Chapter 4

Leadership

4.1 Eight Leader Behaviors That Increase Motivation, Morale, and Performance...And One That Won't[1]

I was recently visiting with a principal who had asked for my advice. The third-year principal was experiencing staff morale problems and, to make matters worse, had been called to a conference with the superintendent to discuss remedying the problems. In fact, it was a "fix it or else" kind of conference. I felt for the principal. Like most leaders, I had experienced the "morale is the worst it has ever been" syndrome on more than one occasion as a principal. My empathy for this still-neophyte school leader was palpable.

Few staff issues concern leaders more than motivation and morale. They can seem to be present at one moment and then gone the next. Anyone who conducts a culture audit in the late spring understands that the results would have been totally different had the survey been conducted in the fall of the year. Motivation and morale, two formless, shapeless, seemingly simple yet illusively complex internal conditioned emotions, are held in high regard by leader, follower, and employer. But are they really understood? What produces high levels of morale? Can one person reasonably be responsible for the morale of another? What role does professionalism play?

This manuscript will explore the relationship between morale and motivation along with performance and professionalism. It will also explore ways that school leaders can work more effectively in this area of leader expectations.

The history of the culture of teaching, which largely continues unchanged today, is one of professional practice in isolation. Teachers routinely continue to plan in isolation, assess in isolation, and solve problems of practice in isolation. In this model of organized independence, the role of the principal is to assure unfettered isolation from outside forces that might challenge this protected independence (Elmore, 2000). It is an almost unchallenged assumption of the profession that academic freedom to act independently is a primary booster of motivation and morale, and, therefore, of teacher and student performance. As this

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[1] This content is available online at <http://cnx.org/content/m15614/1.1/>.

culture of loosely coupled expectations developed over the years, it did so because it worked at a time when schools, teachers, and principals functioned in a very different environment with a different set of expectations. In an environment where the standard was attendance for all – learning for some, loosely coupled schools could be successful.

Was morale and motivation higher during that time? Consider this from Larry Lezzotte (2006).

Beginning in the late 1980s, on through the '90s and NCLB, teachers and principals have seen the standards and accountability movement as reducing teacher autonomy and professional freedom. To them, this "movement" means they are now told what to do, how to do it, and what the results must be. Furthermore, they see no sign that this trend will reverse or even level off in the near future. This being so, one would predict that teacher professional satisfaction has declined as a result of this movement. Has it?

Surprisingly not, according to the 2006 American Teacher Survey. Teacher satisfaction is at an all time high, with 56% of the teachers surveyed reporting being very satisfied with their careers. In 1986, before the standards and accountability movement was fully underway, as few as 33% of teachers reported being very satisfied. (p. 1)

What might explain this paradox? Looking first at definitions of motivation and moral, Princeton University's WordNet, an online lexical database for the English language, defines motivation as "[T]he psychological feature that arouses an organism to action toward a desired goal; the reason for the action; that which gives purpose and direction to behavior" (WordNet, 2007), and defines morale as "[A] state of individual psychological well-being based upon a sense of confidence and usefulness and purpose" (WordNet, 2007). Clearly, morale and motivation are intrinsically linked. One cannot discuss morale without motivation. Place one in front of the other as in morale produces motivation or reverse the two as in motivation produces morale, and both make perfectly good sense. For the discussion here, they are used not interchangeably but as one intrinsically connected to the other. Regardless of how they are used, the key idea is this: motivation and morale are internal cognitive operations capable of being influenced by the external environment. Performance, then, is a reflection of how motivation and morale are influenced by the external environment.

In revisiting and rethinking issues of motivation, morale, and performance, it is appropriate to consider anew the work of Fredrick Herzberg. Herzberg did his initial research into motivation and performance in the 1960s. In a 1975 article in Harvard Business Review, reprinted in 2003, Frederick Herzberg again addressed the question, "One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?" This continues to be one of Harvard Business Review's most requested reprints. Indeed, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory continues to be a guiding light to all types of organizations.

Herzberg identified six factors he designated as intrinsic motivators or growth factors. They are (in order of most to least motivating) achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. These factors, if present, lead to increased levels of job satisfaction and motivation (Herzberg, 2003).

He identified ten factors that he designated as hygiene factors. They are (in order of most to least effect in causing job dissatisfaction) company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with the supervisor, work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security. These factors, when not present, lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 2003).

Herzberg (2003) offers an important caveat regarding his research. "The findings of these studies, along with corroboration from many other investigations using different procedures, suggest that the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction." In other words, "[t]he opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (p. 6-7).

So how does this translate for the education profession? Educational leaders must once and for all recognize that no matter how much time is spent on policy development, budget management, supervision, principal-teacher collegiality, work conditions, salary, teacher-teacher collegiality, or security, these factors will not produce motivation. People are never managed into increased performance. The best that can be expected is that there will be no job dissatisfaction.

Herzberg (2003) explained this seeming conundrum in terms of basic hygiene. The presence of good hygiene will not make one healthier, but absence can cause health deterioration. The expectation that principals must be good managers is not ill-conceived; however, those expectations only provide a starting

point. With solid management as the starting point, principals must lead the organization so as to provide the framework for increased motivation. In other words, motivated employees require motivated leaders and visionary leadership. However, there is another conundrum – leaders do not cause motivation. Rather, they set the conditions and lead in ways through which followers find their own motivation and morale. What then are ways in which leaders can lead in order to facilitate higher levels of motivation and morale?

First, before leaders can lead others to higher levels of motivation and morale, they identify their own knowledge and beliefs about the role of leadership in organizations. This is the first key leader behavior. Toward this end, leaders should develop a personal leadership platform from which they work. Peter Senge (1990) identifies this as the discipline of personal mastery. Before one can lead others toward a shared vision, a leader must clarify the things that really matter to him. The educational platform provides a foundation for examining one's beliefs, values, and practices about the roles of leader, teacher, and student in the educational process (Sergiovanni, 1983). In other words, leaders must have a profound understanding of their highest aspirations of service to the profession. "What leaders encourage others to do must be congruent with the values they espouse and demonstrate through action" (Norris, 1996). The leadership platform tool typically contains at least three major components to help school leaders achieve personal mastery, but can be expanded to accommodate individual levels of understanding of educational leadership.

1. A personal belief system

Who are you?
   What do you believe about the nature of learning and its relationship to school leadership?
   What do you believe about the nature of students?
   What do you believe about the role of parents?
   What do you believe should be the role of teachers and pedagogy?
2. Current level of understanding of leadership and organizations based on experience and study
   What is your web of connections? Who are the people who have influenced you most profoundly? Why and how do you know what you know?
   What is your plan for developing profound knowledge?
3. Vision for leadership
   How will you lead?
   What will be different about your leadership?
   What legacy will you leave?

The second key leader behavior is that the principal must be the principal-learner and the principal-teacher of all things leadership. Former General Electric CEO, Jack Welch, established the teaching of leadership to others as an expectation for General Electric managers (Tichy, 1998). Becoming an effective school teacher-leader is not achieved simply by sharing in decision-making. In fact, shared decision-making, where the decisions focus on work conditions rather than organizational growth and improvement, will not increase motivation at all. And should the decision-making process have an element of disingenuousness ("The central office said we had to do this, so we are"), then one can expect job dissatisfaction to increase. If teachers are to participate in meaningful organizational improvement, leadership skill development is critical, and the school principal is the appropriate teacher of leadership skills.

The third key leader behavior to improve staff motivation depends on the success of the second. Leaders must affirm and teach the powerful roles that organizational beliefs, vision, and mission play in creating a job culture capable of high levels of motivation. A culture of high motivation and morale follows three important collective agreements: what the organization values (beliefs); what the organization aspires to (vision); and how the organization will go about reaching its aspirations (mission). Unfortunately many principals and teachers see reaching for these important corporate agreements as add-on activities which take away from the time and ability of principals and teachers to do the job at hand. Herzberg would argue that they are the job at hand. "The stimuli for the growth needs [and motivation] are tasks that induce growth ... [T]hey are the job content" (Herzberg, 2003). According to Harvard's Richard Elmore (2000), agreement on what's worth achieving is the precondition for any organizational improvement.

Almost every school is engaged in some kind of improvement process. However, far too many principals are merely caretakers of the status quo rather than leaders of improvement. The process of leading meaningful improvement can be expressed in the formula shown in Figure 1. Click Here to access Figure 1[2] Formula for Meaningful Organizational Improvement. Developed by the author to explain the complexity of organizational change and improvement and to illustrate how the components interact with each other.

Where meaningful and powerful organizational improvement is the norm, people are able to develop their own platforms and achieve their own personal visions within the larger organizational vision.

The fourth important key behavior is that the principal must lead through the reciprocity of accountability. Richard Elmore (2000) describes this philosophy as: "If the formal authority of my role requires that I hold you accountable for some action or outcome, then I have an equal and complementary responsibility to assure that you have the capacity to do what I am asking you to do" (p. 12). If schools are to practice shared leadership or, as Elmore (2000) describes, distributed leadership, the traditional structure of supervision (hygiene factor) must be replaced with a new structure of accountability – one which is built upon individual and collective growth (motivation factor) and thereby inherently satisfaction boosting.

