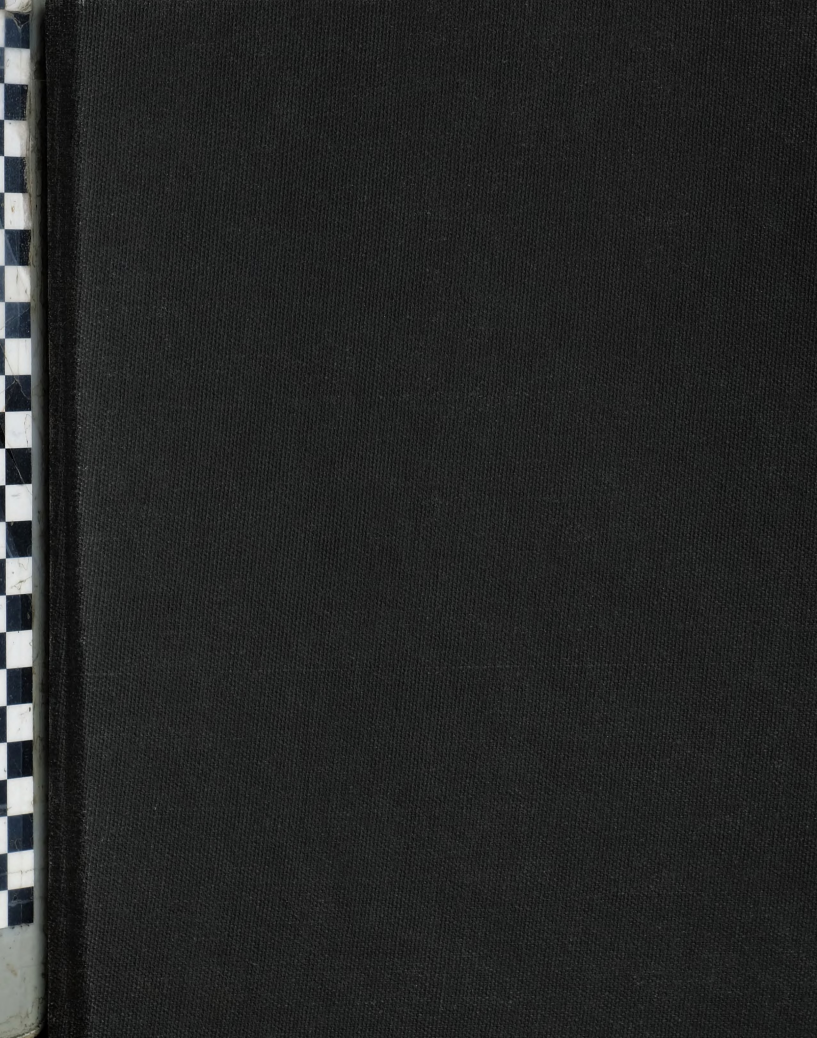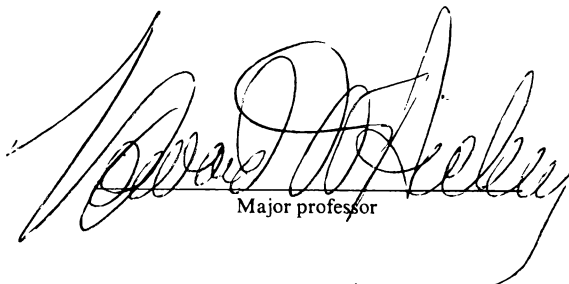PH. D.

This is to certify that the

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COMPETENCIES AND CONDITIONS CONSIDERED IMPORTANT
IN A MANAGEMENT-DEVELOPMENT PARTNERSHIP
BETWEEN BUSINESS AND EDUCATION

presented by

Camille K. Donnelly

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

_____PhD_____ degree in _Educational Administration_

Major professor

Date__June 4, 1987__

COMPETENCIES AND CONDITIONS CONSIDERED IMPORTANT

IN A MANAGEMENT-DEVELOPMENT PARTNERSHIP

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By

Camille K. Donnelly

A DISSERTATION

ABSTRACT

COMPETENCIES AND CONDITIONS CONSIDERED IMPORTANT
IN A MANAGEMENT-DEVELOPMENT PARTNERSHIP
BETWEEN BUSINESS AND EDUCATION

By

Camille K. Donnelly

As the United States moves from an industrial-based to an information-based society, there is a renewed recognition of the interdependence between education and business for the future of our economy. The private sector is currently spending an estimated $60 billion a year on training of employees with 75% of those efforts in white-collar and management training.

