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ABSTRACT

This research examined the overlap of four key domains of schools according to multiple perspectives. The four domains (the macro-framework) were leadership, teaching, organization, and social contexts (B. Rowen, 1995). The "micro-framework" emerged from the paradigm theory and consisted of three perspectives, were the functionalist, constructivist, and critical, which were grounded in the work of G. Burrel and G. Morgan. Using "meta-ethnography" (G. W. Noblitt, R. D. Hare) as the methodology, this two-part framework was applied to four existing case studies in an attempt to synthesize results. The four ethnographies, from which the case studies were derived, are entitled : (1) "Elementary Schooling for Critical Democracy" (J. Goodman); (2) "After the School Bell Rings" (C. Grant and C. Sleeter); (3) "Making Multicultural Education Work" (S. May); and (4) "The Fate of an Innovative School: The History and Present Status of the Kensington School" (L M. Smith, J.P. Prunty, D.C. Dwyer, and P. F. Kleine). The four study schools fell into two categories: those which were succeeding in their efforts to reform teaching, and those which were not. Results indicated that successful schools were those in which the dominant perspectives, functionalist, constructivist, and/or critical, were consistent in all four domains. In unsuccessful schools, dominant perspectives differed in one or more domains. The most powerful and redundant key descriptors throughout the study depicted successful schools as those with visions which inflamed members of the school community. Leaders had strong visions, teachers had commitment, and both were congruous with each other and the needs and expectations of the local context. (Contains 43 references.) (SM)

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A Framework for Examining School Leadership and Teaching in Varied Organizations and Social Contexts: A Synthesis

by

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The purpose of this research was to determine the overlap of four key areas or domains of schools according to multiple perspectives. The four domains, referred to as the macro-framework, were leadership, teaching, organization, and social contexts as suggested by Rowan (1995a). The micro-framework emerged from paradigm theory and consisted of three perspectives, the functionalist, constructivist, and critical, which were grounded in the work of Burrell and Morgan (1979). Using meta-ethnography (Noblit & Hare, 1988) as the methodology, this two-part framework was applied to four existing case studies in an attempt to synthesize results. This discussion focuses on the major patterns which emerged.

Background

A growing number of writers argue that the field of educational administration gives insufficient attention to issues of teaching and learning. One outspoken critic is Brian Rowan, who states that administrators fail to "highlight instruction as the core task of schooling"...and that they "devote little attention to issues of learning and teaching" (1995b, p. 128). For example, recent developments in the field of psychology provide educators with a new way to look at teaching and learning. They move educators further away from behaviorist models and more toward cognitive models. Rowan (1995b) argues, that, in light of these recent developments in learning theory, instructional leaders should be "pioneers" in the development of instructional practices, but they are not.

The Macro-framework

To facilitate further research which combines teaching with leadership, Rowan encouraged use of a new research agenda, one that expanded the work of Hallinger and Murphy, who, in 1988, argued that leadership is not an isolated construct, but one that must be studied in varied social contexts. Rowan broadened that linkage to four domains, leadership, teaching, organization, and social context, and argued that it is really the overlap of all four which should be the focus of research. These four domains provided the macro-framework for this study (see Figure 1).