In any organized system, people typically specialize, or develop particular competencies, that are related to their predispositions, interests, aptitudes, prior knowledge, skills, and specialized roles. Furthermore, in any organized system, competency varies considerably among people in similar roles; some principals and teachers, for example, are simply better at doing some things than others, either as a function of their personal preferences, their experience, or their knowledge. Organizing these diverse competencies into a coherent whole requires understanding how individuals vary, how the particular knowledge and skill of one person can be made to complement that of another, and how the competencies of some can be shared with others. In addition, organizing diverse competencies requires understanding when the knowledge and skill possessed by the people within the organization is not equal to the problem they are trying to solve, searching outside the organization for new knowledge and skill, and bringing it into the organization. (p. 14-15)

Fifth, the principal must focus efforts to increase motivation and morale by building collegiality around problems of practice – or as described by Elmore (2000), job content. Collegiality is certainly not a bad thing. However, according to Herzberg (2003), these two relationship factors (teacher-teacher and principal-teacher) simply are not motivators, but are maintainers of hygiene. What then, is one to make of collegiality as a tool of motivation and morale? Researcher Susan Rosenholtz (1986) writes of principal-teacher collegiality.

[C]ollegiality with teachers had no direct effect on school performance, but it did have an indirect effect when mediated by school-level goal setting, as well as teacher recruitment, socialization, and evaluation. In other words, principal collegiality with teachers affects school performance only when it is connected to activities that focus on the school's purposes and that translate those purposes into tangible activities related to teaching. (p. 100)

Rosenholtz's research is supported by that of Robert Marzano who identified staff collegiality as one of the five school-wide factors that most affects student achievement and is under control of the school. Like Rosenholtz, Marzano (2003) points out that staff collegiality is a factor for increasing student achievement only when that collegiality occurs around problems of practice.

Sixth, principals should emulate the actions of successful coaches. Successful coaches come in all shapes, sizes, temperaments, and sexes, but they possess three common factors of success. (1) They possess an overwhelming desire – a burning passion – to coach and they communicate this passion to the athletes they coach. (2) They understand the power of accomplishing short-term goals on the journey to accomplishing a bigger vision. One cannot win a championship without constantly monitoring and adjusting one week at a time. Each game is a problem, a challenge, and an opportunity. The opposition has talents and weaknesses unique to them. Good coaches (those who, some years, have great seasons) execute their game-plan regardless of the competition. The great coaches constantly adjust game-plans in order to get their personnel in the place of optimum potential. (3) Outstanding coaches understand how their athletes are motivated. They understand that power of a pregame pep-talk lasts about as long as it takes to run out of the dressing room. Great coaches eschew the rah-rah mentality like the plague. Instead they focus on communicating high levels of expectations in an environment equally high in individual care and concern for the athletes.

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[2]http://cnx.org/content/m15614/latest/Figure1.pdf

High expectations expressed through a loud, overbearing, kick in the pants attitude adjustment style simply doesn't work. Herzberg says of the KITA (Kick in the Ass) methods,

Why is KITA not motivation? If I kick my dog (from the front or the back), he will move. And when I want him to move again, what must I do? I must kick him again. Similarly, I can charge a person's battery, and then recharge it, and recharge it again. But it is only when one has a generator of one's own that we can talk about motivation. One then needs no outside stimulation. One wants to do it. (p. 4)

One builds Herzberg's generator through high levels of care and concern. Otherwise high expectations are a function of supervision not motivation. But does this work with adults? Sure it does. This is what Herzberg has been saying since 1966.

The seventh leadership skill, which can secure an environment where all staff members develop high levels of morale and motivation, is to recognize that leadership produces significant levels of discomfort among followers. Affirming, not tolerating or diminishing, the discomfort that always accompanies growth is a leadership skill which must be shared, taught, and re-taught. The avoidance of discomforting situations whether dieting, starting a new exercise regime, or learning new pedagogical skills fails too often, not so much from a lack of desire to change, but the unwillingness to experience the growth pains of change. Effective leadership, whether of the individual or shared variety, also comes with a cost. Ronald Heifetz, director of the Leadership Education Project at Harvard University's John F. Kennedy School of Government, says, "Many people have a 'smiley face' view of what it means to lead. They get a rude awakening when they find themselves with a leadership opportunity. Exercising leadership generates resistance – and pain" (Taylor, 1999). Very often that resistance comes from the pursuit of goals currently beyond the organization's ability always to reach them, and this always carries risks of failure. Often schools simply avoid this discomfort of resistance by abandoning the goal using lack of buy-in at the beginning as a convenient excuse not to move forward. In other words, too many people assume that before an organization undertakes significant change, it must have very high levels of staff buy-in. Michael Fullan rejects this idea. He says, "Shared beliefs are a result of action not a precondition for action and because ownership is such a difficultly, forceful leadership at the beginning is critical" (Fullan, 2004). A consequence of forceful leadership is assumed to be, at the least, discomfort among staff members; so is Fullan's idea sound? Anyone who has been a part of a high performing team understands Heifetz and Fullan. The familiarity and even intimacy shared by high performing teams come as a result of hard work toward a meaningful endeavor, not as a precondition for it.

The eighth and final leadership behavior which promotes high levels of motivation and morale is the development of a sense of cultural professionalism throughout the organization in pursuit of common goals. Professionalism is not dependent on the day-to-day fluctuations in motivation and morale, but rather succeeds in spite of them. Consider this scenario. A patient recently discovered that he has the need for immediate heart bypass surgery and visits the most highly rated thoracic surgeon within a hundred miles. The patient is impressed with the surgeon during the preadmission visit and schedules the surgery for the following week. Does the patient check on the surgeon's history of morale issues or conflicts with the hospital administration, the anesthesiologist, or nurses? As he is wheeled into the operating room, will the patient be concerned with the surgeon's morale that day? Not likely. He will put his faith in the surgeon's and nurses' knowledge, skills, experience, and sense of professionalism. The patient assumes that all the motivation needed by the medical staff is the desire to get him healthy again.

Should teaching be any different? Not according to Dr. Larry Rowedder, Superintendent in Residence at the Stupski Foundation. In an interview with Dr. Rowedder on the subject of morale and motivation he said, "Morale is way overrated. The internal emotion that we should pay attention to is professionalism. I don't think we should ignore the effects of morale on performance. We should just adjust our focus more in the direction of professionalism" (L. Rowedder, personal communication, January 20, 2007).

This examination of motivation and morale began with a brief history of the independent nature of the teaching profession and the relationship of independence to notions of increased morale and motivation. Although not specifically revisiting the effects of each of the eight principal behaviors discussed here on the variable of isolation, the behaviors discussed here begin with the leader, but directly affect other staff members in ways consistent with Herzberg's original research. These eight behaviors are certainly not a comprehensive list, and it is the author's hope that others will expand upon the lessons noted here, as

motivation and morale are likely to always be a bright image on the professional radar of principals and teachers. Only as one understands the complexities of motivation, morale, and performance can a leader begin to establish the circumstances through which all professional members of the school community can develop high levels of individual and corporate motivation and morale in pursuit of the vision of learning for all children.

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4.2 Emotional Intelligence: An Overlooked Aspect of Effective Leadership Practices: A Review of the Literature on Desirable Traits, Behaviors and Characteristics for Successful Leadership Promoting Transformational Change[3]
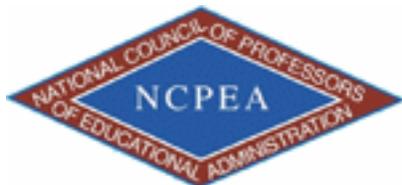
NOTE: This module has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of the Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a scholarly contribution to the knowledge base in educational administration.

Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision or powerful ideas, but the reality is much more primal. Great leadership works through the emotions.

(Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 1)

School leaders are faced with an abundance of issues when they assume a leadership position, second only to high expectations for systemic and transformational change in the school system. Recently, reports have been published questioning the rigor of educational leadership programs offered at universities. Arthur Levine's second report in a series of four criticizes programs which prepare principals and superintendents. (See Education Week, March 16, 2005.) In addition, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, and Cohen (2007) presented in their report, Preparing School Leaders for a Changing World, key components necessary for exemplary principal preparation programs. The recommendations proposed in these reports are valid, but equally important is the balance of training in the area of "emotional intelligence" (EI) for an educational leader's success in becoming a change agent for the improvement of instruction. As defined by Daniel Goleman, EI is the ability to lead, recognizing four emotional areas: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management, each having specific characteristics. These four cluster areas focus on identified traits, behaviors and characteristics of successful leaders. Research has identified additional areas including organizational and management skills, shared values and beliefs, collegiality, and staff building. In each of these areas emotional intelligence is a common theme.

Organization and Management Skills

Organization and management skills have been a focus of research regarding traits, behaviors and characteristics of successful leaders (Covey, 1989; Yukl, 1994). According to Hargreaves and Fullan (1998), principals are "gatekeepers and gate-openers of their schools" (p. 105). It is their opinion the principal of the last decade (1987-1997) "was urged to develop collaborative cultures within schools" and "the principal of the next decade (1998-2008) should be leading the way to redefine collaboration so that it encompasses alliances with groups and individuals outside of the schools" (p. 116). Guidelines for principals have been suggested and include "effective habits" and "desirable qualities." These characteristics, traits and behaviors focus on common sense, management, and organization within a system (Covey, 1989; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Maxwell, 1999). Hargreaves and Fullan provided basic guidelines, specifically "steering clear of false certainty; basing risk on security; respecting those you want to silence; moving towards the danger in forming new alliances; managing emotionally as well as rationally; and fighting for lost causes" (p. 105).

