school was expressed by respondents. An analysis of variable responses was not possible due to the fact that all comments and corresponding themes were positive.

Responses of School E

A substantial majority of the respondents, six of the eight, from School E observed a positive effect on relationships due to the shared leadership process. Of the remaining respondents, one recognized a minimal positive effect and the other reported no effect. However, these results are not totally consistent with patterns identified through thematic analysis.

The respondents identified pre-existing conditions which affected relationships within the school. The principal was new to the school and to the area. Respondents felt this accounted for several differences between the principal and

the faculty. Six out of eight respondents referred to an obvious division among the faculty. The "old ranks," as they were called, resisted change of any form.

All participant groups were included in respondent comments. Patterns reveal that all groups were increasingly being involved in decision making and were becoming more cohesive. Communication was improved for teachers, parents, students, and administrators. Teachers shared more with other teachers within their grade level and across levels. Parental involvement and student involvement increased. The administration had made an effort to listen more and share responsibility.

Although positive changes in relationships were being made, the data disclosed reasons for limited positive effects and for negative effects. Such patterns were related to: distrust of the principal; misconceptions of the shared leadership process; the division within the faculty; and the continuation of administrative dictation on some issues.

Responses of School F

Within School F, six of the eight respondents noted a positive effect on relationships that they perceived to be caused by the shared leadership process. One respondent perceived a negative effect. The remaining respondent made no response due to her limited time at the school. Thematic analysis does not consistently support these results.

Four of the eight respondents discussed a rezoning issue within the system which resulted in several African-American students being transported to School F from their neighborhood. This pre-existing condition was deemed important in relation to parental involvement. Due to the physical distance and perceived discomfort levels, few African-American parents were able to participate in school activities.

In analyzing the data thematically, all participant groups were represented at least to a minimal extent. All groups were perceived to be more cohesive, with increased sharing within and across the groups. Parents and the community were involved more in planning and decision making. Students were allowed to participate in decision making within their classrooms in some situations. Communication with parents and among staff members was improved. However, a negative pattern was identified in relation to increased communication among the staff. Respondents noted "back-biting," "pairing up," and other negative behaviors resulting from "opening up."

Through an analysis of the data, several themes were identified that explained the negative effects commented on by respondents of School F. Principal control; change-resistant personalities; distrust of the principal and/or others; miscommunication; and jealousies were common themes.

Responses of All Participants

Of this group of teachers, thirty-eight (79%) reported a positive effect on relationships while only one respondent reported a negative effect. Two respondents reported minimal positive effects and another respondent reported mixed effects. No effect on relationships was expressed by five respondents (10%) of the sample, and one respondent chose not to respond.

Thematic analysis of several open-ended questions across all respondents and school cultures revealed the following patterns. Though each culture was unique, there was an acceptance of other people's opinions which encouraged or allowed for communication. Respondents spoke of less isolating environments, places where interaction, sharing, and relationship building occurred. In such situations, openness and interaction led to collaborative problem solving. Parents generally were more welcome in the schools and classrooms, and were beginning to be seen as a part of the school culture. In cultures where shared leadership was working well, the environment was described by respondents as "happy" and/or "exciting." Work was valued, and respondents expressed the ability to truly make a difference on a larger scale than one-on-one.

Patterns for negative effects or no effects on relationships were also found in the data. Although increased communication and interaction generally resulted in

collaborative decision making, hurt feelings and jealousies or apathy resulted in some cultures. The reasons for such differences and negative effects were: negative-oriented personalities (i.e. change resistant, threatened, negative); a lack of (timely, accurate, and complete) communication; a lack of trust (between all participant groups); principal control; and a lack of training (for the shared leadership process, for problem solving, for consensus, for conflict resolution, etc.).

Research Question 3

Has the shared leadership process affected the day-to-day operations within the school? If so, in what way?

The data for this research question were collected from several open-ended interview questions. First, comments made by the respondents were coded by predetermined categories and correlating subcategories which were based upon the research questions. Then those comments related to change were tabulated and analyzed thematically. Patterns were identified, within each school and across all respondents, which present information regarding shared leadership's effect upon the day-to-day operations.

Responses of School A

Respondents in School A identified seven ways in which shared leadership had affected the day-to-day operations

within their school: committee work; the planning council; regularly scheduled meetings; teacher voice; inservices; parental input; and student relations. Committees had been established to make decisions, and the administrators did not veto or manipulate their decisions. The planning council was created to be the central governing body, and had made many first order changes (Cuban, 1984) such as a cafeteria policy, behavior policy, and a student reward program. Meetings were held twice a month to discuss issues. During these meetings and at other times, teachers were able to have input regarding daily operations and long term plans. The teachers were able to request, conduct, or attend inservices and training as needed. Increased parental involvement resulted due to the shared leadership process. Parents were included on the planning council and their input affected daily procedures. Student relations were also affected by shared leadership. The faculty, staff, and administration worked together to thoroughly present and explain rules and policies to the students.

Contributors and inhibitors to the change process were identified by the respondents and analyzed for patterns. The administrators of School A were identified as the greatest contributors to change, receiving one half of the responses. Another contributor was parental involvement. All eight of the respondents commented on inhibitors outside of the local school arena due to system level changes at the time of this

study. Inhibitors associated to the school culture were: some peoples' need for a "quick fix" or their desire for direction/control; personalities and attitudes; the "journey" aspect (i.e. backing off, the process dip); inadequate training and sharing of the shared leadership process; and the time required for shared leadership.

Responses of School B

Shared leadership affected the day-to-day operations in School B. Respondents consistently reported that teachers had more input on daily operations through their leadership team and the committees which evolved from the leadership team's actions. The leadership team, composed of a representative from each grade level and from special areas, dealt with issues that the principal brought to them. Committees or action teams which work on curriculum and instruction issues were formed as needed. Various issues or events dealt with by the faculty were improving school-wide climate, reorganizing Awards Day, establishing student incentives, setting up the clinic, and choosing colors of paint for the building. Parent involvement was also affected. Due to an involvement on parent advisory committees, parents approached the staff about problems.

The respondents noted contributors and inhibitors to the change process and patterns were identified by the researcher. The principal, central office's support of the process, the Shared Leadership Project, and teacher input and interaction

were found to be patterns of contributors. The principal was also viewed as the greatest inhibitor to the change process due to the manipulation of team and/or committee decisions and continued dictating of other decisions. Personalities, including those who are change-resistant, controllers, and "yes men," were perceived as inhibitors. The leadership team was characterized as an inhibitor and was seen as another level of the hierarchy by many of the respondents. Other patterns of inhibitors identified were: excessive procedures imposed by the principal (i.e. forms, etc.) and time issues.

Responses of School C

School C's respondents felt that the shared leadership process had affected the daily operations in a number of ways. The committee structure was deemed as quite powerful. The committees took referred problems and issues, analyzed them, and made related recommendations to the faculty. The faculty voted on these recommendations and resulting policies were communicated in a written form to all participant groups. Examples of issues considered were: daily events/activities/procedures, professional behavior guidelines, finances, reorganization of classrooms, and computer needs. All of the faculty participated in discussions of the issues, the voting process, and the brainstorming of school needs. In other words, teachers' input in decision making greatly increased. First order changes (Cuban, 1984) were attempted initially. The honors

procedures, the discipline policy, parking, bus problems, the dress code, and the rearranging of classrooms were those changes first considered. Sharing with others across grade levels and participant groups, involving students more in classroom decision making, and increasing parental involvement in school-wide decision making were also identified as changes in daily operations.

