

# STUDENT TEACHERS RELATIONSHIP PARTICIPATING IN AND LEADING THE EDUCATIONAL REFORMS OF TODAY

<sup>1</sup>Anita Singh, <sup>2</sup>Dr. Rajender Joshi

<sup>1</sup>Associate Professor, Govt. College, Panchkula

<sup>2</sup>Associate Professor, Jain Girls College, Bikaner

## ABSTRACT

*Quality teaching in all classrooms necessitates skillful leadership at the community, district, school, and classroom levels. Ambitious learning goals for students and educators require significant changes in curriculum, instruction, assessment, and leadership practices. Leaders at all levels recognize quality professional development as the key strategy for supporting significant improvements. They are able to articulate the critical link between improved student learning and the professional learning of teachers. They ensure that all stakeholders - including the school board, parent teacher organizations, and the business community - understand the link and develop the knowledge necessary to serve as advocates for high quality professional development for all staff.*

## INTRODUCTION

Staff development leaders come from all ranks of the organization. They include community representatives, school board trustees, administrators, teachers, and support staff.

Principals, superintendents, and other key personnel serve as instructional leaders, artfully combine pressure and support to achieve school and district goals, engage parents and other caretakers in the education of their children, and establish partnerships with key community institutions that promote the welfare of all students. They are clear about their own values and beliefs and the effects these values and beliefs have on others and on the achievement of organizational goals. As primary carriers of the organization's culture, they also make certain that their attitudes and behavior represent the values and practices they promote throughout the school or district.

Skillful leaders establish policies and organizational structures that support ongoing professional learning and continuous improvement. They ensure an equitable distribution of resources to accomplish district goals and continuously improve the school or district's work through the ongoing evaluation of staff development's effectiveness in achieving student learning goals. They make certain that employee contracts, annual calendars, and daily schedules provide adequate time for learning and collaboration as part of the workday. In addition, they align district incentive systems with demonstrated knowledge and skill and improvements in student learning rather than seat-time arrangements such as courses completed or continuing education units earned.

Principals and superintendents also distribute leadership responsibilities among teachers and other employees. Distributed leadership enables teachers to develop and use their talents as members or chairs of school improvement committees, trainers, coaches, mentors, and members of peer review panels. These leaders make certain that their colleagues have the necessary knowledge and skills and other forms of support that ensure success in these new roles. These leaders read widely, participate in learning communities, attend workshops and conferences, and model career long learning by making their learning visible to others. All leaders make use of various electronic tools to support their learning and make their work more efficient. They use e-mail, listservs, bulletin boards, Internet, and other electronic means to communicate, locate research and other useful information, and seek assistance in problem solving. They enlist other electronic tools to organize and schedule their work, produce and share documents, and increase their accessibility to colleagues, parents, and community members. Skillful leaders are familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of various electronic learning processes for themselves and others and make certain these processes are appropriately matched to individual and organizational goals.

The effective schools movement investigated schools whose students from disadvantaged situations (minority status, low socio-economic levels) were performing at average or above average levels in basic skills on standardized achievement tests (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Sizemore, Brossard, & Harrigan, 1983; Venezky & Winfield, 1979). In the late 1970s, based on contrastive studies of high and low performing schools, researchers began to identify common factors or characteristics of these effective schools. One of the major findings of the effective schools research was the identification of instructional leadership as a significant aspect of effective schools.

Described as a "multidimensional construct" (Heck, Larsen, and Marcoulides, 1990, p. 122), instructional leadership includes characteristics such as high expectations of students and teachers, an emphasis on instruction, provision of professional development, and use of data to evaluate students' progress among others. Instructional leadership has also been found to be a significant factor in facilitating, improving, and promoting the academic progress of students.