In conjunction with the organizational and management component of an effective leader, the components of emotional reactions, emotional well being, passion, and managing emotionally also have a place in the leader's success (Covey, 1989; Maxwell, 1999; Tichy, 1997; Yukl, 1994). The authors contend that successful

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[3]This content is available online at <http://cnx.org/content/m15615/1.2/>.

leaders need to be cognizant not only of their own emotional well being but also of others'. Leaders need to manage emotionally and rationally. Asking employees how they feel, showing how the leader feels, asking for help, demonstrating empathy, and talking to people are examples of this emotional connectedness (Covey, 1989; Maxwell, 1999; Tichy, 1997; Yukl, 1994). "Managing emotionally means putting high priority on reculturing your school and its relationship to what's out there, and not merely restructuring it" (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998, p. 118). Successful leaders recognize the importance of emotional reactions from the followers (Tichy, 1997; Yukl, 1994). These emotional reactions are defined as the charismatic leadership theory. Yukl (1994) writes, "Charismatic theories acknowledge the importance of symbolic behavior and the role of the leader in making events meaningful for followers" (p. 339).

Another view of leadership includes a sharing of a set of fundamentals. These fundamentals incorporate taking responsibility for the mentoring of other leaders, developing teachable points of view in emotional energy and edge, sharing living stories, and serving as effective role models. According to Tichy (1997) leaders "deliberately generate positive emotional energy in others. And they demonstrate and encourage others to demonstrate edge, which is the ability to face reality and make tough decisions" (p. 3). The role of the principal has become complex. Fullan (2000) states, "Leaders moving their staff toward external dangers in a world of diversity cannot invite disagreement without attending to their own emotional health" (p. 160). This statement reinforces the need for the principals' ability to recognize the emotional aspect of their role. Principals who manage emotionally "have a strong task focus, expect anxiety to be endemic in school reform, but invest in structure and norms that help contain anxiety" (p. 161).

Maxwell (1999) discusses four truths about passion and its relationship to effective leaders. He contends passion is the first step toward achievement; passion increases your willpower; passion changes you; passion allows you to become a more dedicated and productive person. "A leader with great passion and few skills always out performs a leader with great skills and no passion" (p. 85). Belief in passion can be summarized with the following thought by Maxwell (1999):

If passion is not a quality in your life, you're in trouble as a leader. The truth is that you can never lead something you don't care passionately about. You can't start a fire in your organization unless one is first burning in you. (p. 86)

It is noted that empathic listening and development of the emotional connection is risky. Covey (1989) states, "You become vulnerable. It's a paradox, in a sense, because in order to have influence, you have to be influenced. That means you have to really understand" (p. 243). Empathic listening takes time and "whatever investment of time it takes to do that will bring much greater returns of time as you work from an accurate understanding of the problems and issues from the high Emotional Bank Account that results when a person feels deeply understood" (p. 253).

Shared Values and Beliefs

Principals' interactions with teachers are critical in developing the connectedness for successful leadership. There is the necessity for leaders to have teachers connect with shared community values, ideas, and ideals. In addition to these shared values, there needs to be a commitment to communicate those values with the teachers. Although challenging, an effective leader can accomplish these tasks despite the complexity of the identified areas of importance (Deal & Peterson, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1996; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

Deal and Peterson (1994) state, "Values are communicated in everything a school leader does, writes, and speaks. Consistency in behavior and connection to convictions about student learning and growth serve to mold core values as well as to encourage progress" (p. 86). Furthermore, Deal and Peterson point out that effective leaders view their role from both the technical and symbolic point of view. "Technical problems require the analytical, rational problem-solving capabilities of a well-organized manager. Symbolic dilemmas require the sensitive, expressive touch of an artistic and passionate leader. Tomorrow's principal in our view will be asked to be a combination of both - or to spot and empower others who can provide the managerial efficiency or the leadership energy and vision the principal cannot" (p. 113). Teachers need to be motivated by emotions and beliefs as well as self-interest and collegiality. Past research has placed far more emphasis on what leaders do and not enough on the aspect of communication. This overlooked aspect of leadership is recognized by the overemphasis on leadership objectives, outcomes, and measurable leadership effectiveness (Deal & Peterson, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1982).

Sergiovanni (1996) states, "In order for a principal to build this professional community, the leader needs to create teacher group strategies that give high priority to conversation and dialogue among teachers" (p. 142). Communication has an emotional connection described best by Sergiovanni (1992) as the theory of the head, heart and hand of leadership. According to Sergiovanni, the hand of leadership is the "decisions, actions, and behaviors of the leader" (p. 8). "The heart of leadership is what a person believes, values, dreams about, and is committed to - the person's personal vision…it is the person's interior world, which becomes the foundation of her or his reality" (p. 7).

Research indicates desirable leadership qualities are consistently not related to any one style, personality, gender, or ethnicity. A principal's skill in the area of human relations, decision-making, control of subordinates and conflict resolution are indicators of leadership traits and behaviors. Effective leaders will support and encourage staff to model behaviors promoting collegiality and a professional working environment. This leadership is based on wisdom and is grounded in principles that bring out the best in people (Boleman & Deal, 2002; Bulach, Michael, & Boothe, 1999; Sokolow, 2002). Focus, passion, wisdom, courage, and integrity are additional qualities. Great leaders have an internal compass and are leaders with a vision. Passionate leaders care deeply about their work and making a difference. Wise leaders learn from their experiences, not only the successes but also the failures. It is the courage of a leader that allows a person to forge ahead not always having the correct information or a clear path. It is the quality of integrity that inspires trust and loyalty (Boleman & Deal, 2002).

Sokolow (2002) identified eight principles of enlightened leadership: intention, attention, unique gifts, gratitude, life lessons, holistic perspective, openness and trust. "Becoming more conscious of these principles and moving them to the forefront of our awareness will help us exercise sound judgment as we, as leaders, meet the challenges we face as we strive to shape a better and brighter future for our youth" (Sokolow, 2002).

In addition, purposing, maintaining harmony, institutionalizing values, motivating, managing, explaining, enabling, modeling, and supervising are nine tasks identified as key components for the development of an effective leader. Another quality is self-understanding. Effective principals must not only know themselves, but are also true to themselves (Hausman, Crow, & Sperry, 2000; Sergiovaanni, 1996). Hausman, Crow, and Sperry (2000) contend, "Their actions are congruent with their values." The authors continue stressing the need for the leader to understand their needs and emotions as well as their strengths and limitations. "The ideal principals must focus intensely on their interpersonal skills, capacity to read and adjust to the environment, and the ability to understand and cope with far ranging issues. They must be politically astute, prepared to adjust their leadership styles, and ethically grounded" (Hausman, Crow & Sperry, 2000).

Collegiality and Staff Building

Learning experiences for principals cannot just reinforce old "platitudes" of being effective, but must encourage principals to question their practices and attempt change. At times leadership is viewed as a mysterious and elusive concept. The challenge is for individuals to look inward to achieve effective leadership (Chopra, 2002; Evans & Mohr, 1999). Effective leaders possess an approach defined as "soft management." Soft management principles consist of explaining the real reason behind your tough decisions - in person; taking the heat for your own viewpoint; letting people confront the source of their difficulties; and opening yourself up to employees' emotions. It is the belief that communicating a weakness builds solidarity between followers and leaders (Goffee & Jones, 2000; Peace, 2001).

Marzano (2003) highlights three principles for effective leaders. The first revolves around the principal functioning as a strong cohesive force; the second is to provide strong guidance while demonstrating respect; and the third principle is characterized by specific behaviors which enhance interpersonal relationships. Principle three further establishes three characteristics of importance: optimism, honesty, and consideration. Optimism increases teachers' self-esteem and motivation. "Honesty is characterized by truthfulness and consistency between words and actions" (p. 177). Consideration "is sometimes referred to as a people orientation or a concern for people" (p. 178). Honesty and consideration both help build interpersonal relationships. These three characteristics require development and must be acted upon for effective leadership.

Goffee and Jones (2000) theorize that leaders need vision and energy. "But to be inspirational, leaders need four other qualities. Probably not what you expect, these qualities can be honed by almost anyone willing to dig deeply into their true selves" (p. 19). Their research observed four unexpected qualities shared

by inspirational leaders: leaders selectively show their weakness; they rely heavily on intuition to gauge the appropriate timing and course of their actions; they manage employees with something they called tough empathy; and they reveal their differences (Goffee & Jones, 2000). Their research indicates all four qualities were needed for a leader to be truly inspirational. Inspirational leaders mix and match these qualities to define their individual style. An approach defined as "tough empathy" is what Goffee and Jones (2000) view real leaders as possessing. "Tough empathy means giving people what they need, not what they want" (p. 24). Tough empathy balances respect for the individual and for the task. Tough empathy also provides the benefit of "impelling leaders to take risks" (p. 24). As noted by Goffee and Jones (2000) leaders who use tough empathy really care about something. When people care about something, they show their true self. Leaders communicate authenticity, which is the prediction for leadership, and they show what they are doing (Goffee & Jones, 2000). Finally, Goffee and Jones' (2000) research also provides data of what can be categorized as four common myths about inspirational leaders. These myths included the following: (1) everyone cannot be a leader, (2) leaders cannot always deliver business results, (3) people who get to the top are not necessarily leaders, and (4) leaders are rarely great coaches. According to Goffee and Jones, these aforementioned traits are identifiable characteristics of successful leaders. The following terminology is used when describing characteristics of leaders: vision, enabling, encouraging, inspiring, empowering, awareness, honesty, integrity, taking risks and taking action. Research indicates any of these characteristics or combination drives an effective leader (Chopra, 2002; Kets de Vires, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

Leadership qualities were researched by Kouzes and Posner (2002) through case study analysis and questionnaires. They identified five practices common to effective leadership. Their findings resulted in the following identifiers: modeling the way; inspiring a shared vision; challenging the process; enabling others to act; and encouraging the heart. In order for people to know their leaders, leaders in return must know their values and have a clear understanding of these values. Kouzes and Posner (2002) state:

Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan....Leaders inspire a shared vision.... It is necessary for leaders to understand their people....people must believe that leaders understand their needs, and have their interest at heart (p. 15).