Contributors and inhibitors to the change process were provided by School C's respondents and then analyzed for patterns. The journey (the process of shared leadership); the committee structure used by School C; the principal; increased communication from the committees and the principal; and the training/research related to the shared leadership process were noted as major contributors. The leaving of two negatively oriented teachers and the fact that committees were made up of various grade levels also contributed to change. Five out of eight respondents saw no inhibitors to the change process. Of those who identified inhibitors, all three respondents perceived personality issues as the greatest problem.

Responses of School D

One respondent comments:

Our success with shared leadership could change the system's viewpoint and affect how education is viewed!

All others at School D supported this respondent's enthusiasm with regard to change. The faculty worked with outside

consultants to identify their strengths and weaknesses as a schools. Priorities were established and developed into an action plan. The teachers proposed a reorganization of some classes into a multi-age unit. As one respondent explained: "we decided we wanted to make some changes." They also redid the bus duty schedule, cafeteria procedures, and dismissal procedures and organized a paint group to be in charge of painting the building. They had input on curricular, instructional, and financial issues, making most of the related decisions. They decided which math materials were purchased, initiated a hands-on science program, chose to use alternatives to the basal program in some situations, changed schedules in order to implement planning periods (and, consequently, disbanded the practice due to its ineffectiveness), organized monthly community meetings on a topic of interest, and decided to add another multi-age unit and reorganize into a pod arrangement in the near future.

The committee structure devised supported the development of school goals and allowed for grade level and across grade level planning. The shared leadership process was also touted as the reason for increased parental involvement in the school and input in decision making, improved communication between the school and community, and the initiation of a parent-teacher kindergarten program this year.

As the result of the thematic analysis of the contributors to change, the principal's support of faculty

decisions and teacher empowerment were identified as the two greatest contributors to the change process. Supporters of the shared leadership process at the school level, an awareness/vision/planning process, and the ability to develop one person's ideas for change through analysis, expansion, and a comparison to the research were also noted as enabling change to occur. Other contributors mentioned less frequently were: trust; risktaking behaviors; parents receptive to change; feelings of dissatisfaction prior to shared leadership; the previous principal's leadership style; and preparatory staff development (i.e. conflict resolution, personality types, etc.).

In analyzing the inhibitors to the change process, the journey (or process of shared leadership) was noted most frequently as an inhibitor to change. The problem associated with the journey of sharing leadership was inculcating their newly assigned principal and new teachers into this process -- a kind of "catching them up." Time issues (i.e. the time it takes to make change through the shared leadership process and the time the meetings/interaction requires) and policies from all levels that inhibit change were consistently reported. Paradigms or traditional views of education and fewer scheduled meetings this year were cited as inhibitors also.

Responses of School E

Shared leadership affected the day-to-day operations within School E in five ways: increased teacher input; the

development of a school-wide discipline plan; curricular and instructional change; increased student involvement; and increased parental involvement. The committee structure and a brainstorming process used in faculty meetings were responsible for increased teacher input. Curricular and instructional change involved various programs, cross classroom sharing, a variety of instructional strategies, curricular offerings, a schedule change, and the prioritization of needs. Peer tutoring, increased decision making, and school leadership were components of increased student involvement. Increased parental involvement included obtaining parental input on curricular changes and parental inclusion on committees.

School E's respondents noted various contributors and inhibitors to the change process and the following patterns emerged. Even though the administration's encouragement for change was noted as the greatest contributor, the administration's governance procedures were viewed as the most significant inhibitor to change. Effective communication was also identified as a contributor to change. Other inhibitors found in the data were: time issues, negative personalities, and a confusion between site-based management and shared leadership.

Responses of School F

Respondents at School F identified three ways that shared leadership affected the daily operations of their school.

Increased teacher input, parental involvement, and curricular/instructional involvement were noted changes. Teachers were more involved in decision making, the establishment of school goals, the hiring process, some financial issues, and some scheduling. Much of this resulted from teacher participation in committee work. Increased parental involvement through regularly scheduled luncheons and a retreat enabled the implementation of parental suggestions. Teachers and parents were allowed to participate in decision making with regard to curricular and instructional issues also.

Contributors and inhibitors to the change process were suggested by those interviewed from School F. The following patterns were found. The principal, the committee structure's effect upon communication, the Shared Leadership Project representatives' sharing of information, the concept of shared leadership, sharing, and the inclusion of parents were contributors to change noted frequently in the data. Time issues, principal control, and a resistance toward change were the greatest inhibitors to change. Other inhibitors were: the journey process (i.e. the "dip" that often comes after initial involvement); negative attitudes; and complacency.

Responses of All Participants

In an analysis of the data gathered for research question 3, four patterns were identified as shared leadership's effect upon the school's day-to-day operations. An increase of

teacher voice in daily operations and first order changes (Cuban, 1984) were consistently reported in all six schools. Five of the six schools noted the committee structure (A, B, C, D, and F) and increased parental involvement in decision making (A, C, D, E, and F) as changes affecting day-to-day functioning.

With regard to contributors and inhibitors to the change process, the following patterns were found. Contributors were: the principal, the Shared Leadership Project, parental involvement, teacher empowerment, school level supporters, and communication (from the committees and the administration). Time issues, negative personalities, and the principal were consistently found to be inhibitors to the change process. Table 11 provides a rank ordered comparison of shared leadership's effect on day-to-day operations and the contributors and inhibitors to change.

Research Question 4

Have there been any observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning? If so, what are they? If not, what are the inhibitors?

In answering this research question, correlating data were collected from all open-ended interview questions. The interview comments were initially coded by predetermined categories and related subcategories. Comments associated to student learning issues were tabulated and thematically

TABLE 11

RANK ORDERED COMPARISON OF SHARED LEADERSHIP'S EFFECT
ON DAY-TO-DAY OPERATIONS IN SCHOOLS A-F

Effects	Found In Schools:
<u>Resulting Change:</u>	
Increase in Sense of Teacher Voice	A,B,C,D,E,F
First Order Changes	A,B,C,D,E,B
Committee Structure	A,B,C,D,F
Parental Involvement in Decision Making	A,C,D,E,F
Regular Meetings	A,B,C
Curricular/Instructional Changes	C,D,E
Planning Group	A,B
Sharing Across Grade Levels	C,D
Give Students More Responsibility In the Classroom	C,E
Inservice/Staff Development	A
Parents Approach Staff With Problems	B
Organizational Change	D
Communication System with Parents And Community	D
<u>Contributors to Change:</u>	
Principal(s)	A,B,C,D,E,F
Shared Leadership Project	A,B,C,D,F
Parental Involvement	A,B,D,F
Teacher Empowerment	A,B,C,D
School Level Supporters	B,C,D,F
Communication (From the Committees And the Principal(s))	C,E,F
Shared Leadership Process	C,D,E
Collaboration	A,C
People Being Willing to Change	E,F
Training/Staff Development	B,D
Community	A
Central Office Support	B
Journey	C
Some Teachers Leaving	C
Trust	C
Teachers' Feelings of Dissatisfaction	D
Electing Shared Leadership Project Representatives	D

TABLE 11 (cont.)