Although there is a rich description of instructional leaders' behaviors paralleling the findings from the literature on effective leaders, there is limited data about which leadership characteristics facilitate and promote change in educational settings. Instructional leadership characteristics parallel the two dimensions of leadership discussed previously. "A large body of research on schools has consistently demonstrated that the most effective leader behavior is strong in both initiating structure and consideration" (Hoy & Brown, 1988, p. 27). Effective school leaders are task- and people-oriented. Kohan's (1989) analysis of data concerning superintendents' leadership style supports the findings of effective leaders being high performances in the effective leadership dimensions of initiating structures and consideration. Hoy and Brown (1988) found that teachers responded more favorably to principals with "a leadership style that combines both structure and consideration" (p. 36).

Teacher leadership has been seen in traditional roles such as department heads, textbook adoption committee chairpersons, and union representatives (Bellon & Beaudry, 1992; Wasley, 1991). In addition to being restricted to these three areas, "traditional leadership opportunities for teachers are extremely limited and generally serve an efficiency function rather than a leadership function" (Wasley, 1991, p. 4). However current educational reforms prompt a reconsideration of teacher leadership. Reforms such as site based management and restructuring efforts include broader roles for teacher participation and leadership. Current teacher leadership roles are involving teachers as mentors, team leaders, curriculum developers, and staff development providers and intend to "improve the quality of public education while allowing teachers greater leadership in the development of those improvements" (Wasley, 1991, p 6). These roles involve teachers in decision-making processes and facilitate teachers becoming leaders of change. Nickse (1977) studied teachers as change agents and advocated teachers in leadership roles in change efforts for four reasons:

1. Teachers have a vested interest, "they care about what they do and how they do it and feel a sense of responsibility for their efforts";
2. Teachers have a sense of history, they are "aware of the norms of their colleagues";
3. Teachers know the community, "have information concerning the values and attitudes of the community" and
4. Teachers can implement change, they "are where the action is. . .in the position to initiate planned change on the basis of need" (p. 5).

Yet despite these reasons and attempts to promote teachers as leaders of change and to extend teacher leadership roles, teachers do not view themselves as leaders (Bellon & Beaudry, 1992; Wasley, 1991).

Nevertheless, the data on leaders of educational change and the emerging information on teacher leadership indicate that the characteristics of these individuals mirror those of leaders who have changed other organizations. Leaders of educational change have vision; foster a shared vision, and value human resources. They are proactive and take risks. In addition, they strongly believe that the purpose of schools is to meet the academic needs of students and are effective communicators and listeners.

## VISION

Leadership requires vision. It is a force that provides meaning and purpose to the work of an organization. Leaders of change are visionary leaders, and vision is the basis of their work. "To actively change an organization, leaders must make decisions about the nature of the desired state" (Manasse, 1986, p. 151). They begin with a personal vision to forge a shared vision with their coworkers. Their communication of the vision is such that it empowers people to act.

According to Westley and Mintzberg (1989) visionary leadership is dynamic and involves a three stage process:

- an image of the desired future for the organization (vision) is
- communicated (shared) which serves to
- "Empower those followers so that they can enact the vision" (p. 18).

The important role of vision is also evident in the literature concerning

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Vision, a critical leadership characteristic, is also a trait of successful executive educators (Crowson & Morris, 1990; Harrington-Lueker, 1991; Mahoney, 1990; Papalewis, 1988). Outstanding superintendents studied by Mahoney (1990) were described as individuals who "knew where their school system ought to be headed and why" (p. 27); he stated that "top school leaders create a vision for their school systems and develop a plan for the future" (p. 27). According to Crowson and Morris's (1990) study of superintendents, vision included "deciding what the correct thing to do is" (p. 54). Vision guides the work of superintendents and influences the work of others. "School leaders are creative visionaries willing to take risks in pursuit of cherished values and able to cling to a vision with a tenacity that is contagious to nearly everyone" (Papalewis, 1988, p. 159).

The importance of principals having a vision also appears in the literature concerning instructional leadership (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Lightfoot, 1983; Méndez-Morse, 1991; Niece, 1989; Pejza, 1985). Principals have a vision -- a picture of what they want their schools to be and their students to achieve. Pejza (1985) stated that "leadership requires a vision. Without a vision to challenge followers with, there's no possibility of a principal being a leader" (p. 10). The vision provides guidance and direction for the school staff, students, and administration. Niece (1989) reported that several authorities included "providing vision and direction for the school" (p. 5) as a component of instructional leadership. Principals keep their "vision in the forefront" (Méndez- Morse, 1991, p. 2). "Associated with a vision has to be a plan, a way of reaching the goal" (Pejza, 1985, p. 10).