Emotional Intelligence

In an interview, Manfred F. R. Kets de Vries (2004) was asked how he identified effective leaders. His response focused on the emotional intelligence of a person. Kets de Vries clarified emotional intelligence as the self-reflection in a person. He refers to emotional intelligence as the "teddy bear factor." Leaders should make people feel comfortable and develop a relationship in which they want to be close to the leader. "Emotionally intelligent leaders tend to make better team players, and they are more effective at motivating themselves and others" (Kets de Vries, 2004).

According to Cherniss (2000), (as cited in Salovey & Mayer, 1990), Salovey and Mayer used the term emotional intelligence "as a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action."

Goleman and his colleagues examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective performance, especially in leaders. They observed to what degree emotional intelligence manifests itself in the work place. Goleman's (1998) research was designed to determine which personal capabilities drove outstanding performance. He grouped the skills into three categories: technical skills, cognitive skills, and competencies demonstrating emotional intelligence. His data revealed dramatic results. Goleman states, "My analysis showed that emotional intelligence played an increasingly important role at the highest levels of the company" (p. 94). As the research continued, the four areas of emotional intelligence were defined: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Summarized by Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, "These EI competencies are not innate talents, but learned abilities, each of which has a unique contribution to making leaders more resonant, and therefore more effective" (p. 38). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) contend that self-aware leaders understand values, goals and dreams as well as awareness for self-reflection and thoughtfulness. Great leaders recognize intuition or the "gut feeling."

As documented by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) "from self-awareness - understanding one's emotions and being clear about one's purpose - flows self-management, the focused drive that all leaders need to achieve their goals" (p. 45). The authors compare self-management to an ongoing inner conversation. "It's what allows the mental clarity and concentrated energy that leadership demands, and what keeps disruptive emotions from throwing us off track. Leaders with such self-mastery embody an upbeat, optimistic enthusiasm that tunes resonance to the positive range" (p. 46).

Another component of emotional intelligence is social awareness, or as the authors describes it "empathy." "Of all the dimensions of emotional intelligence, social awareness may be the most easily recognized" (p. 49). As established by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) "empathy means taking employees' feelings into thoughtful consideration and then making intelligent decisions that work those feelings into the response" (p. 50). The authors take this thought one step further by stating, "When leaders are able to grasp other people's feelings and perspectives, they access a potent emotional guidance system that keeps what they say and do on track. As such, empathy is the sine qua non of all social effectiveness in working life" (p. 50).

Relationship management is the final component of emotional intelligence. "Relationship management is friendliness with a purpose: moving people in the right direction, whether that's agreement on a marketing strategy or enthusiasm about a new project" (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002, p. 51). The authors define authenticity as acting from one's genuine feelings. "Once leaders have attuned to their own vision and values, steadied in the positive emotional range, and tuned into the emotions of the group, then relationship management skills let them interact in ways that catalyze resonance" (p. 51).

Click Here to access Figure 1[4]

(Adapted from information: Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee, 2002, pp.253-256)

Figure 1 displays the conceptual framework for EI, based on the research of Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) and their theory of emotional intelligence. "Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and the feelings of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions effectively in ourselves and others. An emotional competence is a learned capacity based on emotional intelligence that contributes to the effective performance at work" (Hay Group, 2002). Included in Figure 1 are the four areas of emotional intelligence that have been identified for effective leadership as well as the competencies.

Summary

"My primary role as an EI theorist has been to propose a theory of performance that builds on the EI model, adapting it to predict personal effectiveness at work and in leadership."

(Goleman, 1998)

Emotional intelligence characteristics have been recognized as positive attributes in effective leaders. The characteristics are attributes associated with success and the frequency of the "emotional" trait was strong, as cited by Kouzes and Posner, (2002) Maxwell, (1999) and Sergiovanni (1992). The question remains, how do we prepare and mentor future administrators for success in leading transformational change in our school system? As defined in the Standards for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership (2002), Standard 4.0 states, "Candidates who complete the program are educational leaders who have the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students by collaborating with families and other community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources" (p. 9). The clusters, competencies and attributes defined by emotional intelligence directly relate to the three elements presented in this standard. In order for collaboration, response and mobilization to occur, self-reflection on the part of the leader is the starting point for successful relationships within the school community. To promote success for all students, leaders must become acquainted with the areas related to emotional intelligence and the competencies necessary to be successful.

Educational leadership programs should include emotional intelligence theory as a component for reform. Programs have been focusing on the development of course content; the time has come to embrace the research on emotional intelligence and provide a balanced approach. As Dewey advocated the teaching of the "whole child" for maximum gains, so should programs for leadership include the social, emotional, intellectual and physical components. It is through the combination of these focused areas that transference of meaningful change will take place in our schools.

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[4]http://cnx.org/content/m15615/latest/figure1EI.pdf

Strong leadership development processes are focused on emotional and intellectual learning and they build on active participatory work: action learning and coaching, where people used what they're learning to diagnose and solve real problems in their organizations.

(Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 234.)

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[5] http://www/westga.edu/~sclimate/lsp.htm

[6] http://www.eiconsortium/

[7] http://haravardbusinessonline.hbsp.harvard.edu/b01/en/hbr/hbrsa/current/0401/arti

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4.3 Emotional, Social and Personality Development[8]

- In various studies, acceleration and deceleration in the aggressive behavior of nursery school children was shown to be linked to either positive or negative reinforcing reactions of other children. Positive reinforces for aggression were not approval or attention but crying, passivity, and defensiveness of the victim.[9]
- In other studies, the ability of a child to acquire friends was limited by coercive socialization in the family and peer group – acquired friends were likely to be aggressive and antisocial as well.[10] Among those children, communication with friends likely emphasizes deviant behavior[11] to involve conflict and assertiveness – this leads to acceleration of troublesome, antisocial behavior.

Obviously, emphasis and promotion of certain qualities will lead to those qualities developing over time. Over time certain characteristics or personality traits develop - they do so dependent on the age, special population, and environment of the person. So those studies were examples of how emotional development works. Because children talk to their friends about bullying, they become bigger bullies themselves. It is almost like they are consciously and deliberately forming their own development. Also, what comes along with becoming bigger bullies, is learning how to be good at bullying, almost a bullying competency. Such a thing is hard to measure, so my point is that the activities which lead to development become an integral part of the person and influences other aspects of their personality. Bullying might have the effect of making both the bully and the abused tougher as people, because they are exposed to harsh emotions and become more resilient because of that. Unless a bully constantly feels bad about what he/she did in the past, or the abused forever reflects in sadness on the bullying, the experience is probably going to be something for both parties to learn and develop from. Exposure to more emotion is probably going to lead to more development as long it doesn't hinder the person. People can grow (or have their personality traits change) from all types of emotion and experience.

- Piaget had the idea that children advanced more cognitively from conflict interactions with peers than with conflict interactions with adults. Children generally accept that adults have greater knowledge about the world than they do, and so yield to the adults point of view. In contrast, peer interaction forces children to coordinate or restructure their own views.[12]

Because children are at a similar intellectual and emotional level as other children, their confidence and smoothness in interacting is probably going to be higher. Also, similar interests and physical development would lead to greater identification. Kids could view adults to see how they can improve, and with children their own age they can identify and become more comfortable with themselves.

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[8]This content is available online at <http://cnx.org/content/m33455/1.4/>.

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- In a volume titled "Identity: Youth and Crisis"[13] Erik Erikson asserted that close relationships with others are not possible until identity development is complete, because intimacy requires knowing and sharing the self.

I think that it makes sense that as self identity develops, relations with others will improve. Not necessarily that identity development needs to be complete – children of all ages can form close relationships even though they haven't fully developed yet. If animals like dogs can form close relationships, then young children shouldn't have a problem doing it even though they might not be strong in their identity.

- Three psychoanalytic writers - Harry Stack Sullivan, Peter Blos and Erik Erikson asserted that intimacy, empathy and loyalty in peer relationships emerge mainly in the second decade of life.

In order for close relationships involving empathy, intimacy and loyalty to occur, it makes sense that children would need to be confident with who they are first because without confidence it would be hard to be confident experiencing intimate emotions. Those emotions involve a sense of security that isn't present unless someone is confident in who they are. It is possible to be close to someone, like how animals can be close to people, but to experience real intimacy, empathy and loyalty a much larger amount of development would need to occur.

- A "behavior system" is a partnership whereby the individual is empathic to the needs and feelings of the partner, and functions to maintain ties between an individual and his or her partners. There are four types of systems believed to dominate interpersonal relationships –attachment, caretaking, affiliative and sexual/reproductive. In the early years the attachments system dominates parent-child relations but in adolescence it functions reconfigured and less prominently in peer and romantic relationships. The affiliative system includes play, cooperation, collaboration and reciprocity is present in initial parent-child relations but later dominates relations between childhood peers.[14] Romantic relationships in adolescence incorporate all four systems.