Effects	Found In Schools:
<u>Inhibitors to Change:</u>	
Time Issues	A, B, C, D, E, F
Personalities	A, B, C, E
Principal	B, E, F
Lack of Training	A, C, E
Lack of Communication	B, D, E
Hierarchy of Schools	A, D
Journey	A, D
Participation of Only a Few	A
No Monitoring System	A
Leadership Team	B
Excessive Procedures (for Accountability)	B
Lack of Effort by Some Members of The Committee	C
Community Resistant to Change	C
Physical Plant	D
Lack of Meetings	D
Lack of Money	D
Lack of Trust	E

analyzed by school and the total sample. Connections between the shared leadership process and student learning and inhibitors are presented in a narrative format. Content analysis was conducted on all participant responses related to perceptions of connections to student learning both from the teacher's viewpoint and from the students'.

Responses of School A

Six out of eight of the respondents recognized a connection between shared leadership and student learning while two respondents saw no connection.

Patterns of observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning follow. Due to shared leadership, respondents consistently noted a focus on instructional strategies; the collaboration of participant groups with regard to sharing, planning, problem solving, and making decisions related to curriculum and instruction; and an increase and improvement in staff development. Other connections to student learning involved increased student participation in peer tutoring and the leadership of discussion groups; increased parental involvement in classroom and daily school activities; and long range planning for instructional/curricular issues. The single inhibitor identified was the lack of including students on appropriate committees or establishing a student council.

When the respondents were questioned about the students' perceptions of the shared leadership process, the responses

were evenly divided. Those who felt students would recognize a difference in their school posited the following reasons. Students would recognize: increased parental involvement, teaching assistants' responsibilities, and student involvement in the educational process; increased student opportunities to participate in decision making; changed rules and policies; and a pervasive sense of family. Respondents who felt that students would not recognize a difference in their school based their responses on the students' young ages and the fact that teachers do not make an effort to inform them of shared leadership -- often times because the teachers themselves are not totally comfortable with the process.

Responses of School B

Six out of eight respondents perceived a connection between shared leadership and student learning while two saw no connection. However, one of the respondents who was unable to recognize a connection gave examples of connections elsewhere in the interview.

In a thematic analysis of the data, five patterns of connections between shared leadership and student learning were found. Teachers of School B were given the "freedom to teach differently" or to utilize alternative instructional strategies. Various new/revised programs were initiated, such as: a hands-on science program, reading programs, an incentive program, shared assessment of student skills, and a student relationship building program. Action teams were

developed to focus on school goals, curriculum, and instruction. Teachers shared educational ideas with one another and student input in the classroom increased. A negative effect noted was the leadership team's decision (for various reasons) to cancel a special event which involved all children in the school and required the organizational efforts of only one teacher. Some teachers did not feel this was an appropriate use of the group's decision making power. Principal control was suggested as the only inhibitor.

The majority of respondents, five out of eight, from School B felt that their students would not perceive a difference in the school due to the students' ages, student perceptions that the principal makes all of the decisions, and the students' lack of inquisitiveness. The three respondents who believed that students in the school would recognize a difference in their school cited such reasons: the students observe teachers sharing and parental involvement; the students ask about announced teacher meetings/activities; and the students notice privileges that have been changed in their favor.

Responses of School C

As in the previous mentioned schools, six of the eight respondents perceived a connection between shared leadership and student learning. Two respondents saw no connection when asked by the researcher. However, one of the two gave examples of connections in response to other interview

questions.

Five patterns emerged from the data that reveal connections between shared leadership and learning. The faculty engaged in goal setting activities and long range planning for both the grade levels and the entire school. An effort to work on instructional, curricular, and assessment issues by the entire faculty was noted consistently. Teachers shared ideas, responsibilities, materials, and even students. Student involvement in decision making within the classroom was noted. One respondent referred to shared leadership as "a model you can use in the classroom." Finally, the pervasive frame of reference in the school was that learning by all participant groups is necessary. The teachers perceived themselves learning about shared leadership and other issues, and there was excitement about that! School C's respondents perceived no inhibitors.

Six out of eight respondents felt the students would be unable to determine a difference in the school, and consistently noted the students' young ages as a reason. Only two respondents believed that the students would perceive a difference in the school, and they based their responses on the students' observations of teachers sharing and the students' comfort with all other teachers in the building.

Responses of School D

All respondents from School D perceived a connection between shared leadership and student learning. In

explanation, one respondent commented:

The mindset here is 'teachers helping students' and the principal helps us meet the needs of each child. We're allowed to meet the needs of students as best we can.

Five patterns resulted from an analysis of the related interview comments: school-wide planning and reorganization efforts; sharing and teacher improvement; instructional/curricular issues; parental and student involvement; and continued learning and training.

The school was involved in establishing school goals, had organized a multi-age unit and was making plans to add another one, and was organizing a pod arrangement for the school. Teachers shared ideas and desired improvement. Various school changes, including instructional and curricular issues, were made at School D. Examples included: changes in the reward system, assessment procedures, and the usage of computers; an integration of the curriculum; initiating a hands-on science program; and the rotating of science and social studies classes. Greater parental involvement in the classroom and school and through committee work was noted. Students were involved more in decision making, peer tutoring, cooperative learning situations, and higher level thinking activities as a result of shared leadership. The desire for continued learning through staff development was evident. Teachers expressed the need for shared leadership training, staff development on pertinent issues, and a research base on topics under study. The single inhibitor noted was actually a need:

to involve students more in the process.

Seven of the eight respondents felt that the students would recognize a change in the school due to these reasons: more relationship building; the multi-age unit; teachers work more cooperatively; the changes being made are good for the students and they like the changes; greater parental involvement; greater positive communication between the school and the home; changes in the reward system, discipline, and the cafeteria procedures; and "more positive feelings" in the building. The only respondent who perceived that students would not recognize a difference based it on the belief that the students were and are treated well.

Responses of School E

A large number of the respondents from School E, six out of eight, perceived a connection between shared leadership and student learning. One respondent saw no connection, while the remaining respondent was unsure of the connection.

Several themes were identified through an analysis of the data. The multi-age unit, a result of the shared leadership process, was consistently provided as an example of the connection to student learning. Curricular changes in art, music, and physical education (which might extend the school day for ten minutes) were also provided as an outcome of the shared leadership process. An increase in instructional strategies, resources, curricular programs, and staff development emerged as a pattern. Greater teacher input in

decision making with regard to instructional/curricular issues through the committee structure was noted. Student involvement in cooperative learning situations, peer tutoring, and decision making within the classroom was found. Money was identified as the only inhibitor.

One-half of the respondents believed that students from School E would recognize a change while the remaining one-half disagreed. All respondents, however, commented that the students "feel" the effects indirectly. Those teachers who felt that the students would be perceptive of changes based their beliefs on the students' recognition of increased staff interaction, student involvement, problem solving strategies in the classroom, and the multi-age unit. The rationale used for students not being able to perceive a difference was their young ages.

Responses of School F

When asked about observed connections between shared leadership and student learning, there were varying responses from School F. Three out of eight respondents recognized a connection, three other respondents did not recognize a connection but provided examples of connections elsewhere in the interviews, and the remaining two respondents were unable to identify any connections between the shared leadership process and student learning.