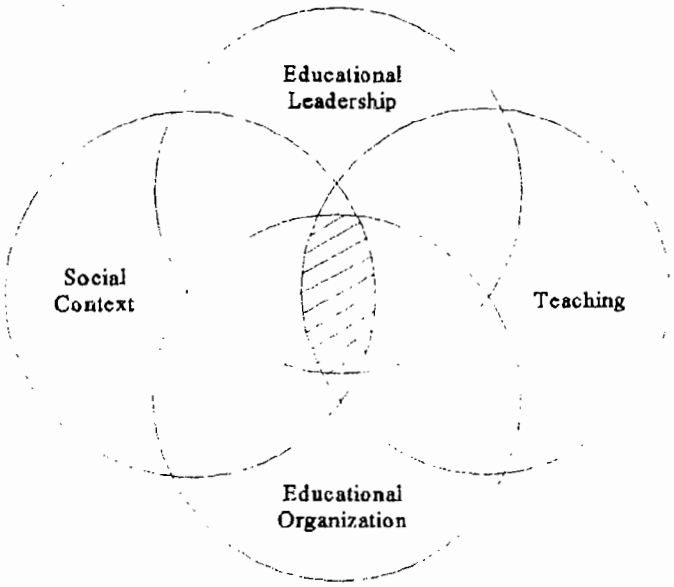

Figure 1. The Overlap of Four Domains
(Adapted from: Rowan, B. (1995a). Learning, teaching, and educational administration: Toward a research agenda. Educational Administration Quarterly, 31(3), 344-354.

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The Micro-framework

The micro-framework is grounded in paradigm theory which states that perspectives set the course for human activity. Burrell and Morgan (1979) provided four. functionalism, interpretivism, radical humanism, and radical structuralism. Based on similarity of purpose, radical humanism and radical structuralism have been combined and referred to as the critical perspective by some researchers (Capper, 1993; Doyle, 1995; Doyle & Reitzug, 1993; Foster, 1986a, 1986b; Reitzug, 1994a; Reitzug & Capper, 1996; Sirotnik & Oakes, 1986; Slater, 1995) which was also the terminology used in this research. In Table 1, I summarize how each domain would look according to each perspective.

Methodology

After reading an inventory of current case studies, I found numerous examples of the three perspectives embedded in them and assumed that extracting and analyzing these examples as a collective could help us understand the relationship of the four domains. The research question became, "What is our *current understanding* of leadership and teaching in varied educational organizations and social contexts?

Because the question addressed current understanding, it was a question of synthesis, and specifically in this study, a synthesis of qualitative case studies. This presented some interesting methodological challenges. George Noblit and Dwight Hare (1988) developed a research design called "meta-ethnography" that provided a rationale and strategies for interpretation and synthesis across qualitative studies. According to Noblit and Hare, (1988), "Meta-ethnography is a systematic comparison and interpretation of the findings, and interpretations of existing "long-term, intensive studies involving observation, interviewing, and document review" (p. 13).

Table 1. The Four Domains According to Three Perspectives

	Functionalist	Constructivist	Critical
Leadership	Autocratic Principal at apex of a hierarchy Positional power - assigns and requires	Collaborative Principal at the center of the organization Sharing of some power	Reformative Principal and others integrated in the vision of social reform Exchange of power
Teaching	Transmits curriculum in discrete, linear units - emphasis on basic skills and standards Product oriented	Transforms learners - emphasis on cognitive structures and situated learning Process oriented	Develops learners as advocates for social improvement Social reform oriented
Organization	Hierarchical Bureaucratic	Collaborative Communal	Inseparable from social context Advocative
Social Context	Orientation: - preserving the status quo Local context - an excuse for failure Community involvement - supplemental	Orientation: - embracing reform of teaching Local context - a contribution to the teaching program Community involvement - desired as beneficial	Orientation: - advocating for social change - disenfranchised Local context - a vital part of the school Community involvement - indispensable

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Using meta-ethnography as the foundation, I applied the principles of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to code, interpret, and analyze across cases with the written words (the descriptions and interpretations of existing studies) as the raw data. The methodological process was guided by a list of implementation strategies and boundary conditions. As suggested by Noblit and Hare (1988), the sample reflected maximum variability to increase and strengthen the contrasts used in analysis. For example, all four of the schools varied in size, sector, level, location, organization, and student multi-ethnic diversity. After reviewing an inventory of possible cases, I purposefully selected the following four ethnographies.

Goodman, J. (1992). Elementary schooling for critical democracy. New York: State University of New York (SUNY) Press.