The terms "mission" and "goal-oriented" are often used in literature to describe this characteristic of principals (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1990; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1984). Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) found that effective principals seem to be "highly goal oriented and to have a keen sense of goal clarity" (in Mazzarella & Grundy, 1989, p. 20). Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis (1990) stated that "principals influence student learning by developing a school mission that provides an instructional focus for teachers throughout the school" (p. 28). Leithwood and Montgomery (1984) concluded that "goals are the long term aspirations held by principals for work in their schools. No other dimension of principal behavior is more consistently linked to school improvement by current empirical research than Goals" (p.

23). The school administrators' values and beliefs shape her or his vision. Vision influences the school climate which includes teachers' instructional behaviors as well as student outcomes.

While administrators' visions tend to focus on district- or school- wide instructional issues, teachers' visions tend to address teacher roles and student outcomes (Bellon & Beaudry, 1992; Boles & Troen, 1992; Murphy, Everston, & Radnofsky, 1991; Wasley, 1991). Murphy, Everston, and Radnofsky (1991) discussed teachers' opinions on restructuring and found that while teachers agreed with the literature concerning restructuring, they emphasized the student and instructional issues. These teachers' visions included changes in the classroom, such as interdisciplinary curricula, varied student grouping patterns, and instruction that included basic literacy as well as "critical thinking, creativity, inquisitiveness, and independence of thought" (Murphy, Everston, & Radnofsky, 1991, p. 144). Teachers' vision also included school changes that would result in more participatory and decision- making roles for teachers. Increased teacher leadership has been reported by Bellon and Beaudry, 1992; Boles and Troen, 1992; and Wasley, 1991. Boles and Troen (1992) found from their personal experience with restructuring that their vision for improved student achievement included changes in instructional approaches and teacher leadership roles. Similarly, other researchers found that teachers included the need to change the school's structures and instructional methods in order to address students' needs (Bellon & Beaudry, 1992; Murphy, Everston, & Radnofsky, 1991; Wasley, 1991). School administrators that have developed a shared vision with their faculty have also created common ground that serves to facilitate or compel action to the realization of this common vision.

The relationship between the teachers' and administrators' vision is important. Administrators' vision tends to encompass the whole system or as described by Manasse (1986) their vision is an organizational vision. Teachers' vision appear to focus primarily on the individual or personal actions for school change. However, closer examination of the two -- teachers' and administrators' visions -- may reveal that both groups of educators are looking at the same vision but attending to different aspects. School administrators that have developed a shared vision with their faculty have also created common ground that serves to facilitate or compel action to the realization of this common vision. Frequently underlying a shared vision are teachers' and administrators' shared values and beliefs, specifically believing that schools are for students' learning. The next section describes this unifying belief that facilitates school change.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

- (1) There exists positive significant correlation between leadership behaviour of heads and job-satisfaction of teachers.
- (2) There exists significant difference in the academic achievement of students on the basis of high and low job-satisfaction of teachers.
- (3) There exists significant difference in the academic achievement of students on the basis of effective and less effective leadership behaviour of heads.

- (4) There exists significant difference in the academic achievement of students on the basis of sex of heads.
- (5) There exists significant difference in the academic achievement of students on the basis of experience of the heads.
- (6) There exists significant interactional effects between teacher's job-satisfaction, leadership behaviour and sex of heads on academic achievement of students at secondary level.
- (7) There exists significant interactional effects between sex of the heads, their leadership behaviour and their experience on academic achievement of students.
- (8) There exists significant interactional effects between teacher's job-satisfaction and experience of heads on academic achievement of students.

Sampling is both necessary and advantageous. Taking a complete census is generally both costly and difficult. It is also not feasible to control each and every element of the population within a narrow range of time.