In analyzing the data related to student learning, four patterns surfaced. Instructional and curricular changes were

evident. Examples of these included the development of the multi-age units and improvements planned for them; an increase in instructional strategies; the networking of classrooms to increase technology opportunities; and the introduction of special curricular programs. Increased sharing and teacher input, student involvement in decision making, and parental involvement in the classroom and school were also identified as patterns. Several inhibitors of student learning were noted by the respondents: negative, change-resistant personalities; the time required to make an effect on student learning; the lack of information which is needed to make such decisions; predetermined instructional/curricular policies which are difficult to alter; and the lack of training of teachers for this role.

Five out of eight respondents from School F did not think that students would perceive a difference in their school. Of the three remaining respondents, two believed that students would see a change and one had no response. Teachers responding negatively to the question commented on the lack of carryover to the students, the young ages of students, and the positive work done for students without including results of shared leadership. The two respondents who felt that students would be aware of differences noted the increase in parental involvement and the multi-age units as reasons.

Responses of All Participants

Of all of the respondents, thirty-five (75%) recognized

connections between shared leadership and student learning. When asked, the remaining respondents could see no connection. However, five of those respondents (10%) provided examples of connections during their dialogue even though they did not recognize the examples as such.

Through thematic analysis, the following patterns were identified as a result of data from four or more schools. Instructional strategies (A, B, C, D, E, and F); collaboration to share ideas, plan together, solve problems, and make decisions (A, B, C, D, and F); student involvement in decision making (A, B, C, D, and F); staff development (A, C, D, and E); curricular changes (A, B, D, and E); and parental involvement in the classroom/school (A, D, E, and F) were found. The only common inhibitor was the need to involve students more in leadership roles (A and D). Table 12 contains a rank order comparison of shared leadership's effect on student learning in the total sample.

With regard to student perceptions of change, twenty-five of the respondents (52%) reported that students would not perceive any change while twenty-two (46%) felt that students would be aware. One respondent chose not to answer the question. All of the schools identified the age level of students as a reason for their limited awareness of change. However, increased parental involvement, changes in privileges and rules, increased teacher interaction/sharing, and special grouping were patterns of reasons for student awareness.

TABLE 12

RANK ORDERED COMPARISON OF SHARED LEADERSHIP'S EFFECT
ON STUDENT LEARNING IN SCHOOLS A-F

Effects	Found In Schools:
<u>Connection to Student Learning:</u>	
Instructional Strategies	A,B,C,D,E,F
Collaboration (Sharing, Planning, Problem Solving, Decision Making)	A,B,C,D,F
Student Decision Making	A,B,C,D,F
Staff Development	A,C,D,E
Curricular Changes	A,B,D,E
Parental Involvement in Classrooms, School	A,D,E,F
Student Peer Tutoring	A,D,E
Reorganizational Changes in School	D,E,F
Long Range Planning	A,C
Make Financial Decisions Based on Instructional Needs	C,F
Establish School Goals	C,D
Improved Teaching Skills	D
<u>Inhibitors:</u>	
Limited Student Involvement	A,D
Principal Control	B
Lack of Money	E
Negative Personalities	F
Time Issues	F
Lack of Training	F
<u>Student Perceptions:</u>	
Age Level's Effect on Perceptions	A,B,C,D,E,F
Recognition of Teachers' Sharing	B,C,D,E
Recognition of Parental Involvement	A,B,D
Recognition of Changes in Privileges, Rules	A,B,D
Recognition of Changes in Multi-Age Classrooms	D,E,F
No Carryover to Students	F

Research Question 5

What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

Data for this research question were collected from the respondents' comments to the interview question designed to elicit teacher predictions and from related responses to other open-ended questions. All predictive comments were coded and tabulated by school. The data were analyzed thematically by school and total sample.

Responses of School A

Respondents from this school predicted numerous system and state level changes which could affect the shared leadership process and student learning. However, no solid evidence of this exists at this time. Teacher predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning involved integrating the curriculum, instituting the multi-age concept, increased working with colleagues, experimentation with new ideas and strategies, and increased parental involvement.

Responses of School B

Several respondents from School B also predicted numerous system changes which could possibly affect shared leadership's connection to student learning. Again, such predictions cannot be documented at this point. Imprecise predictions

related to shared leadership's connection to student learning were made and included: increased parental involvement, possible changes in curriculum, and improving the student rewards program. Overall, the respondents were unable to predict or felt uncomfortable doing so. One respondent commented, "we don't know what the administration has in store for us."

Responses of School C

Respondents from School C made several predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning. Predictions included "tackling" new or different curricular, instructional, and assessment issues; writing a proposal to the system for reorganization based on whole language and portfolio assessment; planning needed staff development for the upcoming year; allocating money for computers in every classroom; and increasing parental involvement.

Responses of School D

Predictions for connections between the shared leadership process and student learning were quite specific at School D. Respondents predicted that they would: continue to improve instructional strategies and curriculum integration; establish a student governing body in the multi-age unit; accommodate for students' needs in math within the grade levels; improve the assessment procedures for the school; reorganize the

school into pods; continue to add multi-age units at different levels; involve the parents and the community in the advancement of technology; and evolve from a rigid, academic school to a flexible cultural arts, intellectual type school.

Responses of School E

Respondents at this school predicted the following future connections between shared leadership and student learning: additional training in the concept of shared leadership and instructional strategies; other needed curricular/schedule changes; an increased use of technology; the implementation or improvement of new strategies (i.e. multi-age, math programs, whole language, learning styles, etc.); and continued involvement of community resources.

Responses of School F

The respondents from School F had few predictions related to shared leadership's future connections to student learning. Improvement in the multi-age units, an establishment of a cultural studies unit throughout the school, and computer networking were predictive comments provided by four of the eight respondents.

Responses of All Participants

In an analysis of the data collected from the total sample, three patterns of predicted future connections between the shared leadership process and student learning emerged. A focus on instructional strategies and curriculum

development, computer usage in all classrooms, and increased parental involvement were consistently predicted by the respondents. Table 13 contains a rank ordered comparison of predicted connections between shared leadership and student learning for all schools in the sample.

Unintended Outcomes

During the analysis stage, four additional findings emerged from the data. These unintended outcomes are related to the selection process of participants at individual school sites, comparisons between school systems, individual recommendations regarding shared leadership, and the impact of the shared leadership process on some individuals.

The Selection of Individual Participants

The researcher purposefully allowed the Shared Leadership Project representatives from each school, the principal and two or more teachers, to select the individual participants from their school. The rationale for the school representatives' selection control was based on the premise that administrators and others from the same culture who have differing viewpoints can more effectively identify respondents who are analytical and reflective and possess the necessary knowledge (Selltitz & Others, 1960).

The researcher requested the participation of those teachers who had attended training sessions of the Shared Leadership Project in combination with teachers who had not,

TABLE 13

RANK ORDERED COMPARISON OF PREDICTED CONNECTIONS
BETWEEN SHARED LEADERSHIP AND STUDENT LEARNING
FOR SCHOOLS A-F

Predicted Connections	Found In Schools:
Instructional Strategies/Curriculum Development	A, C, D, E
Use of Computers	B, C, E, F
Parental Involvement	A, C, D
First Order Changes	B, E
Program Development	F
Student Interaction	D
Staff Development	C
School Reorganization	D

in order to have a representative sample of "trained" and "untrained" teachers from each school. The following guidelines were provided for the selection of the "untrained" participants: various teaching experiential/expertise levels, differing levels of support for the shared leadership concept, various school leadership experiences/opportunities, a desire to participate, and the ability to express oneself.