This book is the study of Harmony School, a small, private school in Bloomington, Indiana. Harmony was an elementary school situated in a predominantly middle class university town with a tendency toward liberal ideologies. The student population was 25% minority and 75% white. The focus of Harmony School was teaching critical democracy as an alternative to the individualism of American culture. Goodman's purpose in writing the story of Harmony School was to provide a "language of possibility" for educators having an ideology and vision for democratic schools.

Grant, C., and Sleeter, C. (1996). After the school bell rings. Washington DC: The Falmer Press.

Five Bridges School was a large, public, secondary school in a major urban area in the Midwest serving a predominantly lower middle class community. The school's population was diverse with 5% African American, Native American, and Asian students, 28% Hispanic, and 67% White. The focus of the school was purported to be multicultural education. Grant and Sleeter's analysis portrayed a school that, despite its stated multicultural reform effort, lacked innovation, enthusiasm, and commitment to the education of students

May, S. (1994). Making multicultural education work. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters LTD, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Richmond Road School was a mid-sized, public, elementary school in a financially depressed area in Auckland, New Zealand. The school community consisted of Maori, European New Zealanders, and other South Pacific Islanders. The focus of the school was cultural

maintenance and access to power through multicultural, multi-lingual education. May's purpose in writing this critical ethnography was to tell the story of a school which was successful in providing a structured educational program that was egalitarian for its multicultural population.

Smith, L. M., Prunty, J. P., Dwyer, D. C., & Kleine, P. F. (1987). The fate of an innovative school: The history and present status of the Kensington School. New York: The Falmer Press.

Kensington School was a large, public, elementary school in a suburban area of the Ohio River Valley. Smith and Keith (1971) studied Kensington School, an open education specialty school, during its first year of operation. At that time, the community was lower middle class and predominantly white. In 1979, Smith et al. returned for a follow-up study of Kensington School which, due to demographic shifts, was predominantly African American. The leadership, teaching staff, and organization of the school had changed dramatically from the innovative school they had first studied. This research concentrated on the early Kensington School through an historical lens. Although Kensington School's program was recognized nationally as innovative, Smith et al. (1987) described how it was plagued with problems from its inception and was transitory ultimately falling back into traditional teaching which lacked any appearance of reform.

The four schools included in this study fell into two categories, those which were succeeding in their efforts to reform teaching (Goodman's Harmony School and May's Richmond School), and those which were not (Grant and Sleeter's Five Bridges School and Smith et al.'s Kensington School). As I analyzed each of these studies, I extracted key descriptors keeping them in the exact language of the author and documenting citations. After isolating over twelve hundred key descriptors, I coded and reduced codes until I could establish and validate a predominant perspective for each domain in each school.

Findings

Of the four schools in this meta-ethnography, successful schools were those in which the dominant perspectives, functionalist, constructivist, and/or critical, were consistent in all four domains; unsuccessful schools were those in which dominant perspectives differed in one or more domains. In the words of the authors, the four domains were "connected" (Goodman, 1992), and

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"combined" (May, 1994); unsuccessful schools were "disjointed" (Grant & Sleeter, 1996) and "incongruent" (Smith et al., 1988) (see Table 2).

Connectedness of Perspectives Across Domains

In their retrospective study of Kensington School, Smith et al. (1987) refer to a "convergence" that occurred over the years as the school returned to traditional teaching. Convergence differs markedly from "connectedness." Being connected implies that the distinct parts or elements are linked together in a symbiotic relationship and are incapable of being separated. While still maintaining much of their distinctness, each takes on tones of the union. Like paintings, schools are compositions of distinct colors which are blended into a whole, each color contributing to the same beautiful result but in different ways. Convergence, on the other hand, is the movement toward uniformity; the independent development of similar characteristics. Convergence stresses sameness.