Since educational leadership has been identified as a key to excellence in schools, and training is considered the most widely used method for improving leadership, this research was undertaken to determine the feasibility of a partnership effort with business for the development of educational leaders.

The purposes of this study were (a) to assess the importance of competencies identified in management-development programs in business as competencies rated important in school building administration and (b) to identify the important conditions for a management-development partnership effort.

Camille K. Donnelly

Management-development directors of ten corporations in western Michigan were interviewed to identify the competencies in each program. The 63 competencies were then consolidated into seven ability areas identified by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

A survey instrument was designed and mailed to a sample of principals and superintendents to gather data on the importance of these competencies for school-building administration.

The research findings indicated that the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs were considered important in school building administration by principals and superintendents with no significant difference according to geographic location, size of district, or job title.

Gender showed the most significant differences with females rating the competencies more important than males. Respondents with less job experience rated the competencies slightly higher than more experienced respondents.

Mutual planning of goals/objective and participants and presenters from both business and education were the most important conditions.

Because a partnership effort as a resource for the development of educational leaders was considered extremely important by the respondents, a statewide effort between business and education for the development of educational leaders is a possibility in Michigan.

Dedicated to my daughters, Monica and Stacey, whose encouragement, love, patience, and joy never faltered--even when I did. Also to my mother, Helen, whose support, love, and personal accomplishments have been an inspiration to me.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Writing a dissertation is a lonely odyssey. Many individuals helped me to complete my journey.

Dr. Howard Hickey as my academic advisor and dissertation chairperson provided encouragement, advice, and support at every stage. His availability, genuine concern for my progress, and consistent warmth were immeasurable. His patience with my struggles was amazing.

Dr. Cass Heilman and Dr. Cass Gentry gave generously of their time and energy in ways unparalleled for committee members. Each of them always provided the inspiration needed to produce a quality study. Without them my efforts would have been far less. Their belief in what I was doing increased my own.

Dr. Keith Groty and Dr. Phillip Runkel also generously served as committee members. Keith's pragmatic approach and enthusiasm in all phases of my program helped me to keep the perspective necessary to understand the real-world applications. Phil was, as he has always been for me, a mentor, a confidante, an inspiration, and a friend. During the loneliest time of this odyssey, he encouraged and helped me to be, as well as to do.

I am indebted to the directors of the ten corporations who willingly and graciously gave me the time crucial for the basis of

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Study

National attention focused on public education in April 1983
with the publication of <u>A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educa-
tional Reform</u>, the report of the National Commission on Excellence in
Education (NCEE). In essence, the Commission reported:

> Our Nation is at risk. . . . If an unfriendly foreign power
> attempted to impose on America the mediocre educational perform-
> ance that exists today, we might well have viewed it as an act
> of war. As it stands, we have allowed this to happen to
> ourselves. We have, in effect, been committing an act of
> unthinking unilateral educational disarmament. (p. 5)

A plethora of reports soon surfaced after <u>A Nation at Risk</u> was
published. Committees, commissions, and task forces of special
interest groups that had not been previously interested in schools
emerged. Most of them made recommendations for "excellence" that
included quality education as a lifelong process, school-based
leadership and management as a primary factor for excellence, and
improved economic links and support from business and industry
(Gross, 1985). Pipho (1986) reported that the topic of
administration/leadership included reform activity for changes in
certification for administrators; competency testing for all
administrators, or at least for initial certification; evaluation