At the close of each interview, the researcher informally asked the respondent how he/she was chosen to participate in the study. This question, as part of the "informal post interview," was asked in order to elicit information about the process of participant selection at that particular school and also as a means of gathering more information about how the individual teacher perceived his/her role in the school (Gorden, 1980). Because this time was not defined as part of the interview by the respondents, each readily shared his/her perceptions of how he/she was selected.

Table 14 provides information regarding the teachers' perceptions of the selection process. In Schools A and E, three respondents were Project representatives and five were asked to participate by the principal. While in School F, one-half of the respondents were Project representatives and the other one-half were asked by the principal. School D, similarly, had four Project representatives, three who were asked to participate by the principal, and one volunteer. However, Schools B and C reported different situations.

TABLE 14
TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF THE SELECTION PROCESS
FOR SCHOOLS A-F

How Selected	Frequency						TOTALS
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Shared Leadership Project Participant	3	3	2	4	3	4	19
By Principal Request	4	0	2	3	5	4	18
By Project (Teacher) Participant(s) Request	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
By Principal and Project (Teacher) Participant Request	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Volunteered	0	5	0	1	0	0	6

School B's respondents noted so great of an interest in participation in the study that names of volunteers were drawn in an open meeting. The school was represented by three Project participants and five volunteers. All respondents from B expressed their desire to be "heard." School C's respondents were evenly selected and invited to participate by Project representatives.

The majority of teachers' perceived their participation in the study to be the result of a principal decision. Because these are teacher perceptions, it is impossible to determine if the Shared Leadership representatives discussed the selection process, jointly determined who to approach, and allowed the principal to make the request or if the selection process simply evolved into a principal decision. The only finding that can be made for certain is that the teachers' perceptions predominantly suggest that the principal made the decision. Whether true or not, the perception is valuable in light of the topic, shared leadership.

The Comparison Between School Systems

Originally, this researcher had intended to analyze the data by school, school system, and total sample. However, during the analysis, it became evident that the individual school systems were not significant in any way. Any significance in similarities or differences were resultant from individual school cultures rather than school system philosophies or practices.

Individual Recommendations

As part of the interview, each respondent was asked to make a recommendation regarding the process of shared leadership. The question was intended as a cross-check for other interview questions and was purposefully open-ended in design. After all interviews had been conducted and during analysis, responses related to recommendations were placed upon a rating scale devised to display the range of responses.

The scale included varying references to action (i.e. regarding participation in the shared leadership process) and theory (i.e. regarding the theory or philosophy of shared leadership). The following classifications composed the rating scale: positive action/positive theory, cautious action/positive theory, cautious action/cautious theory, cautious action/negative theory, and negative action/theory. Recommendations were further grouped into categories which evolved from the data. The patterns found were: recommendations proclaiming the impact of shared leadership; recommendations made for the theory of shared leadership; recommendations suggesting a focus in using the process of shared leadership; and recommendations suggesting improvements for using the process in schools.

The majority of respondents, thirty-one (65%), recommended positive action/positive theory. In other words, they supported the theory of shared leadership and encouraged "doing it." Thirteen respondents (27%) recommended cautious

action/positive theory. Thus, forty-four out of forty-eight respondents supported the theory of shared leadership. Three respondents made recommendations toward caution in theory and practice. Only one respondent's recommendation was classified as negative action and negative theory. In relation to the patterns of recommendations, the responses were overwhelmingly associated to the impact of shared leadership.

Impact of Shared Leadership

In addition to the impact of shared leadership being the most frequent pattern of recommendation made by the total sample, six respondents made statements regarding the impact of shared leadership on their own personal and professional lives. Each referred to the process as being a life-changing experience. The six respondents came from Schools A (one respondent), C (two respondents), D (two respondents), and F (one respondent). All were Shared Leadership Project participants with the exception of one who is from School C. Comments suggesting the impact of shared leadership on their lives follow:

This has changed my life so much. With the staff when change is needed, I model shared leadership and try to motivate people to make a decision. With my parents, I just include them more. . . The students are also there. It's a shared time. I try to work with them more as a team and not just as a teacher. Shared leadership has affected me most in the classroom.

Because everyone is so much happier, it's easier to get along. You don't think "God, I have to go to that school today.". . .I'm so much happier here now and this has to affect the students. I love

it!

I came from hell. Shared leadership is everything the opposite of what I came from. Basically, the complete opposite. . . I am just amazed that shared leadership can work -- that teachers can help make decisions. . . This is a positive place. There is stress, but it's good. It is not anger and stress. There is lots of giggling and laughing in this place. It makes school a fun place for us and for the kids.

I am here at this point because of shared leadership. . . This has changed my life. . . We knew she (the principal) wouldn't take us out on a limb and cut the limb off, so we went out on the limb voluntarily. . . In looking at the research on student empowerment, that one way of looking at the classroom has changed me. . . Our staff and the journey we're on, we can't go back and live as we were before.

The multi-age unit tells the community that we're making some changes for students. It says that teachers are being allowed to use their ideas and not just those from the administration. Teachers have a voice in what is being taught and how. . . Three or four years ago those exiting feelings at the beginning of the year were going away for me. With shared leadership and multi-age, the excitement is back! I had considered a career change. We're so excited about what we are doing here!

Shared leadership has benefitted me personally. I learned how to interact and to voice my feelings. Before I might have said it and may be not. It's a great project. I feel badly that it's not worked as well as it should have. But that's not to say that it won't!

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary

Educational change has been pervasive during the last thirty years, beginning with a frenzy of reformation caused by the launching of Sputnik I and the Civil Rights movement. These acts caused major curricular reform, technological innovations, and organizational innovations. However, change was enacted from afar through the promotion of single innovations.

The 1970's were characterized by implementation problems and stagnation -- the results of the single innovations of the previous decade. Educators and other interested parties soon discovered that multiple, simultaneous innovations were needed.

During the 1980's, numerous official groups noted the demise of education, and the overall tone of the country was one of displeasure with the condition of education. Federal and state mandates and attempts at decentralization evolved from this negative attention. Mandates were issued to correct the condition of schools. Decentralization or school based management provided a different way of organizing the schools for site level decision making and finally included the teachers in reform.

Although educational change reveals a progression from single innovations to multiple, simultaneous innovations to comprehensive reform, the current focus is on systemic reform. Generally speaking, the public still believes that American schools are declining and that our level of student learning can not compete with that of other countries. Governments and businesses have increasingly been concerning themselves with educational issues. As a result, many have termed this a period of high stakes educational reform.

The Problem

Because the world is in a constant state of change, educational reform is needed. However, it is interesting that in spite of the changes that have occurred during the last thirty years, "traditional" schools of today are very similar in appearance and operation to schools of the past. Schools, as most bureaucratic/process organizations, are resistant to change. Therefore, to truly bring about educational reform, there is a need to involve people in a cultural change which is linked to student learning. Shared leadership is an organizational concept which involves all participant groups in decision making in an attempt to produce collaborative cultures. However, such restructuring should be examined in regard to its effect upon student learning.