Sample is small representation of large whole. The size of the sample should be so selected that it is adequate and representative of the population from which it has been derived.

The largest population in the present investigation covered all the secondary schools of Hisar district of Haryana. It was not possible to encompass the entire population. So only 14 schools were selected randomly. But finally four schools did not respond and, therefore, data collection was done from 10 schools only. From each school 10 teachers and 20 students were taken randomly. All the heads of the schools were also included in the present study for the purpose of their demographic information.

Aggregate percentage of marks, of previous examination conducted under the Board of Secondary Education, Haryana, of 200 students from 10 schools - 20 students from each were taken as the sample of the present study.

## **RESULTS**

1. Leadership behavior of the head is positively correlated with teachers' job-satisfaction. It means both of them are closely related. Leadership behavior of the head played an important role for teachers' job satisfaction.
2. Teachers' job satisfaction has significant effect on students' academic achievement. The schools having high teachers' job satisfaction bring in higher academic achievement as compared to schools with low teachers' job satisfaction.
3. There exists significant difference in the students' academic achievement as they belong to schools having effective and less-effective leadership behavior of heads. The schools with

effective leadership behavior bring higher achievement of students as compared to schools with less effective leadership behavior of heads.

## DISCUSSION

Leaders of change provide the needed stimulus for change. Calling attention to the possibilities, they take risks and encourage others to initiate change. School leaders encourage their staff to experiment with various instructional methods to meet the academic needs of the students. They guide and provoke the staff to explore options that more adequately address the needs of their students and provide the environment that makes risk-taking safer. They provide their staff with opportunities to consider and implement curriculum changes as well as encourage experimentation with different arrangements of organizational structures, such as schedules and class size. However, as Mazzarella and Grundy (1989) noted "even though effective leaders stretch the rules, they are not rebels; they do play the game" (p. 2). Crowson & Morris (1990) reported similar findings in their study of successful superintendents and stated that absent from their career histories "was an avoidance of risk" (p. 40). Becker, et al. (1971) found that successful principals "found it difficult to live within the constraints of the bureaucracy; they frequently violated the chain of command, seeking relief for their problems from whatever sources that were potentially useful" (p. 3) and yet these principals "expressed concern for the identification of the most appropriate procedure through which change could be secured" (p. 3). School leaders encourage their staff to experiment with various instructional methods to meet the academic needs of the students.

Few examples of teachers as risk takers are found in the literature. Waugh and Punch (1987) found that teachers' participation in the implementation of a change depended on variables including "the extent that fears and uncertainties associated with the change are alleviated" (p. 243). Nickse (1977) stated that one reason for limited teacher leadership in change, which involves risk taking, was "their fear of reprisal, not only from administrators but also from some of their colleagues" (p. 6). He described some of the experiences of the teacher change agents he studied as, "bureaucratic frustrations, fear of retaliation" (p. 14-15) and found that despite these reactions, the teachers learned that "you must believe totally in your goal, have all the data, stick to your topic, study each aspect without flinching and then charge ahead" (p. 17). Boles and Troen (1992) described themselves as "two tenured teachers, with no power, beholden to no one, and with nothing to lose" (p. 53) as they began their restructuring efforts. Even as these two teacher leaders experienced various setbacks and rejections during their initial restructuring efforts, they continued. Their program gained support and eventually expanded to other schools. Reports concerning the limitations on risk taking by teachers and teacher leaders are emerging and more can be anticipated as teachers become more involved in leadership roles in site based management and restructuring efforts.

Principals and superintendents that lead and guide others in school change take risks but not carelessly or without forethought. Furthermore they encourage others to be innovative by

providing an environment that makes this safer. Teachers appear to be reluctant risk takers for a variety of reason although Boles and Troen (1992) provided an example of their risk taking during their restructuring efforts. Current educational reform efforts may change this hesitance in teachers.