Too many of our schools expect convergence. They begin with a wide palate, but when applied to the canvas, they all turn the same color. Although uniform, they are not beautiful. What is lacking in convergence is the belief that plurality adds value which is precisely what occurred at the unsuccessful schools. Nowhere in the accounts of Kensington or Five Bridges Schools could we see that the teachers valued multicultural diversity. They did not use differences as a learning tool, and focused only on teaching the same skills to all students in the same way. They did not reflect or think beyond to connect the cultures of their students with their teaching. The hierarchical structures and traditional teaching within the schools did not meet the needs of the disenfranchised community. The functionalist teaching and school organization were unconnected to the local context, and the schools did not reach out to change this breech

Table 2. Dominant Perspectives Reflected in Four Domains

	Leadership	Teaching	Organization	Context
* **Harmony School** (Goodman, 1992) "Connected"	Constructivist; Critical	Constructivist; Critical	Constructivist; Critical	Constructivist; Critical
5 Bridges School (Grant & Sleeter, 1996) "Disjuncture"	espoused: Constructivist practiced: Functionalist	Functionalist	Functionalist	Critical/ Disenfranchised
* **Richmond Road School** (May, 1994) "Combined"	Functionalist; Critical	Functionalist; Critical	Functionalist; Critical	Functionalist; Critical/ Disenfranchised
Kensington School (Smith et al., 1987) "Incongruity"	espoused: Constructivist practices: Functionalist	Constructivist	Constructivist	Functionalist

* successful school

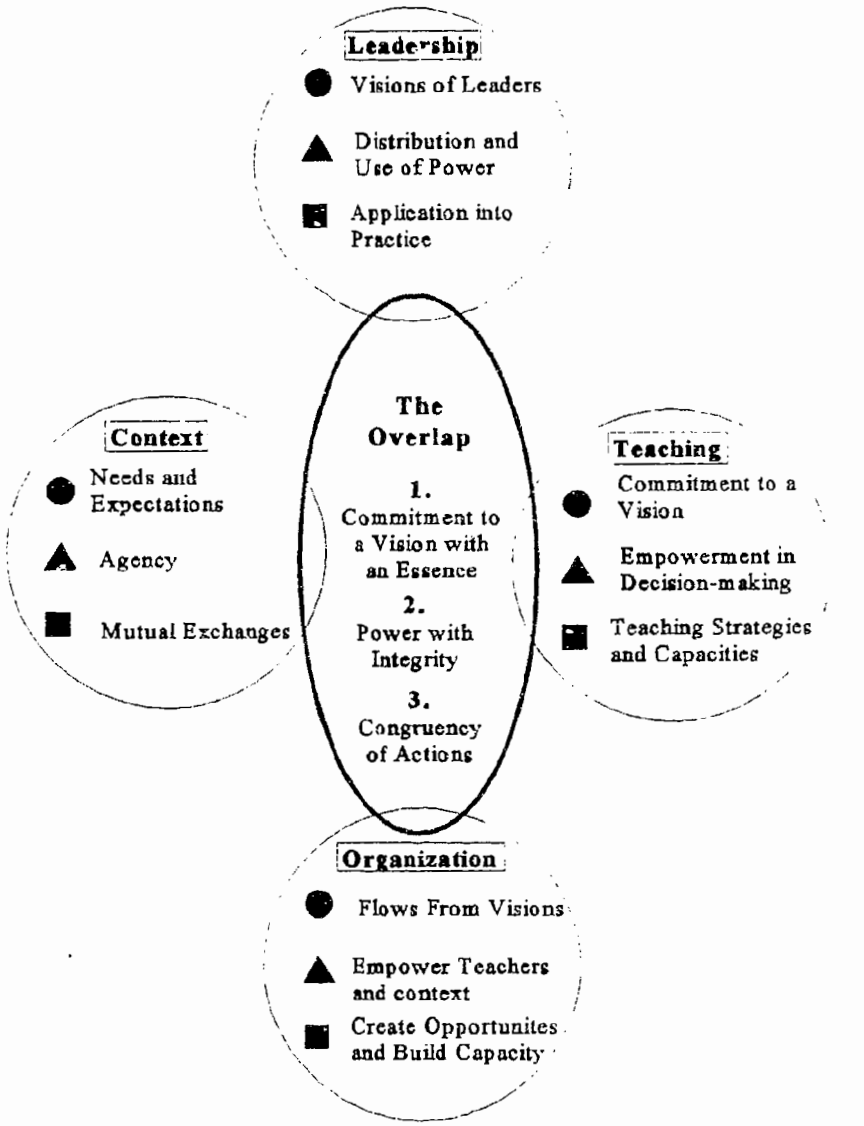
Note: Use of the reduced micro-framework with Harmony School and Richmond Road School can be misleading. The combination of perspectives used here, constructivist with critical, and functionalist with critical, are more appropriately described as the unreduced radical humanist and radical structuralist perspectives originally described by Burrell and Morgan (1979).