The purpose of this study was to identify teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. The teachers' perceptions in

relation to what actually happened within the school culture that affected student learning and their predictions for future connections to student learning were examined. The major research question was: What impact do collaborative cultures have on student learning? Specifically, the study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. Has the shared leadership process caused the school cultures to be more collaborative? If so, what are the indicators? If not, what are the inhibitors?
2. Have there been any observable changes in the relationships between all participant groups (students, teachers, administrators, and parents)?
3. Has the shared leadership process affected the day-to-day operations within the school? If so, in what way?
4. Have there been any observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning? If so, what are they? If not, what are the inhibitors?
5. What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

Procedures

A descriptive case study approach, utilizing semi-structured interviews as the main source of data, was chosen

for this study. Six schools from the state of Tennessee representing the middle and eastern parts of the state, three school systems, and the elementary school level were selected for participation within the study. Each school had been a participant in the Shared Leadership Project for a minimum of two years, which was funded by the Tennessee Department of Education. The schools were chosen by the purposeful sampling technique of site selection.

Eight teachers from each school were chosen to participate in the study by the Shared Leadership Project representatives from their school. These representatives, in most cases an administrator and two teachers, had attended monthly project meetings for one or more years. The project representatives were provided guidelines for the selection of individual participants by the researcher. These guidelines included a request for a combination of "trained" (project representatives) and "untrained" teachers. The project representatives were also asked to select "untrained" teachers who had varying levels of experience and expertise, differing levels of support for the shared leadership concept, a desire to participate, and the ability to express themselves.

Semi-structured interviews were used to obtain the perceptions of teachers involved in the shared leadership process. A predominantly open-ended question format was used to provide for in-depth responses from participants. The interview questions were designed by the Shared Leadership

Project director and the researcher. The instrument was pilot tested with four teachers who were from the total population, but not participants in this study. Following the pilot of the interview, revisions were made. Interview data were collected during May, 1994.

The interview data were analyzed to answer the research questions posed in this study. Content analysis procedures and thematic analysis were utilized to analyze the data in two ways: within each school and with all other interviews. The following predetermined categories, which were based upon the research questions, guided the analysis: collaboration, relationships, change, student learning, and predictions. All interview comments were initially coded according to these categories and related subcategories. Two additional categories evolved from the data: recommendations and miscellaneous. Results found through content analysis were tabulated by school and the total sample. Thematic patterns were also identified by school and the total sample. Unintended outcomes identified through analysis were also presented.

Findings

Research Question 1: Has the shared leadership process caused the school culture to be more collaborative? If so, what are the indicators? If not, what are the inhibitors?

The majority of the interviewed teachers, within each school and collectively, indicated that the shared leadership

process had caused the school culture to become more collaborative. Several other teachers did not readily recognize the collaborative effects of shared leadership, but identified them within their dialogues.

Even though the indicators of collaboration varied somewhat by individual school cultures, the following indicators emerged from an analysis of the total sample. The ability to coordinate, interact, and share with other teachers was overwhelmingly the greatest indicator of collaboration. It was found in all schools and was identified as the greatest indicator in three of the six schools. The committee structure signified collaboration in all schools and was the greatest indicator in two of the schools. Increased communication, the indicator with the third highest number of responses, was also found to denote collaboration in all schools and was the greatest indicator in one school. Other strong indicators of collaboration, overall, were parental involvement and the development of a team concept. The development of a sense of teacher voice and student involvement were found in all schools, but to a lesser degree. Increased interaction between participant groups and the creation of a sense of personal power were found to be possible indicators of collaboration. However, they were predominant only in two schools within this study.

The inhibitors of collaboration varied by school culture to a much greater degree. Three of the schools did not have

any significant inhibitors. However, of the three remaining schools, the inhibitor most frequently noted was principal control. The principal, with regard to total number of responses, was by far the greatest determining factor of collaboration. Personality issues, weak communication, and a limited awareness/sharing of the concept of shared leadership were consistently noted at four or more of the schools as inhibitors of collaboration. The committee structure, though touted as an indicator in all schools, was noted in one school as a strong inhibitor of collaboration.

Research Question 2: Have there been any observable changes in the relationships between all participant groups (students, teachers, administrators, and parents)?

The majority of teachers identified a positive effect on relationships, with only one teacher from the study reporting a negative effect. Most of the schools reported differences in relationships for all participant groups. Those that did not were concerned with faculty/staff/administrator relationships primarily.

Each culture was unique and the range of relationship changes varied considerably. Examples of the range include comments related to jealousies derived from sharing and comments about the culture evolving into a "happy place" where people get along and work together. However, all schools noted the following relationship changes: an increased acceptance of other people's opinions which affected

communication; less isolationism which allowed for increased interaction and sharing; the opportunity to interact for collaborative problem solving; the welcoming of parents into the school culture; and an increased sense of comfort by the parents.

Patterns for negative effects or no effects on relationships were found to be due to negative personalities within the school culture, a lack of communication, a lack of trust, principal control, and a lack of training.

Research Question 3: Has the shared leadership process affected the day-to-day operations within the school? If so, in what way?

Even though there was variability among the school cultures with regard to change, all of the schools reported that the shared leadership process had affected their day-to-day operations. The manner of changes related to daily operations included an increased sense of teacher voice in decision making; first order changes (i.e. behavior plans, cafeteria procedures, hall duty, etc.); a committee structure that deals with school issues and decisions; and increased parental involvement in decision making.

Contributors and inhibitors to change were found in the data. The principal was found to be both a contributor and an inhibitor. Other contributors to change included the Shared Leadership Project and the process, parental involvement, teacher empowerment, school level supporters, and

communication. Inhibitors were time, negative personalities, a lack of training, and a lack of communication.

Research Question 4: Have there been any observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning? If so, what are they? If not, what are the inhibitors?

Observable connections between the shared leadership process and student learning were identified by the majority of teachers participating in this study. A majority of each school, with the exception of School F, also recognized a connection between shared leadership and student learning. Several other teachers within the total sample provided examples of connections although they did not readily recognize them as such.

The teachers were also asked about their perceptions of the students' recognition of change. Approximately one-half of the teachers perceived that the students would be aware of a difference, due in most part to the increased sharing among teachers. Those who believed that students would not be aware of any change based their rationale for this on the students' young ages.

The observable connections between shared leadership and student learning were found to be: an increase in the usage of varying instructional strategies; collaboration with regard to teacher sharing, planning, problem solving, and decision making; an increase in student decision making; improved and relevant staff development; curricular changes; and increased

parental involvement in the classroom and the school. Only one inhibitor was noted in more than one school, limited student involvement. However, this was identified by only two schools in the study.

Research Question 5: What are the teachers' predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning?

Few of the teachers were able to make solid, reflective predictions for future connections between shared leadership and student learning. Most of the related comments were vague or restatements of what had already been accomplished. Many comments were unrelated to shared leadership. Some teachers chose not to comment at all. Exceptions to these findings were from Schools C and D. The majority of teachers from each of these schools were able to make more precise, predictive comments which suggest school level planning and goal setting.

Though they were weak, the patterns of predicted connections between shared leadership and student learning found focused on instructional strategies/curriculum development, the increased use of computers in the classroom, and parental involvement.

Unintended Outcomes

Four additional findings emerged from the data related to the selection process of participants at individual school sites, comparisons between school systems, individual recommendations regarding shared leadership, and the impact of

the shared leadership.

Even though the Shared Leadership Project representatives were asked to choose the individual participants in this study, the majority of the "untrained" participants perceived their selection to be a result of a principal decision. Because participant perceptions are the subject of analysis, one cannot determine if this accurately depicted what happened. However, since an individual's perception tends to be his/her sense of reality, the concept of principal control is found again.