## **PROPOSED RESEARCH WORK**

It has now come to the recognized that the successful academic leader plays an important role in the development and success of the institution. His personal characteristics and traits are very inflectional in determining the attitudes and reactions of the pupils and members of the staff toward the activities of the school. Performance of the different roles by the principal is an ardent task but an important criterion is to create conducive organizational climate for teachers' job-satisfaction and pupils' better academic achievement. As the number of students and teachers of any institution increases year-by-year due to population growth, the degree of difficulties of controlling an institution also increases. For this the principal has to have full knowledge of his varying roles and responsibilities to carry out his mission with the utmost he is able to inspire his associates and collaborates with the desire to work co-operatively for the goals for which the school stands.

## **CONCLUSION**

This paper began with a brief review of key leadership concepts and this literature revealed that effective leadership in an organization is critical. Initial examinations of leaders reported the differences between leaders and followers. These attempts to isolate specific individual traits led to the conclusion that no single characteristic can distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Situational leadership revealed the complexity of leadership but still proved to be insufficient because the theories could not predict which leadership skills would be more effective in certain situations. The contingency models focused on the fit between personality characteristics, leaders' behaviors, and situational variables but did not clarify which or what combination of these determines effective leadership. Subsequent leadership studies differentiated effective from non-effective leaders. The comparison of effective and non-effective leaders led to the identification of two dimensions, initiating structures and consideration, and revealed that effective leaders were high performers in both. The situation approach to leadership supports the contention that effective leaders are able to address both the tasks and human aspects of their organizations.

## **REFERENCES**

- [1] Beer, M., Eisenstat, R.A., & Spector, B. (1990). Why change programs don't produce change. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(6), 158-166.
- [2] Bird, C. (1940). *Social psychology*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company.
- [3] Blumberg, A. & Greenfield, W. (1980). *The effective principal: Perspectives on school leadership*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- [4] Blumberg, A. & Greenfield, W. (1986). *The effective principal: Perspectives on school leadership*. 2nd Edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- [5] Boles, K. & Troen, V. (1992). How teachers make restructuring happen. *Educational Leadership*, 49 (5) , 53-56.
- [6] Bossert, S.T., Dwyer, D.C., Rowan, B., & Lee, G.V. (1982). The instructional management role of the principal. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 18 (3), 34-64.
- [7] Boyd, V. (1992). *School context: Bridge or barrier to change*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- [8] Brookover, W.B. & Lezotte, L.W. (1979). *Changes in school characteristics coincident with changes in student achievement*. East Lansing, MI: The Institute for Research on Teaching.
- [9] Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- [10] Cartwright, D. & Zander, A. (1960). *Group dynamics -- research and theory*. Evanston, IL: Row Peterson.
- [11] Chrispeels, J.A. (1990). *Achieving and sustaining school effectiveness: A five year study of change in elementary schools*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.
- [12] Coleman, P. & LaRoque, L. (1990). *Struggling to be 'good enough': Administrative practices and school district ethos*. New York: The Falmer Press.
- [13] Crowson, R.L. (1989). Managerial ethics in educational administration: The Rational Choice Approach. *Urban Education*, 23(4), 412-435.
- [14] Crowson, R.L., & Morris, V.C. (1990). *The superintendency and school leadership*. The National Center for School Leadership Project Report. The National Center for School Leadership: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

[15] deGues, A.P., (1988). Planning as learning. *Harvard Business Review*, 66(2), 70-74.

[16] De Pree, M. (1989). *Leadership is an art*. New York: Doubleday.

[17] Duttweiler, P.C. & Hord, S.M. (1987). *Dimensions of effective leadership*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

[18] Edmonds, R.R. (1979, October). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37 (2), 15-24.

[19] Etzioni, A. (1961). *A comparative analysis of complex organizations*. New York: Free Press.

[20] Fielder, F.E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

[21] Feistritzer, C.E. (1986). *Profile of teachers in the U. S. Washington D. C.:* National Center for Education Information.

[22] Feistritzer, C.E. (1988). *Profile of school administrators in the U. S. Washington D. C.:* National Center for Education Information.

[23] Forman, S., & Linney, J. (1988). *School-based prevention of adolescent substance abuse: Programs, implementation and future directions*. *School Psychology Review*, 17, 550-558.