but rather continued to blame the students and community for the school's failure. In their recommendations, Grant and Sleeter (1996) concluded that, in order to succeed, reformed academic programs needed to "connect" (p. 241) with organizational structures and community interactions.

Patterns Across Domains

In addition to "connectedness" of perspective across domains, three major themes reverberated in each of the domains, and as such, sounded far stronger and louder than when heard in only one or two of the domains. They were (a) commitment to visions with an *essence*, (b) power with integrity, and (c) congruity of actions. Described briefly in the following, these patterns form the overlap of the four.

Figure 2 expands on Rowan's (1995a) suggestions illustrated previously in Figure 1, and depicts how the overlap of the four domains emerged in this research study. Each circle represents one of the four domains: leadership, teaching, organization, and context, and the oval represents the overlap of the domains. The domain categories in each circle emerged from the synthesis of key descriptors from the analysis of individual cases. Each of these domain categories contributes to one of the three patterns of the overlap as clarified by the key. The oval representing the overlap was enlarged to improve viewing, but the results suggest that the overlap may actually be the construct of greatest importance to schools and that researchers can no longer study schools in decontextualized boxes.



Key: ● - Category that contributes to pattern **1** of the overlap

▲ - Category that contributes to pattern **2** of the overlap

■ - Category that contributes to pattern **3** of the overlap

Figure 2. The Overlap of the Four Domains: Lessons Learned from Four Case Studies

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Commitment to a Vision with an *Essence*

The most powerful and redundant key descriptors throughout this research depicted successful schools as those with visions which inflamed members of the school community. Leaders in successful schools had strong visions; teachers had commitment, and both of these were congruous with each other and the needs and expectations of the local context. The structures of the educational organization flowed from the vision. Members of the school community did not "buy into" someone else's model, but conceived their own which they validated against their own beliefs. In some ways, the school vision became a cause or a mission; it had an "essence" based on the ideology of the school which emerged from connected perspectives of its members, the administrators, teachers, parents, community members, and other local stakeholders.

Commitment was substantial in the two successful schools. At Harmony School, ideology was emphasized through an ethic of caring (Noddings, 1992) that was evident in teachers' interactions with students. Not only did teachers spend considerable time preparing for classes and developing curriculum, but they also became "involved in students' personal lives" (Goodman, 1992, pp. 82-82). At Richmond Road School, there was an "unusual degree of commitment" (May, 1994, p. 81) with everyone focused on " how will the children benefit" (p. 109).

This was not so in both unsuccessful schools. The greatest and most harmful difference between Five Bridges School and the other three schools was that the administrators and the teachers lacked commitment to students. Grant and Sleeter (1996) made a scathing indictment of the educators at Five Bridges School when they accused them of "abdication of the job for which

they were hired" (p. 224) and the cause of students' failure and abandoned dreams. They indicted the school and educators when they stated,

> After tenth grade two things happened: the students started raising serious questions about their futures...and the school pulled out of their lives as much as it could....The school's main effort became equipping them to take a minimum-wage job after graduation. The school staff may have viewed it as inevitable that these students would not continue schooling - but there was no inevitability here; the school actively helped it to happen. (p. 224)

The picture at Kensington School was also bleak. When Kensington School opened, commitment of the administrators and the teachers was very high, but it waned. Why? Granted, the program ran into problems, but the teachers in the successful schools had problems as well. What was it about their commitments or visions that endured while Kensington's did not?