Originally, this researcher had intended to analyze the data by school, school system, and total sample. However, it soon became evident that no significant difference between school systems existed. Instead, any significance in similarities or differences appeared to result from individual school cultures.

An impressive majority, forty-four of the forty-eight respondents, recommended the concept of shared leadership, while a large majority recommended the concept and participation in the process of shared leadership. Three respondents advised caution with shared leadership. Only one respondent was negative toward the concept of shared leadership and suggested no participation.

The impact of shared leadership was noted as the most frequent pattern of recommendation made by the total sample and was referred to specifically by one in eight respondents

as "life changing." Those who termed it "life changing" claimed that they: would never look at things the same or work with people in the same manner; taught differently; enjoyed their work again; had learned how to interact with others and voice their opinions; had learned how to become informed; and were now given credibility as a decision maker in the school.

Conclusions

Even though some experts note no connections between restructuring efforts and student learning, this study provides evidence that shared leadership impacts student learning. The process of sharing leadership among school community members provides for increased student learning opportunities. The collaboration of teachers, administrators, staff members, and parents affects day-to-day decisions and influences the relationships within the school culture. Students are directly and indirectly affected by the development of collaborative cultures. Thus, sharing leadership transcends beyond "tinkering" with educational reform.

While the majority of teachers within this study recognized connections between shared leadership and student learning, several others failed to recognize the connections even though they identified examples. The same was true of recognizing increased collaboration among school community

members. Even though the connections between shared leadership and student learning and increased collaboration were found, not all teachers recognized them as such. The ability to recognize these conditions is related to individual teachers' levels of reflection, acceptance of the shared leadership philosophy, and to varying levels of training within the schools.

Training is not sufficient in many schools for a successful, effective implementation of shared leadership. The need for training is noted continuously by respondents. Often members of the school community do not know how to voice their opinions, reach consensus, be a team player, etc. As previously mentioned, training inadequacies are also seen as an inability to recognize connections between shared leadership and collaboration, relationships, change, and student learning. The impact of shared leadership is greater among those trained in the process.

Some individuals will not be receptive of the shared leadership process despite increased training. Even though this number is relatively few, such personalities are resistant to the concept of sharing. They prefer to work in isolation and to follow prescribed directives. Collaborative school cultures must be aware of this fact and provide alternatives for these individuals.

School cultures vary considerably, and, therefore, affect the impact of shared leadership. The process of shared

leadership has a greater effect in cultures which have been able to make initial first order changes (Cuban, 1984), have received training, practice sharing, and are persistent about staying with the shared leadership journey. There appears to be less effect when the school's members view shared leadership as a "quick fix" or new strategy. Shared leadership should be a philosophical concept that a school culture subsumes, rather than a strategy with which the school culture experiments.

The cultural aspect is a strong factor in implementing change of any kind. Due to the great variability among cultures, understanding their cultures can help leaders determine why their schools are succeeding or failing. Relationships, collaboration, and types of change affected by shared leadership should be examined.

The progression of inclusion appears to range from an increased involvement of the faculty and staff in decision making to the solicitation of parents' input in decision making. Regardless of the school culture, parental involvement is positively affected by practicing shared leadership. However, those schools that experience successful change as a result of increased teacher and staff input are more apt to involve parents to a significant degree. In such a situation, the "threat" of including parents diminishes. In all cultures, there is a need to make the connection to increased student involvement.

The principal is a key factor in the success of shared leadership within the school culture. He/she is noted as the key inhibitor of collaboration, a reason for negative effects or no effect in relationships, and a major contributor and inhibitor to change. The principal is necessary in transforming a traditional school culture into a collaborative culture, and can be a major impediment to an established collaborative culture. However, members of a strong collaborative culture would be resistant to returning to the traditional form of school leadership.

Many teachers were unable to make related predictions regarding the future relationship of shared leadership and student learning. This is due to limited planning and goal setting by the entire faculty in some cultures. It is also possible that teachers tend not to view shared leadership as separate from events occurring in their culture. Therefore, unrelated comments were pervasive.

Implications for Future Research

The findings and conclusions from this research generated several recommendations for future research. They include:

1. Research on shared leadership should be continued and expanded to other geographic areas of the country.
2. A follow-up should be done with participants from this study within individual schools to verify

the themes.

3. A follow-up should be conducted with those teachers who found the shared leadership experience a life changing one.

4. A similar study should be done with another sample.

5. A similar study should be done with a different level of teachers or with mixed levels of teachers.

6. A confidential survey should be conducted of all teachers within individual cultures. As Deal and Kennedy (1982, p. 137) note, "people can be very eloquent in characterizing the problem in the culture around them if you just take the time to ask."

7. An ethnographical case study of one culture should be conducted.

8. An ethnographical case study of one identified principal who effectively utilizes the shared leadership process should be conducted.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

INFORMATION SHEET



College of
Education

Quality of School Life
Research Project

You are invited to participate in a study on shared leadership that I am conducting through the University of Tennessee. You were chosen because you have been involved in the Shared Leadership project led by Dr. Jerry Bellon or because you have been involved in the leadership process within your school.

If you agree to participate, all that is required is that you respond to a series of open-ended questions in a conversation-like interview after signing a consent form. Notes will be taken by the interviewer, but it will not be audiotaped. The interview session should last approximately 45 minutes. There are no anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. It is hoped that you will benefit from the process of reflecting and responding to the research questions and also from the knowledge gained from the findings of this study. Final reports will be available to all participants. Your responses will be held in confidence. Pseudonyms or code numbers will be used to ensure anonymity. The interview notes will be stored in a locked file at the home of the researcher.

I plan to share the findings of this study with the scientific community. However, when results are shared through publications in professional journals, no individual responses will be identifiable by a reader.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and you may withdraw from participation at any time and/or refuse to answer specific questions without incurring any penalty.

I will gladly answer any questions that you might have about the study or your participation in it.

Sharon Roberts
Graduate Assistant
University of Tennessee
615-974-0996
615-974-7926
615-933-4848 (Home)

117 Claxton Education Building / Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3400 / (615) 974-7926

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

CONSENT FORM



College of
Education

Quality of School Life
Research Project

The purpose of this study is to identify teachers' perceptions of the effect of collaboration within the school community upon student learning. You will participate in a semi-structured interview session which will last approximately forty-five minutes. This interview session will consist of a series of open-ended questions which you may answer in a conversation-like manner. Your participation is voluntary, and you may refuse to participate. You may withdraw at any time or opt not to answer a specific question during the interview without penalty.

This study will help us determine if sharing leadership within the school context has any effect upon student learning and, if so, what that effect is. There are no known risks to you as a participant in this study. However, if you feel uncomfortable answering any question, please feel free to choose not to answer. It is hoped that you will benefit from the process of reflecting and responding to the research questions and also from the knowledge gained from the findings of this study. A final report will be made available to you.

Your identity will be kept confidential. Only the researcher will have access to your summarized answers, which will be stored in a locked filing cabinet in her home. In the final report, aggregate results may be supported by quotes or paraphrases. Any such references to individual comments will be general in nature and will be disguised with pseudonyms or code numbers to protect your identity.

If you have any questions about the research, either now or later, please contact Sharon Roberts or Dr. Jerry Bellon, 117 Claxton Education Building, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3400, or call (615)974-7926.

I have read and understood the explanation of this study and agree to participate.