It is important how the people in relationships view these types of attachments. Someone could become more selfish in a relationship simply by considering the other person as contributing everything in the relationship, instead of viewing the relationship as reciprocal. There is an overlap and similarity between the types of attachment. For instance you could compare an affiliative relationship to a caretaking relationship, and learn from that that maybe even in play there is caretaking. Emotionally there might also be a large overlap, it might feel like a romantic relationship is like a friendship even though you would label the relationship as a romantic one.

- In the first weeks of life, infants can notice each other and respond to cries.
- 6 month olds can touch each other and toys held by peers.[15]
- Conflicts over toys and intrusions on physical space emerge in the last quarter of the first year of life.[16]
- By the end of the first year of life infants can communicate, share, participate in conflict, and form friendships. They can look at, gesture toward, and touch their peers. They can share things of interest with peers by pointing out, showing, and offering objects other children.[17] Infants at the end of the first year can participate in shared activities (spontaneous games) where distinctive actions (rolling a ball or hitting blocks together) in sequence, and alternating turns.[18]

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How does interaction in the first year of life contribute to the infants development? The conflicts over toys and intrusions on physical space in the last quarter of the first year is significant because it shows that infants are actively engaged with other infants. They are aware enough of their space and other people to feel intruded if their space is endangered. That means they have developed some sort of ego and attitude towards other infants – which must mean that the infants invoke noticeable emotion in each other in order to stimulate a response. The response to cries in the first weeks of life is the beginning of interaction, they begin to notice each other a little then. By 6 months they engage more heavily by touching each other and the other infants toys. Those interactions help to develop and form the infants sense of self, which would cause them to want to defend their space by the last quarter of the first year. By the end of the first year then, they must become cognitively aware of their peers (gesture toward and touch their peers) and cognitively aware of how to participate in trivial games (alternating turns) at the same time. The experience in play before teaches them so they become more intellectual and aware (cognitive) and become capable of more advanced games which involve knowledge and awareness of cooperation (such as alternating turns), and just more advanced games with distinctive actions (like rolling a ball or hitting blocks together).

- During around the pre-school years, it is theorized that play provides a forum for children's self-regulation and emotion regulation. It was theorized early that play can reestablish homeostasis by helping to deplete surplus or replenish expended energy.[19],[20] It was suggested by later theorists that play modulates arousal associated with excessively high or low levels of stimulation.[21] Freud suggested that play could be a medium for children to reconstruct and gain mastery over emotionally arousing experiences.[22] That idea is important in the study of the development of children's emotion regulation, which is a set of skills that help people to modify, monitor and evaluate their emotions to produce behavior that is adaptive for situations.[23] Self-regulation is an important skill in the promotion of positive peer interactions.[24] Play can help children master situations that involve intense emotional arousal, and help children regulate emotions and that can help reduce anxiety.

Importance: Emotion regulation is similar to regulation of energy states (excitement or arousal) because excitement and arousal are similar to and related to emotions. If someone is very happy, that is likely to contribute to excitement or arousal. So emotion regulation is similar to generic self-regulation. Emotion regulation must be developed at some point, and it makes sense that it is developed when children are first exposed to large amounts of emotion, which is likely to be during preschool play, where they have more increased cognitive, social, language, and social-cognitive skills than before. Those skills help contribute to more emotion being generated because they provide sources of emotion. Language adds a lot of things to get emotional about. A child isn't as likely to get excited as much being with his parents not playing. Emotion regulation is an important part of how people experience emotions. If you gain insight into your emotions from emotion regulation, your emotional experiences might be increased because you are more aware. Developing emotions in the preschool years contributes to how children feel and master emotions. In fact, play in those years is similar to adult interactions, it involves many of the ups and downs and uses similar cognitive abilities. It is like life is being experienced in greater depth, and these experiences form the starting point of feeling. With feeling comes emotion regulation, it is hard to have one without the other.

Describing Relationships

Hinde[25] (1979) suggested that many of the things that seem to be important about relationships could be classified into ten categories of dimensions (below). They move from properties of the interactions to those of the relationship as a whole, and from primarily behavioral to primarily subjective issues.

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1. *The content of the interactions* - This refers to the things the participants do together. Most sociological types of relationships are defined by the behaviors involved (the type of relationship e.g. doctor-patient, teacher-pupil, lover) Friendship and kin relationships are obvious exceptions, in that in our culture they are not identified by what the participants actually do together, but by aspects of quality, intimacy, interpersonal perception, commitment, etc.

2. *The diversity of types of interaction within the relationship* - The more things two individuals do together, the more aspects of their personalities are exposed; the more experience is shared.

3. *The qualities of the interactions* - For example, did the participants communicate constructively, competitively, loudly, softly, etc? Analysis of speech and nonverbal communication will provide data here. This is subjective, what someone might think of the quality of an interaction might or might not be a good relationship, this judgement could vary over time, between individuals, and between cultures.

4. *The relative frequency and patterning of interactions*- The extent to which interactions of different sorts or qualities are present; properties derived from the frequency of interactions relative to the frequency with which each partner attempts to initiate them (sometimes people try to ask to do something but it doesn't actually happen); the relations between differenct kinds of interactions, (the structure of the relationship) such as controlling, permisive, etc, and the patterning of interactions over time.

5. *The reciprocity vs. complementary nature of the interactions* - Reciprocal interactions are those in which the two partners do similar things, such as play the same sport; complementary interactions are those in which they do different things, but those things complement each other. Most close relationships involve a complicated mixture of reciprocal and complementary interactions.

6. *Power and autonomy*- Power and autonomy are complementary, if one increases in one partner the other is likely to decrease in the other partner. One partner could have power over the other if they can influence the consequences or impact of the other persons behavior. Frequently one partner would show power in some content areas while the other in different ones. The amount of power asserted can be measured and assessed (for instance persuasion vs. command). A power differential can be perceived differently be each partner, it can be seen as desirable by both or not. However, well-meaning moves towards closeness by one partner may be seen as constraining and decreasing the autonomy of the other. Lack of agreement or acceptance of where power lies leads to conflict.

7. *Intimacy-the extent to which the participants reveal themselves (emotionally, cognitively, and physically) to each other*- Intimacy requires the discloser to feel understood, validated, and care for and is thus related to trust. However intimacy has its limits as it may be important to maintain area of privacy.

8. *Interpersonal perception* This category includes things such as "Does A see B as B really is?" "Does A see B as B sees B, i.e., does A understand B?" "Does B feel that A sees B as B sees B, i.e., does B feel understood?" Feeling understood implies understanding at a deeper level and includes an interpretation of the verbal conversations the people have for a more true understanding (such that would lead to a "feeling understood" feeling. Also important is how the participants see the relationship, and also how they see the world, if they see it in a similar fashion they could be closer.

9. *Commitment*.- Do the partners strive to ensure the continuation of the relationship or improve its quality? Does each see the other as committed?

10. *Satisfaction*- Do the participants perceive the relationship as close to their ideal or preferable to alternative relationships?

I can express the above list in a more concise way that will show more effectively the properties of a relationship. Relationships are intimate, however there is power and autonomy involved. People have similarities and do similar things, or they do opposing things and are different. People might have expectations of satisfaction and an idea of what an ideal relationship might be like. That might influence commitment, if it isn't satisfying they are less likely to be motivated for commitment. This is likely to also be related to interpersonal perception, one person might view the other as poor or not the way they are because they want to see things their way. Maybe they find it interesting to see the person in a variety of ways, if a person was single faceted there wouldn't be any strong basis for commitment. Perception is very complicated, people don't just see someone completely accurately immediately or even after a long period of time. If they did

see them accurately there wouldn't be any room for growth and change and dynamics. If you have problems in the relationship resulting from improper perception it could add a lot of content to the relationship. One person could want to see themselves as strong and the other as weak, causing a chaotic interaction which could prove interesting. The other person could constantly be trying to prove themselves. That is one way to put pressure on and provide one type of satisfaction. Or if they saw the person in a overly good light maybe that would influence how they feel and they'd feel good about the person because they think are very good, better than they actually are. Maybe the entire perception dynamic of all the persons traits is confused and their relationship is just a mess. Having things to work on adds content. Maybe the content, diversity, and quality of their interactions is perceived completely wrong as well.

Principles of dynamics

The next issue concerns the processes at work in the dynamic flux that every relationship entails. The processes can be understood at three levels- external influences on the relationship, the interchanges between the participants, and the internal processes that occur in each person.

1. *The social context*- The issue here involves social influences on the development of personality, the influence of third parties on relationships, and the dialectical relations with the sociocultural structure (how society communicates with groups, which could communicate to relationships, etc.)
2. *Processes of exchange and interdependence involving resources of various types.* There is an emphasis on the interdependence between partners, and on the manner in which an individual may include the partner in defining his or her goals and rewards. What is considered "fair" may differ based on the type of relationship, and "fairness" may not matter between close friends or kin. There are various types of resources that can be exchanged such as money, services, goods, status, information, and love. Obviously love should be placed in another category than the material ones. There is probably a lot you could say about each of those.
3. *Processes of positive and negative feedback*- Certain patterns of resource exchange (or interaction over a long term) may lead to increasing closeness or distance in the relationship.

4.4 Identity Crisis: A Leader's Image is Worth a Thousand Words[26]

NOTE: This module has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and sanctioned by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of education administration. In addition to publication in the Connexions Content Commons, this module is published in the International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, [27] Volume 4, Number 3 (July - September, 2009). Formatted and edited in Connexions by Theodore Creighton, Virginia Tech.