Firestone (1996) put forward four key components of commitment: bond, special affiliation, effort, and duration. All four were present at Harmony and Richmond Road Schools; all four were missing at Five Bridges School, but what happened at Kensington School? Similar to Harmony School, the teachers at Kensington School were a homogeneous group selected because of their strong ideas for the school. The Kensington teachers held educational ideas; the Harmony teachers held an ideology that they expressed through an educational vision. The Kensington School encountered problems not because the teachers were committed to an educational model but because they were committed to it in the absence of a set of beliefs.

Visions grounded on educational models and programs alone are pervious to trends with educational theories and strategies going out of vogue quickly. I do not mean to suggest that

schools holding visions with *essence* do not change. I am suggesting, however, that it is the *essence* that does not change while the educational program which delivers it does. Harmony School was continually changing as the energized staff sought new practices and reflected on if and how these practices could be used and/or adapted to meet their unrelenting vision of critical democracy. When the vision of the school is the educational program alone, as was the case at Kensington School, then major reform and rebuilding of the vision must occur whenever the educational research reveals more findings and publishers produce new resources and materials. In the words of a 1940's rural school teacher, We must adjust to changing times and still hold to unchanging principles" (Minor, 1996, quoted in Glickman, 1998, p. 8). It is the "holding" that contributes to the vision of successful schools; it is the holding to moral and democratic principles that makes schools "good" (Glickman, 1993).

Power with Integrity

Key descriptors describing power were numerous in each of the four ethnographies. Authors emphasized how leaders with positional power (e.g., board members and administrators) either shared or shifted power to persons closer to the teaching function and how those persons applied that newly acquired power. In successful schools, power transformations were ethical and moral; they were done with integrity. Teachers were empowered with authentic decision-making, and the school encouraged community members to exercise their inherent agency and/or created opportunities for members to acquire agency.

In the successful schools, there were shifts in traditional, hierarchical power relationships between administrators, teachers, students, and the local context. Some form of authentic empowerment was present in each domain. Principals in both schools utilized empowering types

of behaviors which supported, facilitated and created opportunities for critique (Reitzug, 1994b). Administrators encouraged teachers to theorize, reflect, and engage in dialogue that was critical of the status quo and encouraged discussion of theory and alternative ways of thinking about teaching and learning. They provided the resources (time, money and materials) that were needed for teachers to "give voice" (Reitzug, 1994b, p. 291) and actualize their ideas for change.

Congruency of Actions

Stakeholders in each of the four domains could espouse commitment to visions and transference of power, but unless they put these ideas into practice that were congruent with the vision, teaching reform was unsuccessful. In other words, leaders and teachers in successful schools practiced what they said they believed. Although both of the successful schools, Harmony and Richmond Road, had a "connectedness" of perspective, there were remarkable differences between them. They shared a focus on democratic reform, but they differed in the methods on how that was to be accomplished. Despite these differences, implementation at these two schools shared three features which were frequently absent in the unsuccessful schools: (a) vision driven planning, (b) opportunities for teaching reform, and (c) capacity building for ongoing change.

Vision Driven Planning

Repeatedly, educators have heard the importance of a shared vision, but, without a well managed implementation plan focused on reforming the other side of classroom doors, the probability for success is greatly reduced (Doyle & Huinker, 1995; Kritek, 1992; Kyle, 1993). In his assessment of a failed urban reform effort, Kritek (1992) chronicled the high enthusiasm of participants, but concluded, "A proclamation of high expectations was of limited value because it

did not get embodied in appropriate behaviors" (p. 246).