Name

Date

Signature

117 Claxton Education Building / Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3400 / (615) 974-7926

APPENDIX B

COVER STORY

Address the following points during the introduction of the interview:

1. who I am,
2. what I am doing,
3. why I am doing it,
4. what I will do with the results,
5. how the study sites and participants were selected,
6. any possible benefits and/or risks to the participants,
7. the promise of confidentiality and anonymity to the participants and site,
8. the right of the participant to refuse to answer any question(s) and to choose to withdraw his/her responses from the study,
9. the need to meet only this once, but the possibility of contacting them again if necessary for clarification,
10. how long I expect the session to last,
11. requests to record observations and words (by notes),
12. clarification that I am not present to judge or evaluate, but to understand and, therefore, may mirror back participant responses to check my understanding,
13. clarification that there are not right or wrong answers to the questions, and that the participants are the experts and teachers, and
14. how to contact me should the participant have further questions.

(A modification of Glesne & Peshkin's model, 1992, p. 32)

APPENDIX C

PILOT INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Tell me about your work in this school. What are your responsibilities, etc?
2. Your school has been involved in the Shared Leadership Project. Has this involvement affected the way people work together in the organization with regard to the day-to-day operations? If so, tell me about it. If not, why do you think it hasn't?
3. Have you seen any differences in the way people within the school community (students, teachers, administrators, parents) relate to each other? If so, tell me about it. If you haven't, why do you believe this is the case?
4. Can you give examples or describe situations where shared leadership has affected the way teachers teach or their involvement with students?
5. In thinking about the school before shared leadership and now, describe any differences. If you perceive that there are no differences, why do you believe this is the case?
6. Can you give me any specific examples of how teachers', students', administrators', and parents' involvement in problem solving/decision making processes have changed?
7. If I were to interview some students from this school, what would their perceptions likely be regarding shared leadership's effect? Would they have any idea that the school had been involved in shared leadership? Would they be able to discuss or describe a difference?
8. Do you foresee any future changes taking place that would affect the school culture, the relationships within the school community, the day-to-day operations, and the teaching/learning process?
9. In terms of making changes, what have been the factors that have contributed to any changes that have taken place? What have been the inhibitors to the change process?
10. Given what you know about shared leadership, if you were in a different school and the school was considering participation in shared leadership, what would your recommendation be? Why?

11. So that I have a real understanding of this school's culture, the relationships within it, and shared leadership's relationship to student learning, is there anything you would like to add that I have not asked that would contribute to my understanding?

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Introduction/Cover Story

1. Hello. . . My name is. . .
2. I am a graduate student at the University of Tennessee involved with the Shared Leadership Project funded by the state department of education. I am conducting research related to this Project to determine teachers' perceptions of shared leadership's affect upon the school culture and student learning.
3. I am a teacher also. I am on educational leave this year. I am interested in examining shared leadership from the teacher's perspective to determine if there is a connection to student learning. This is also part of my educational program.
4. I will use this study for the completion of my dissertation and the results will be published within it. Results will also be shared with the Shared Leadership Project Team and possibly other schools involved in the project. Your school will receive a copy of the results. There is a chance that the results might also be published in educational journals or such.
5. This school was selected as a site because it has been involved in the Shared Leadership Project for two years or more and because your school has been involved in the change process to some degree. The teachers and administrator(s) who attend the Project meetings were asked to help choose teachers who might be interested in talking with me about this subject. That is how you came to be here today.
6. I do not foresee any risks involved with your participation in this study. However, I hope that the main benefit will be your participation in the reflective process. Oftentimes we are not really aware of how we feel about something or what we believe until we are asked to put it into words.
7. No names will be used in the study. A coding method of letters and numbers will be used to identify participants and school sites. Therefore, I guarantee complete confidentiality. No one else will know what you have said.
8. You may choose to skip any question that is uncomfortable for you at any time. We can come back to it at a later time or not at all. You also may choose to have your responses withdrawn from the study at the end of the interview.

9. I will need to meet with you only this one time. However, if it is permissible, I might contact you at some later point if necessary for clarification purposes.

10. The interview will last about forty-five minutes today.

11. While you are answering the interview questions today, I will be taking notes if that is acceptable to you. You are welcome to look at my notes at any time.

12. I want to make it clear that i am not here to judge or evaluate you, your colleagues, or your school. My role is to learn from you so that I may understand. Occasionally, I may stop and summarize my notes for you to ensure that I am understanding.

13. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Remember, I want to know your perceptions. You are the expert on this topic, not me.

14. If you have further questions regarding the research, please do not hesitate to contact me. My address and telephone numbers are on the information sheet.

Questions

1. Tell me about your work in this school. What are your responsibilities?

(If necessary, Probe: noninstructional responsibilities)

2. Your school has been involved in the Shared Leadership Project. Has this involvement affected the way people work together in relation to day-to-day operations?

If so, tell me about it./If not, why do you think it hasn't?

(Probe: Any other daily operations affected?)

3. Have you seen any differences in the way people relate to each other -- students, teachers, administrators, and/or parents?

If so, tell me about it./If you haven't, why do you believe this is the case?

(Probe: Any other relationship changes?)

4. Can you give examples or describe situations where shared leadership has affected the way teachers teach?

Can you give examples or describe situations where shared leadership has affected teachers involvement with students in other ways?

5. In thinking about the school before shared leadership and now, describe any differences you recognize.

If you perceive there are no differences, why do you believe this is the case?

(Probe: Do you see any other differences?)

6. Can you give me any specific examples of how teachers', students', administrators', and parents' involvement in problem solving or decision making processes have changed?

(Probe: other groups not mentioned)

(Probe: Any other examples of changed decision making/problem solving processes in your school?)

7. With this question, we might have to assume or even pretend that the students are mature enough and have the verbal skills required. With this in mind, if I were to interview some students from this school, what would their perceptions likely be regarding shared leadership's effect?

Would they have any idea that the school had been involved in shared leadership?

Would they be able to discuss or describe a difference in the school?

8. Do you foresee any future changes taking place that would affect the school culture, relationships (among teachers, students, parents, and administrators), the day-to-day operations, and the teaching/learning process?

(If necessary, Probe: How would the change affect ____?)

(Probe: other areas not addressed)

9. With regard to change, what have been the factors that have contributed to any changes that have taken place?

What have been the inhibitors to the change process?

10. Given what you know about shared leadership, if you were in a different school and the school was considering participation in shared leadership, what would your recommendation be?

Why?

11. So that I have a real understanding of this school's culture, the relationships within it, and shared leadership's relationship to student learning, is there anything you would like to add that I have not asked that would contribute to my understanding?

VITA

Sharon Roberts was born in Jefferson City, Tennessee on March 7, 1959. She attended public schools in Knox County, Tennessee and graduated from Carter High School in Strawberry Plains, Tennessee in 1977. She earned a Bachelor of Science degree in elementary and special education in 1981 and a Master of Science degree in educational administration and supervision in 1984. Both degrees were awarded by The University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

She worked as a special education teacher in the Grainger County Schools from 1981 to 1985. From 1985 until 1993, she taught special education students and sixth grade students in the Knox County Schools. During the 1993-1994 academic year, Sharon Roberts served as a graduate assistant and worked with the Shared Leadership Project funded by the Tennessee Department of Education. In 1994, she became a curriculum generalist working with elementary schools in Knox County.

Her major field of study at The University of Tennessee was curriculum and instruction with collateral areas in leadership, educational psychology, and social foundations. She received the Doctor of Education degree in May 1995.