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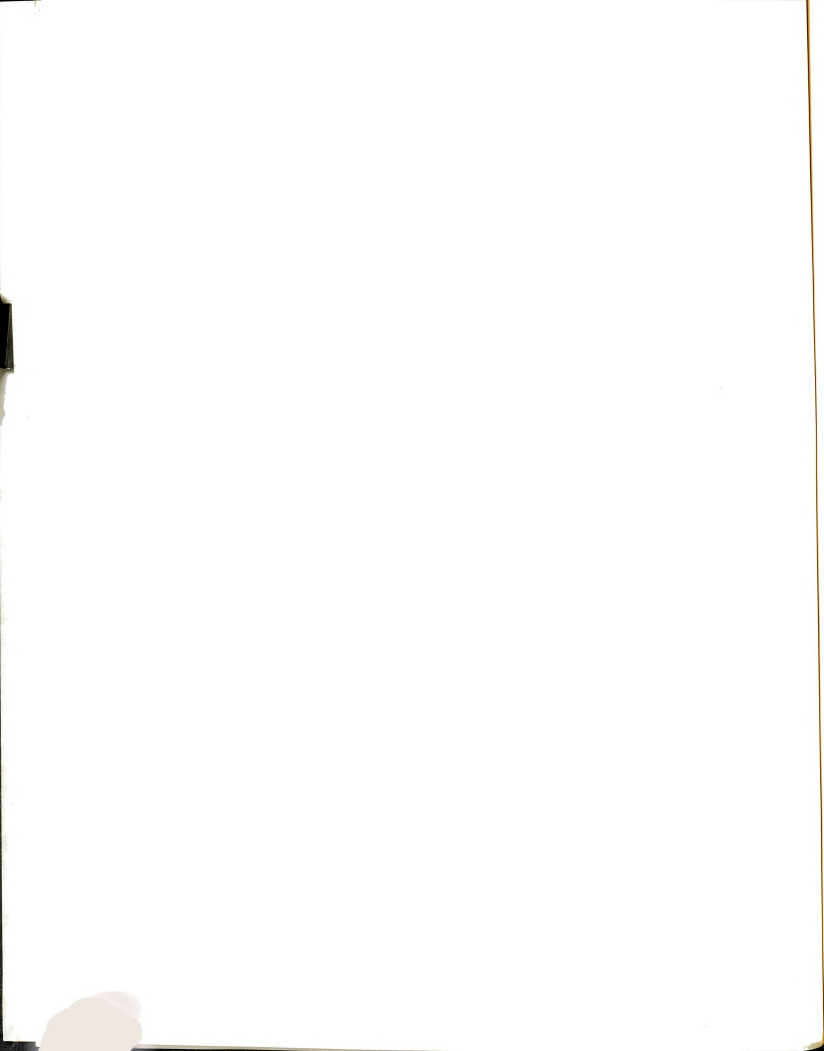
programs for administrators; and establishment of principals'
academies and administrative staff development programs.

The NCEE (1983) challenged the people in the United States to
recognize that those individuals (adults as well as preadults) who do
not possess the skills, literacy, and training essential for this new
era will be disenfranchised from the rewards of competent performance
and will not have the chance to participate fully in the "national
life."

In 1983, the people in the United States began responding to the
alarm sounded by the NCEE. A sense of a town meeting occurred across
the country, and people were willing to consider the issues of
improving teaching and learning for all citizens (Goldberg, 1983).

Bridgeman (1985) reported the results of a survey of educational
reform efforts in many of the states in 1983 and 1984, as did
Rossmiller (1985), who stated:

> Forty-three states raised their high school graduation require-
> ments, 15 required an exit test for high school graduation, and
> 37 instituted some type of state-wide assessment of student per-
> formance. . . . Half the states provided some sort of financial
> aid . . . to prospective teachers. Eighteen states instituted
> across-the-board increases or raised the minimum salary of
> teachers. . . . Thirteen states had placed limits on pupil-
> teacher ratios and seven had established some type of pre-school
> requirement. (pp. 2-3)