At Richmond Road School, there was "a remarkable consistency between educational intention and practice" (May, 1994, p. 187) due to carefully monitored long term planning, while at Kensington School, "unintended consequences of management" (Smith et al., 1987, p. 255) hampered the program and chipped away at morale little by little until ultimately trust was lost, and the program collapsed. The administrators at Kensington School operated for "grandeur" (Smith et al., 1987, p. 255). In several years, they planned for, built, and opened a new school which turned traditional teaching upside-down at a time when the conservative local context needed "gradualism" (p. 253). On the other hand, Richmond Road's plan took fifteen years of gradual and continuous reform which created opportunities and increased capacities of all participants in the vision.

Opportunities for Teaching Reform

Ellis, Cogan, & Howey (1991) contend that the key problem with organizational changes in schools is that they are seldom adequately integrated with curriculum and instruction; in other words, the coupling of structures to the kind of teaching that is desired is too loose. Two organizational features stood out in this research.

First, the successful schools in this study were the smallest of the four. Successful schools are places that are small enough for everyone to not only know each other by name, but to know about each other well enough so that they can mutually work toward the school's vision (Glickman, 1998; Meier, 1995; Sizer, 1992, 1996; Wood, 1992). Large schools are a moral and ethical dilemma for America. We know some fairly definitive things about the relationship of successful schools and small size (Berliner & Biddle, 1995; Meier, 1998), yet we allow our public

schools to be large, unfriendly places. We continue to build schools in which, by the very nature of their size, educators are unable to connect students, teachers, leaders, and parents with each other, and organizational structures are designed to process large numbers of students as efficiently as possible. Making schools smaller or at least appear smaller is "the first step in building schools that work" (Wood, 1992, p. 240).[1]

Second, educators in the successful schools in this study modified and customized their school structures according to what they believed were the best ways to reach their vision. As others have found (Meier, 1995; Sizer, 1992, 1996; Wood, 1992), when administrators encouraged innovation and facilitated creativity by lifting requirements, teachers ran with it. Schools and classrooms need to be customized according to their unique needs. Therefore, models or exemplary programs that work elsewhere cannot be replicated in other schools. Although we can look to them as resources to spark our own innovation, Goodman (1992) cautions,

> One cannot divorce an ideology or even a set of practices from those who are actually working within a given situation....[Success] depends upon the unique blend of students, parents, faculty, and administrators involved in it" (p. 178).

Capacity Building for Ongoing Change

In successful schools, educators understand the importance of learning theory and its relationship to their school. They can self-reflect on their own behaviors in relation to theory and dialogue about that relationship while building the appropriate strategies to put theory into

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[1] There are many ways to make this happen at the school and/or the classroom level, and Meier (1998) and Wood (1992) provide numerous suggestions.

practice in their classrooms. They are empowered to do this by administrators who develop structures that help build individual capacity because these administrators understand that it is the sum of the individuals that gives capacity to the organization itself. In the next four sections, I discuss how schools begin to build capacities for (a) engagement in learning, (b) reflection and dialogue, (c) broad repertoires of teaching strategies, and (d) mutual exchanges.

Engagement in Learning. May (1994) asserted that, "teachers, and school communities, more generally, cannot hope to change existing social and cultural arrangements in schooling until they first have the knowledge and vocabulary to be able to mount a credible opposition" (p. 197). Thinking along similar lines, Goodman (1992) stated that his purpose in writing the story of Harmony School was to provide a "language of possibility" (p. 169) to help educators understand theory and imagine and dialogue about what democratic education looks like.

Those administrators who are committed to a democratic vision and helping their staffs achieve the teaching reform needed to bring democracy to their classrooms will build a thirst for knowledge and theory in their schools and continually create opportunities that begin to satisfy that thirst. Creative staffs can envision alternative scheduling arrangements that provide longer blocks of time to teachers who want to meet (e.g., banking time and rearranged schedules to accommodate lengthened lunch hours). Additionally, administrators need to stand sentry to teachers' time guarding them from excessive non-teaching expectations (paperwork, attendance, money collections) and classroom interruptions (announcements, unplanned visitors, and student).