4.4.1 Introduction

In reference to transformational leadership theory there is a powerful communication part at work with every leader; yet, generally speaking, that part may go unappreciated and unexplored in the training and practice of educational administrators. In this report of this research study the author articulates, in subsection

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[26]This content is available online at <http://cnx.org/content/m26728/1.1/>.

[27]http://ijelp.expressacademic.org

Transformational Leaders are Stewards of Recognizable Vision, that training is needed for educators, particularly for a new way of thinking toward communication; and that a mindset may be preventing educators' development as transformational leaders. Subsections Transformational Leadership Theory and Identity – A Micropolitical Portal to Understanding the author delineates that the training of transformational leaders should encourage a mindset for administrators to communicate expectations of their audiences through the leader's identity; this is a key to effective communication, transforming abstract information into concrete terms through the identity. The savvy leader embodies the values and beliefs of his or her target audiences as a concrete heroic stereotype. Furthering the cause for training, the data collection subsection titled Identity Crisis: Leaders Missing out on an Effective Communication Tool indicates that participants in the author's study didn't know or express interest in how their target audiences identified them. In addition, participants incorrectly ranked a variety of creative and effective communication techniques, such as storytelling, as ineffective; hence, an indication that preservice and inservice training in communication may be beneficial.

4.4.2 Methodology

Through practice and research the author became intrigued as to how and why some educational leaders' intended vision/mission and subsequent identities became lost or misunderstood. At the same time, communication from leaders in various other fields seemed effortless, yet powerfully effective. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to explore the phenomenon of communication and if the perceived void in communication dynamics of educational leaders may be the result of insufficient training for administrators.

4.4.2.1 Statement of the Problem

This study is intended to identify creative communication practices recommended by educational leaders to articulate (send) their vision and to have their vision and/or mission received.

4.4.2.2 Method and Instrumentation

The author's study is a non-experimental naturalistic study in the behavioral sciences, which works with such intangibles as attitudes, emotions and personalities. Since qualitative design facilitates small numbers of subjects and emerging new concepts grounded theory is employed, which indicates this study is qualitative. Study reliability is enhanced by employing a constant in a singular instrument; i.e., standardized open-ended interview and survey, with four questions with the exact wording and sequencing of questions for both instruments. Question five of the questionnaire and survey has 12 attributes in communication that participants rank in four categories such "very effective" to "not at all effective"; those results are provided in tables A, B and C.

4.4.2.3 Data and Limitations

Data were collected for the study during spring and summer of 2007 from three school districts in a suburban region of a metropolitan area in the southwestern United States. Criteria for districts selected in the study were based on the majority of schools within districts having state learning label rankings as "excelling or "highly performing". Forty-one subjects participated in this study: three superintendents, nine school board members and 29 principals. Fifty-one percent of participants were female. Eighty three percent of the participants described themselves as experienced in mid-career, while 17 percent represented themselves as new and in their early career. Ninety-three percent of participants were White and seven percent Hispanic.

Limitations inherent in this study may include attaining approximately 50 percent of the anticipated 70 percent of the response rate of the population canvassed. This means that the non-respondents may or may not be systematically different from the respondents on the target variables.

4.4.3 Transformational Leadership Theory

The theoretical framework for this study is transformational leadership theory, otherwise known as charismatic leadership theory or social entrepreneurship (Purdue, 2001). According to Aldoory & Toth (20004) and Mackenzie, Podsacoff and Rich (2001), transformational leadership theory is the most widely used, widely studied and positively effective leadership theory. The skill-set characteristic for these leaders is proficiency in articulating their vision and/or missions verbally, and particularly nonverbally, for resonance and change in followers as described by Axelsson, Kullen-Engstrom and Edgren (2000) and Bennis (2007). Transformational leaders create trust and enthusiasm to motivate followers to change or persevere through dark times by appealing to and sharing in their high ideals, moral values and optimism about the future (Burns, 1978; Mackenzie et al. 2001). There is an assumed promise that followers somehow will be transformed by the leader's vision and/or mission, becoming somewhat a spiritual product of the leader's collaborative purpose with which they have identified and internalized. For example, Senge (1990) states that shared vision is not an idea but rather a force in people's hearts. The adoration of Nelson Mandela and the slave gladiator Spartacus was not due to their status as people but rather as icons or symbols of liberation and autonomy – core values – with which their followers identified. The transformational leader's personal integrity is critical in the process of leading by example – walking the talk – according to Burns (1978), Mackenzie et al. (2001) and Wendt & Fairhurst (1994). The transformational leader is always visible and his or her attitudes and actions model proper behavior to everyone else. Mackenzie et al. (2001); Bass, (1995) and Popper (2004) state that the transformational leader becomes an image, identity or an appropriate role model to guide and symbolize expected values and behaviors of followers; essentially crafting a vision, which is a symbolic process of lacing the message with metaphors, stories and other colorful emotional language, according to Aldoory & Toth (2004); Axelsson et. al. (2000); and Hoy & Miskel (2001).

Deal (1985) as cited in Hoy & Miskel (2001) asserted that principals of effective schools take up the hero or heroine role that embodies core values. Takala (1998) describes the transformational style of leadership as "symbolic leading" evoking patterns of meaning by creating symbolic reality (p. 796). Hoy & Miskel stress that leaders are managers of meaning who exhibit "inspirational, visionary and symbolic or less rationalistic aspects of behavior" (2001p.409); for example:

- "Leaders are managers of meaning" (p.409)
- "Meaning is transferred symbolically" (p.185)
- "Leadership is a symbolic activity" (p.437)

4.4.4 Identity - Micropolitical Interpretive Portals to Understanding

To help the administrator conceive of the transformational leadership mindset that may assist in sharpening his or her sending skills, there is a field of literature consistent with transformational leadership theory, which pertains to the perceptive processes in communication. Exposure to this field may help leaders in examining their sending and receiving skills methodology through theories such as Interactionist Labeling Theory (ILT), Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Symbolic Interactionism (SI). From a social/emotional psychological perspective noted sociologists Mead, Blumer and Homas, for example, describe in these theories that people's responses to things are not made directly but rather based on the meaning they ascribe to those things; interpretations made based on the meaning that they attach to one another's actions (Blumer, 1969). On a large scale, for example, Carl's Jr. and In-N-Out Burger advertise in red and yellow because these primary colors are believed to generate hunger in people by symbolically representing ketchup and mustard. Nicknames and other symbolisms such as metaphor and rituals are representative as well and central to ILT, SET and SI, which is at issue in this study; they act as micropolitical interpretive portals to understanding. Micropolitical portals are a communicating part or area of an organism (Mish et al., 2002). In other words, within the context of this article a micropolitical portal is the leader's identity.

For example, Fortado (1998) conducted a study exploring the significance of nicknames in workplace environments as well as the effects of epithets within those environments. The study was based on six case scenario field observations and interviews. Fortado explained that little analytical attention has been focused

on workplace nicknames because nicknames were ubiquitous and had a seemingly silly nonsensical nature. However, through his study Fortado determined that nicknames should be thought of as key symbols that unlock many meanings. Fortado cautioned that derogatory nicknames can reform a targeted person's image so deleteriously that functioning becomes difficult and can even cause a loss of credibility and employment. Fortado illustrates that an eighth grade public school house administrator was let go due to perceptions that such nicknames represented for him. Teachers called the administrator a "pussycat" because he lacked assertiveness while students called a group of female peers whom the administrator was perceived to favor as "the Bosettes". The house administrator's name was Mr. Bosley, and he was well liked by many students but not respected by staff and a segment of the student body since his behavior didn't appear professional or appropriate. Mr. Bosley's critics suggested he was a pedophile, although proof of the allegations wasn't known.

Fortado posits that people in power become the butt of jokes and sarcasm. Subordinates enjoy the tension release that comes with socially reforming or denigrating their superior's image. "Names are thus a core part of a person's identity and often have a status associated with them" (p.14). Monikers serve as sign posts delimiting boundaries and framework, or, in other words, expectations. Epithets can be used positively as a sign of intimacy based on gaffes and personal traits such as relatives affectionately naming a complaining family member as grumpy. Slick Willy and Tricky Dick are disparaging political epithets etched in the American vernacular. Fortado suggests in his study that adroitly engaging in activities that bring on desirable sobriquets should be within the mindset and strategy of the education leader and his or her training, such as the earned nickname of "little miss empowerment" by a study participant described later in this manuscript.

In another pertinent example, Fortado cites an investigation titled The Hawthorne study in The Bank Wiring Room (Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) as cited in Fortado (1998)). The study found that nicknames were used as peer pressure for coworkers to either slow down or speed up production by being called speed king or snail, for example. The essence of Fortado's study is that nicknames, i.e., identities, often convey potent meaning, furthering social control, creating group boundaries and building camaraderie. Nicknames are often key symbols that serve as clues to critical themes, orientations and values, according to Benedict (1934) and Ortner, (1973) as cited in Fortado (1998)). Interpretive portals can be opened if educational leaders make use of these keys rather than overlooking them as the author suggests may be the case in this study.