Pipho (1986) looked at the reform movement in its fourth year and
noted that the two major surprises were the depth and breadth of
public support for educational reform and "the speed with which state
policy makers--especially governors--took up the mantle of leader-
ship" (p. K-2). Bell (1984) pronounced 1984 as "a turning point in
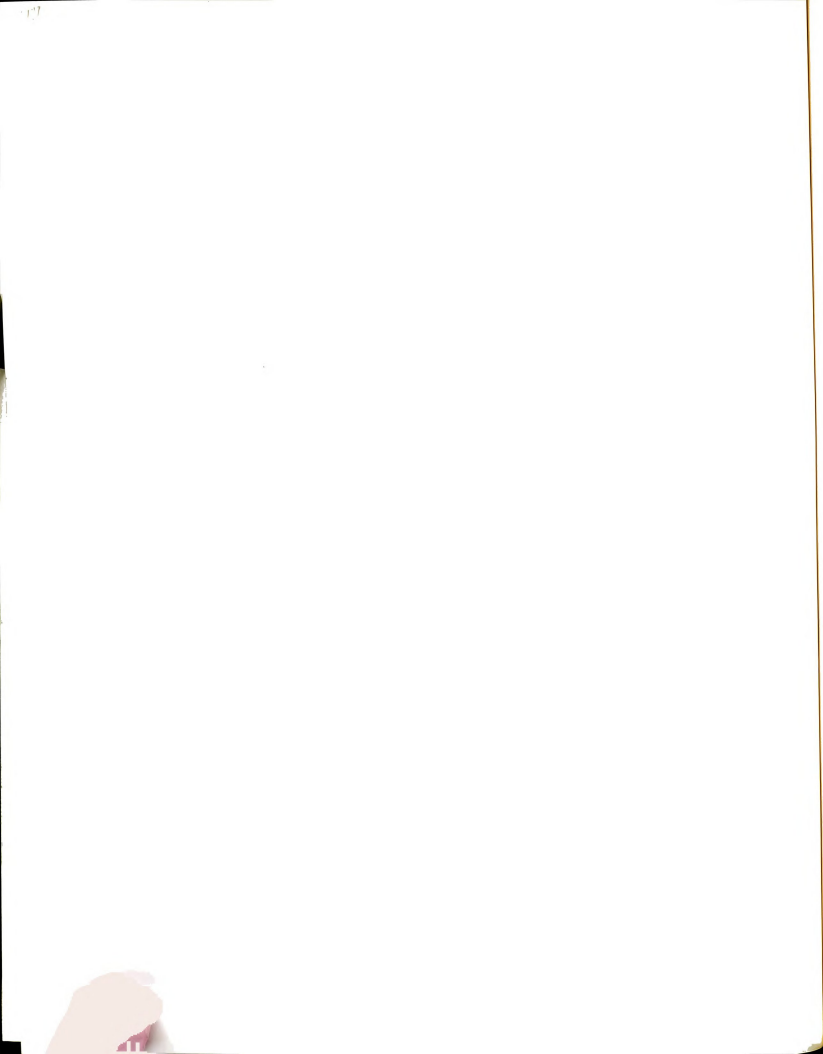
American education" with the reform movement becoming firmly established.

Hechinger (1985) wrote:

The real issue, therefore, is not the rising tide of mediocrity, since that tide is already receding, but rather, what sort of attitudes, policies, and actions are most likely to build on the schools' recent start toward self-improvement. (p. 138)

To build toward self-improvement, change agents must first look at the needs for education in today's society. The first of ten megatrends Naisbitt (1982) enumerated is "a megashift from an industrial to an information-based society." Three years later, he wrote that the "real problem" with education today is that people essentially have the same system that they had in the industrial society and are using it to prepare for the new information age. He continued:

Today's education system--the one some reformers want to elevate to a level of excellence--was never meant to serve the needs of today's information society; it was custom-made to fit the industrial society--a time when it made sense to treat everyone the same. (p. 120)

The educational system that has been described as a primary factor in placing the nation at risk was born in the early nineteenth century as a response to a change in society known as the Industrial Revolution. At the time of the Industrial Revolution, most people were trained to be farmers or skilled craftsmen. But with the invention of the steamboat in 1787 and the cotton gin in 1793, industrial workers began to flock to the cities. By 1815, mills using 500,000 spindles employed 76,000 men, women, and children. The early industrial leaders did not want to repeat what was happening in

England.   Not wanting their workers to be physically degraded or mentally defeated, they began to educate their employees in urban areas.   Industrial education became a strong argument for good free public schools, and it was argued that an enlightened workforce that knew how to read, write, and perform basic mathematical functions could not be oppressed by the industrial leadership.   As early as 1830, the textile manufacturers provided an in-house educational system to improve productivity.   In 1915 the historian Charles Beard (1944) wrote: "American democracy is trying the great experiment of combining learning with what the Greeks regard as the 'vulgar' pursuit of earning a living" (p. 750).

Eurich (1985) traced the corporation school to as early as 1872 and described those in 1914 as a way to Americanize the alien laborers.   In 1913 the National Association of Corporation Schools was formed and grew to 200 corporations.   Corporations were supporters of schools, and their leaders were most often members of public schools' boards.   Only since World War II have corporations not been closely allied with schools.