Reflection and Dialogue. Educators need to understand the relationship of their ideology to their teaching and be able to evaluate and reflect upon it (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Schon, 1987). Successful schools are places where educators know how to reflect on their beliefs,

values, and teaching. They know that they do not have all of the answers but instead have the capacity to ask, consider, discuss, agree, examine, disagree, and ultimately reach consensus about the beliefs that drive their daily lives. To cultivate and refine these abilities, they need opportunities for collegial interactions (Fullan, 1991; Little, 1982) that provide stimulation and feedback about the activities of daily school life and how each measures up in the face of individual and school ideology which may, at times, differ.

Broad Repertoires of Teaching Strategies. In successful schools, teachers do not feel compelled to get through every new chapter or piece of information that is added to curriculum. Instead of allowing textbooks to drive their teaching, they develop their own strategies that cultivate and nurture problem solving and critical thinking. Teachers who are empowered and own a vision do not monitor their own teaching based on how much of the curriculum they covered that day and how many minutes of a specific content they transmitted to their students because their administrators are not policing it either. This frees them to explore, observe others, and experiment with alternatives to teacher directed instruction, textbooks, and the ubiquitous worksheets seen at Five Bridges School.

Mutual Exchanges. When a school is engaged in a mutual exchange with its local context, it recognizes the social and cultural backgrounds of its students as cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1993). Leaders, teachers, and organizational structures connect to elicit the maximum benefit from this asset rather than using it as an excuse as might happen in a school with a functionalist perspective. One method of increasing the returns on this resource is to involve it in the school as much as possible. Successful schools not only recognize the benefit of community involvement, but see it as indispensable to the school's success. No longer feeling disenfranchised from the

school, members of the local context commit to its democratic vision and participate in the school's educational program.

Concluding Remarks

As I stated previously, we in educational administration pay insufficient attention to issues of instruction. We need to study leadership as it relates to improving classroom instruction because teaching is the essence of why we are, what we are, and how we act. At the conclusion of their retrospective study, Smith et al. (1987) posed the question,

> Do principals best meet their responsibility to a constituency by steering their school along the quietest, smoothest course, sailing with currents popular at the time? Or should they risk disturbing that steady flow, seeking excellence and innovation to provide an education more suitable to all of their students?

Others have argued that it is not a question of "if" school leaders should disturb the steady flow, but rather "how" if it provides a more suitable education for all students because they have an ethical (Beck & Murphy, 1994; Starratt, 1994) and moral (Foster, 1986b; Greenfield, 1987; Sergiovanni, 1992) obligation to provide leadership that is value based for the good of all (Sergiovanni, 1990) and to act as advocates and activists for their students (Giroux, 1988). Besides reaffirming the importance of leadership to teaching reform, this study demonstrated that leadership in successful schools that are "good" is only one component of an overlap, a gestalt or a union, that cannot be dissolved. In my discussion, I provided several suggestions on how leaders can contribute to the overlap by creating and fostering conditions that lead to development of a vision, one that emerges from an ideology or shared set of beliefs, is democratic, and builds commitment, and by facilitating structures and actions that are congruent with that vision. But

none of this can be done if power within the overlap lacks integrity.

Along with holding a broad vision of democracy, it seems that schools also need to incorporate some form of that vision into the way they use power (Apple & Beane, 1995; Glickman, 1993, 1998; Wood, 1992). School leaders anointed with positional power are in pivotal roles to assure that this occurs. Glickman (1993) states, "It is sometimes hard to understand how Americans have come to believe that public schools commissioned to prepare future citizens for a democracy should not be governed democratically" (p. 102) and that, too often, those who attempt to lead democratically are seen as "entirely wacky" (p. 102). I am not saying that *all* successful schools must be totally collaborative in *all* decisions, but I am saying that there must be integrity in the way those holding power look at all domains of the school and that hierarchical lines between them become more and more obscure. Connectedness of perspectives and power with integrity as constructs should help leaders eliminate the idea of "betweenness" and see the four domains of their school as one.

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