In the sphere of Social Exchange Theory and Symbolic Interactionism nicknames resonate exponentially in reciprocal fashion. Therefore, much symbolism is communicated throughout the workplace environment, so the opportunity for symbolic communication is prevalent and exists throughout organizational cultures such as schools and districts. Maclean (2007) describes this labeling or nicknaming, which gives shape to a leader or superior's identity, as the interpretive framework which creates meaning and expectations within organizational cultures. Frameworks influence a variety of outcomes. Frames aid people in organizations to understand and predict their environment. They are manifested in organization culture by key words, catch phrases, metaphors, images and other symbolic acts. For example, John McCain's 2008 presidential running mate, Alaskan Governor Sarah Palin, utilized key words to identify herself as a traditional candidate with *Leave it to Beaver* catch phrases such as "you betcha", "darn right" and "dontcha know". Highlighting a familiar image placing Wall Street excesses on eBay in her predecessor's Lear Jet was intended to symbolize the values and beliefs the public could expect of the candidate. Educational leaders' communication prowess, and potential success, can be strategically enhanced by developing a mindset for framing expectations through their identities as described through the preceding examples of ILT, SET and SI.

4.4.4.1 Proficient Communicators Know How to Set the Right Expectation

Maclean's interpretive framework applies to educational leaders since the community must know the principal, for example, in order to know what to expect from the school, according to Hoy & Miskel (2001). They report that wise leaders in education develop sending skills that enable them to set the right expectations while avoiding vision and/or mission ambiguities. For instance, United States Secretary of Education Roderick Paige (2001-2005) stressed that raising the performance of students requires raising expectations

(Keebler, 2001). Roderick Paige applied emotional language described in transformational leadership theory by employing a consistent theme and accountability that reading was the new civil rights issue while thwarting "the soft bigotry" of low expectations (Roach & Dervarics, 2001, p. 26). Through his actions and rhetoric Dr. Paige was strategically framing, within his environment, a higher performance creed of expectation otherwise known as a "psychological contract" – an emotional-laden understanding (Cha, 2004, p.1). For those expectations to take hold followers must have confidence, respect and trust in the leader; therefore, the leader's words and actions, i.e., sending methodologies, must "tally" (walk the talk) or followers interpret a "dual message" and the meaning cannot establish a clear framework (Axelsson et al., 2000, p.1). There must be congruence in verbal and nonverbal messaging to avoid any distraction from the vision and/or mission framing.

An Arizona sheriff, Maricopa County Sheriff Joe Arpaio, became a household name by establishing a clear framework, which earned him the national reputation as America's Toughest Cop (Jarvis, 2003). He accomplished this notoriety by talking tough and employing powerful symbolisms such as dressing prisoners in traditional black and white stripes, highly visible, cleaning roadside debris in ritualistic chain gangs. Arpaio's example is consistent with transformational leadership theory that leadership is a symbolic activity. The image should be used to symbolize and frame expected and valued behavior for the leader's target audience.

Arpaio's and Dr. Paige's interpretive framing manages meaning, which produces expectations for behaviors and actions of leaders and followers (Wendt & Fairhurst, 1994). Patrons need to know what they can expect of a principal, and principals need to know that problems usually occur because of missed expectations due to sending ambiguities (Hoy & Miskel (2001); Martin (2004)).

4.4.4.2 Transformational Leader Sending – The Heroic Stereotype

The modus operandi with both Roderick Paige and Sheriff Joe's communication style are clearly transformational. Both employ a heroic role-model motif which simplifies expectations and frames their message. Emotional symbolism such as Dr. Paige's reference to Civil Rights and bigotry and Sheriff Arpaio's tough chain gang images 'strikes a chord' with followers because followers value what these symbolisms represent.

The heroic stereotype (Cornog, 1991), which is expected of the leader, is a way to refine and simplify the abstract of the leader's personal brand identity. For example, as a deterrent to bulling and after-school conflicts, the selfless act of a principal regularly walking particular students home simplifies the abstract of all the principal means to a school: that he or she really cares. The impression that the principal (leader) cares and sacrifices for his or her students is expected. A savvy leader embodies his or her audiences' values and projects as concretely as possible such as visibly looking after the safety and well being of the children. Leaders framing and embodying followers' values in this way is known as projecting a culturally defined family of concepts or core of expectations (core values), which creates a set of understanding and long-term expectations (Kerfoot (2003); Pettigrew (1979) as cited in Ramsey (2006)). The leader sustains followers' motivations and enthusiasm through the use of culturally oriented symbolic systems as ceremony, ritual, icons, actions and myths such as storytelling (Axelsson et al. (2000); Bass (1985); Hoy and Miskel (2001)).

4.4.5 Transformational Leaders Are the Stewards of Recognizable Vision

Research suggests that preservice and or inservice training in effective communication for educational leaders should focus on mindset (Conger (1991); Gamage & Ueyama (2004)). Educational leaders must be encouraged to assume primary responsibility for vision sending and frame-working to manage meaning in their organizational environments.

Conceptualizing the basic realities of leadership, the author often refers to a Disney animation – one of many benefits from early years parenting young children. In a scene from the blockbuster The Lion King, Simba, the heir and King Mufasa's son, gets a lesson about leadership while subjected to despair by his evil uncle, Scar. When everything went wrong for Simba, Scar lectured that the first lesson in leadership was that everything is your fault. In the subsection Transformational Leadership Theory leaders are expected to

be role models - not failures - appealing to audiences' high ideals and optimism about the future, as well as leading by example; i.e., walking the talk.

Many expectations and responsibilities are inherent in leadership particularly with communicating vision and meaning effectively. For example, at a long-term care facility in Canada, 319 employees were queried with two different surveys (Bass & Avolio (1995); Carless, Wearing, & Mann (2000)). The surveys investigating transformational leadership's dimension overlapped in their results, concluding that the ability to communicate vision is a primary leadership attribute (Arnold, Turn, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee (2007)).

Vision communication defines a leader's organizational performance acumen as one who articulates a vision and gets others to follow him or her, with that vision as a unifier in common purpose and direction (Slenning (2000); Wolvin (2005)). This ability to motivate others through effective vision communication is considered the defining attribute of leadership by communication experts and many national organizations: top leaders are stewards of clear and recognizable vision (Kaplin (2006); Martin, Wright, & Danzig (2003)).

As stated by Maslow (1970), people have an inherent need for meaning; transformational leaders understand and approach leadership with that knowledge. Hoeppner (1997) states that leaders assume the task of making meaning out of events. Leaders help others understand the context for which activities occur; therefore, framing, making meaning, is a central activity of leadership, according to Martin et al. (2003) Popper, (2004) Reynolds, Murrill, & Whitt (2006) Senge (1990) Smith (1987) and Takala (1998).

4.4.5.1 Culture Shock Experiences Are Due to Principals' Lack of Preparedness

Although communication has become instant on a global scale, improving technologies provides no guarantee of better understanding. Researchers acknowledge an apparent information and training deficiency and recommend the shortcoming be addressed in the area of leadership communication. For example, Deresh and Male (2000) as seen in Gamage and Ueyama (2004) equate the fledgling principalship with the United States and British head teachers as "culture shock experiences" due to their lack of preparedness (p. 66). According to Gamage and Ueyama the lack of preparedness, in particular, is found in the area of effective communication. Surveying hundreds of Australian and Japanese school principals, Gamage and Ueyama discovered that principals consider effective communication to be the most important skill in contemporary educational leadership.

In the author's work and study of K-12 educational leaders he became mindful of a possible crossover, i.e., cross-fertilization or cross-pollination, from other fields in leadership that may apply to education, and vice versa. Emrich, Brown, Feldman & Garland (2001) and Wendt & Fairhurst (1994) described this cross-pollination in terms of a crossover between the political and organizational arenas. Therefore, a study conducted by Brown, Martinez and Daniel (2002) is applicable to the author's study of K-12 leaders. In their survey, hundreds of community college administrators identified communication skills as one of the most important skills in community college leadership. They emphasized that aspiring educational leaders and trainers of educators would be prudent to include coursework specific to communication in order to be adequately prepared for the role of leadership. Brown et al. reported in their 2001 study that sixty-five percent of their surveyed skills, primarily communication, were recommended by graduates with greater emphasis than those which they received in their graduate program of studies.

4.4.5.2 Resistance Mindset Prevents Development of Transformational Leaders

Through practice and research the author has come to the realization that creative and effective communication is not a given or innate to many educational leaders. The author has explored to what degree the perceived gap in communication knowledge is contributed by some educators' mindsets in recent history. Roderick Paige, for example, referred to the need for change in educators' mindset as the prescription for solving many problems in American education. In a January 2001 speech at The National Association of Independent Colleges, Paige (2001) clarified that what is needed for improved student performance is "a new way of thinking" rather than "a few new programs" (p. 30). Morris & Vrabel (1979) reported that the Sputnik shock and successful 1957 Soviet satellite launch were worsened, for instance, due to the lack of public school public relations, and years later, administrators still resistbetter community relations. To

make matters worse, Conger (1991) asserted that business culture and educational systems may discourage strategies for powerful communication.

4.4.6 Identity Crisis: Leaders Missing Out on An Effective Communication Tool

The resistance phenomenon appears ongoing considering empirical data collected, by the author, in the spring and summer of 2007. For instance, during the outset of interviews in this study many participants appeared to have reacted negatively toward particular questions asked during the questionnaire process. At first glance at the questionnaire from the author's study an elementary school principal rolled his eyes, gestured upward with the questionnaire in hand, and commented "what sky did this fall out of?" Surprised, the author asked what the principal meant by the comment, and the principal answered "never mind". The principal was reacting to the first question of the questionnaire which asked "What is your current vision/mission?" Providing further instruction for participants, the question followed with a helpful example of such vision, citing JFK's "a man on the moon by the end of the 1960's". The principal may or may not have been repudiating the 'vision thing' with his gestures and comment.

In another example of what may or may not have been negativity toward creative vision communication, a high school principal commented about "novelty" while answering questions in the Participant Ranking Matrix – provided in tables A, B and C. The principal commented that he would like to think of himself communicating in novel ways, "but I'm not taking the word novelty; to me, I don't know, it's something that can be seen through, perhaps."

The preceding sampling of comments may or may not be reflective of educational leaders' resistance mindsets toward creative transformational leadership communication; however, 68 percent of the leaders in the author's 2007 study proved a serious disconnect in their approach and knowledge in communication. For instance, thirty-four of 41 administrators, 83 percent, from the three school districts in the study made 45 references to themselves as role models as a means for communicating (sending) their vision/mission. Additionally, administrators overwhelmingly ranked "actions" (i.e., a nonverbal activity) highest for effective sending in the Participant Ranking Matrix provided, again, in tables A, B and C. Nonverbal symbolic communication such as role modeling and action sending are ideal and effective communication methods as recommended in studies such as Axelsson et al. (2000) and Baum, Locke and Kirkpatrick (1998). In this respect, participants in the author's study employ effective transformational, creative sending and framing methodologies. However, 28 of 41 of the same participating administrators, 68 percent, didn't know or express interest in the image that resulted of them from all of their purposeful role modeling action sending or frame-working they employed. According to transformational theory this is a serious disconnect, since followers are expected to identify with and internalize the leader's vision and/or mission.

Role modeling is effective and can be very creative; then again, role modeling is only part of the equation, according to transformational theory. The leader is the sum of his or her verbal and non-verbal communicating parts and that sum is the leader's resulting identity or image that simplifies and frames expectations, according to subsections of this report Transformational Leadership Theory and Identity – A Micropolitical Portal to Understanding. Educational leaders are missing out on a very powerful communication tool when they overlook or are unaware of their image that followers may or may not internalize.

The dilemma for participants in the author's study is that they didn't know or express interest in how their target audience or community identified them. Hence, the identity crisis and mindset that has intrigued the author is the topic of this study. This perceived inconsistency or gap may be the result of a lack of substantive communication skill and training for practicing and aspiring administrators.

Elaborating on the necessity for training, the author incurred what may or may not be negativity toward transformational leadership communication, which transpired during the interviewing process on questionnaire items number 3 and 4. As indicated, participants were asked about the identity they personally desired and how they were actually identified by patrons – questionnaire item numbers 3 and 4. Questionnaire item 3 asked: "how do these methods, i.e., methods queried in questionnaire question 2, communicate the identity you personally desire?" Questionnaire item 4 served as a check for questionnaire item 3 to query if the respondent actually accomplished his or her desired identity by asking in question 4 "How do most people identity you? Please provide a specific example in a tagline nickname or other distinctive title given you

by others; not your own declaration." Participants' receptions were mixed to these particular questions, 3 and 4. The majority of respondents didn't appear to react positively or negatively to questions 3 or 4; instead, they appeared to simply answer the question as best as they could. A few participants who provided creative sending methodologies, consistent with transformational theory, in response to questionnaire item 2 commented approvingly immediately after pondering question 3 and 4 by stating that the questions were very interesting. One respondent elaborated, "I know where you're going with that one," stating she understood the frame-working and expectations an identity sends. On the other hand, another participant appeared to react negatively and uncomfortably to questions 3 and 4. A school board member who arranged her interview with the author at a Starbucks halfway point provided an animated reaction to the questions. After searching for words to the questions 3 and 4, providing no definitive answer, she leaned over the little coffee table between herself and the author and gestured, "What? Do people have little pet names for us we don't know about?"

Generally, participants' responses were not disparaging but nonetheless revealing of educators' mindsets. Participants were either unaware of or uninterested in their identity. For instance, a principal responded to questionnaire items 3 and 4 by stating that "It's difficult to see yourself that way;" i.e., an image. Another administrator stated in absolute terms that she had no knowledge about her identity in her community: "That's a hard one; nobody talks to us."

These anecdotal examples are representative of 68 percent of respondents' not knowing or expressing interest in their identities. The data illustrate a potential need, comparing and contrasting the 68 percent who did not know or expressed concerns about their identity with the 83 percent who should know since recommending role modeling sending as a means in articulating their vision/mission.

The need exemplified in this study is for training. The literature and data collected indicate training may be needed particularly in the shifting of mindset for many educational leaders toward understanding the factor their identities play in successfully communicating; i.e., transformational leadership sending and framing vision and/or mission successfully.

4.4.6.1 Additional Data Findings to Support the Need for Training

Verbatim, six of 41 of the author's study participants used the metaphor "Walking the talk" to describe their role modeling and action sending as a means of communicating their vision and/or missions. Essentially, walking the talk is familiar language in the educational leader's lexicon that effective communication was about "not saying something [and] then acting another way." Participants reflecting transformational leadership characteristics understood the verbal and nonverbal connection in their messaging and that ambiguity in that messaging would detract from their identity. Moreover, Baum et al. (1998) and Wendt & Fairhusrt (1994) reported that a well-formulated vision was not enough; that the leader must walk the talk. For example, a principal in the author's study endeavored to foster an empowering identity and she succeeded by respecting and trusting her staff, in language and deed, and earned the moniker "little miss empowerment".

The majority of participants in the author's study were unaware of the effective and creative communication opportunities available. Many were also unaware of the effects of the techniques they regularly practiced. Paradoxically, participants ranked verbal communication asmore effective than nonverbal communication, yet actions (nonverbal) ranked highest among all 12 methods queried reflected in the Participant Ranking Matrix Tables A, B and C. Consequently, the literature indicates that nonverbal symbolism is the most effective form of communication, according to Axelsson et al. (2000) Baum et al. (1998) and Johnson (1990).

Participants ranked the effectiveness of communication in the ritual method as very low, yet all of them conducted rituals in their schools such as AM announcements, recognition ceremonies, protocols, etc. Most respondents told stories during interviews, yet storytelling ranked low as an effective and creative communication method. Only three out of 41 participants mentioned or recommended using story directly. Ritual and storytelling are recommended communication techniques as described in transformational leadership theory.

4.4.7 Conclusions and Implications

A supply/demand theme emerged through the author's attempt to address this study's problem: identifying practices educational leaders recommend to articulating (sending) their vision. Demand for training of educational leaders took form in subsections Transformational Leaders are the Stewards of Recognizable Vision and Identity Crisis: Leaders Missing out on an Effective Communication Tool. The defining attribute in leadership is the ability to communicate a vision and the apparent lack of preparedness, in this skill area, results in culture shock experiences for new administrators. Literature and study data indicate there may be a resistance mindset from educators toward visionary transformational leadership communication. The methodological supply to remedy this problem in practice and philosophy is outlined in the subsection Transformational Leadership Theory and Identity – Micropolitical Interpretive Portals to Understanding. The savvy leader understands that he or she is an identity or appropriate role model to symbolize expected values and behaviors of followers, creating the "psychological contract" (Cha, 2004, p.1). Simplifying their identities, transformational leaders employ the heroic stereotype motif to make the abstract of their vision intuitively concrete through culturally orientated symbol systems such as ceremony, ritual, icons, actions and myths such as storytelling.

Educators who fail to define themselves succinctly may well be leaving to others, not having their best interest at heart, the framing of their identity, which is the implication in this study. William F. Buckley Jr's. cousin and founder/president of The Media Research Center, L. Brent Bozell, declared that the lesson in politics – The cardinal rule in politics – is to "define or be defined" (Eberhart, 2009 p.1). The implications as described by Hoy & Misckel (2001) and Mintzberg (1983) are that politics is a fact of life and important force in educational leadership; therefore, it seems appropriate that communication training for educational leaders should be cross-pollinated with political science practice and theory.

4.4.8 References

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As a visual aid used for the purpose of analysis, Tables 1, 2 and 3 pertain to superintendents, school board members' and principals' ranking of various communication methods in the matrices of the author's study.

Participants' Ranking Matrix—Superintendents

Level I Admin.(3) participants All numbers %	Verbal	Non verbal	Actions	Ritual	Storytelling	Icons	Symbols	Graphics	Repetition	Novelty	Simplicity	Brevity	Metaphor
Very effective	67	33	67	33	67	67			67	33	67	33	33
Somewhat effective	33	67	33	67		33	100	33	67	33	33		67
Not very effective					33							33	
Not at all effective													

Table 4.1

Participants' Ranking Matrix—Board Members

Board Member(9) participants All numbers %	Verbal	Non-verbal	Actions	Ritual	Storytelling	Icons	Symbols	Graphics	Repetition	Novelty	Simplicity	Brevity	Metaphor
Very effective	78	56	89	22	33			22	44	11	44	67	56
Somewhat effective	22	44	11	56	56		67	67	44	67	44	22	44
Not very effective				22	11	22	11		11	12	11		
Not at all effective						11		12	11				

Table 4.2

Participants' Ranking Matrix—Principals

Level II Admin.(29) participants All numbers %	Verbal	Non-verbal	Actions	Ritual	Storytelling	Icons	Symbols	Graphics	Repetition	Novelty	Simplicity	Brevity	Metaphor
continued on next page													

Very effective	69	55	93	28	28	31	45	76	28	76	52	31
Somewhat effective	31	41	7	62	38	55	52	21	38	21	45	45
Not very effective		4		7	31	7	3	3	28	3	3	10
Not at all effective				3	3	7			6			14

Table 4.3