At a time when the foreign economic challenge to this country has created crises on several fronts (Ross, 1984) and has necessitated a renewed partnership between private enterprise and public education (Martin, 1985), the private sector is spending an estimated $60 billion a year on the education and training of eight million learners within corporations.   Corporate courses and spending are presenting a challenge to the nation's schools (Boyer, 1985). Training and education programs within American businesses have
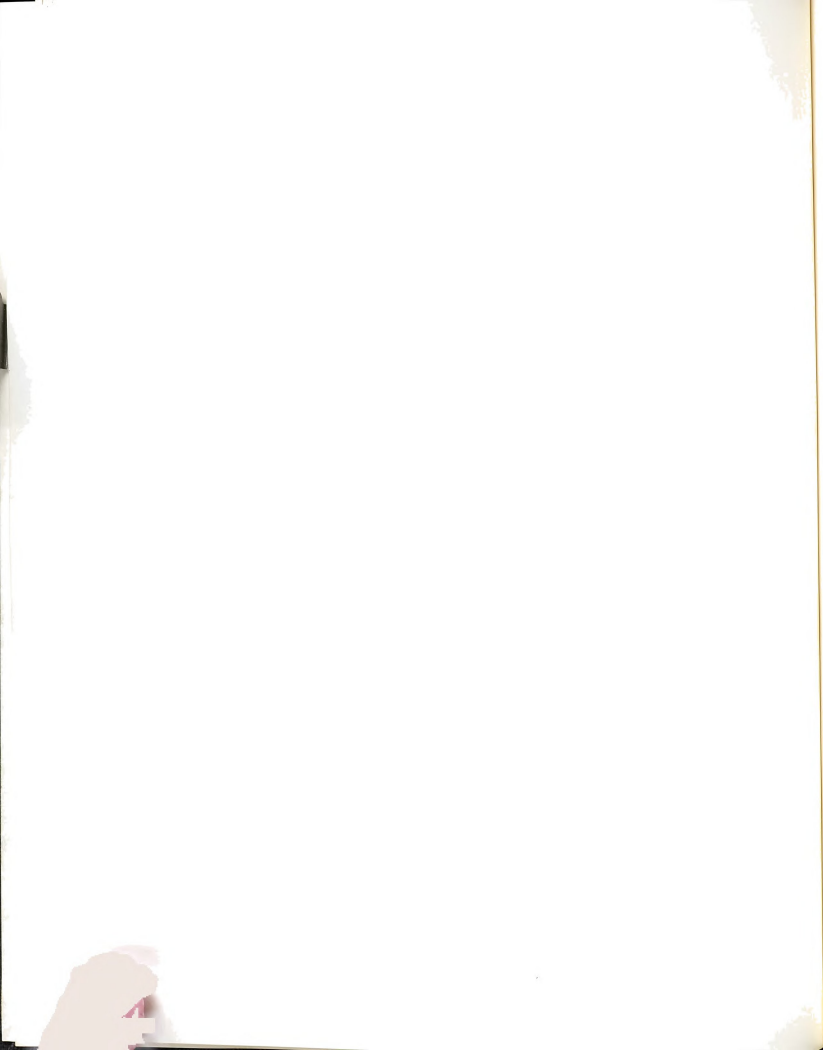
become so vast and extensive that they now represent, in effect, an alternative system to the nation's public schools, colleges, and universities (Naisbitt, 1985). Traditional schools and colleges no longer have a monopoly on education as new technologies have the capacity to bypass the classroom, and corporations can budget education and development programs as a regular cost of doing business with as much as a 50% write-off for a business expense (Eurich, 1985).

As corporations transform themselves into universities, at least 18 award academic degrees; the Rand Corporation offers a Ph.D. program to both employees and nonemployees. A few corporation colleges have long histories, but the privatization of education, with companies having their own education facilities, is, according to Naisbitt (1985), a gap created by widespread public dissatisfaction with America's educational system. Eurich (1985) wrote of these alternative systems of education as sophisticated and having "firmly planted roots" spreading around the world.

Corporations, however, have chosen a dual role in today's society. While their education and training programs have become so vast and competent that they begin to rival traditional educational systems, corporations have also adopted a role as educator-activist with American businesses becoming the new local activists in education. Having become both rival and supporter, the cooperation between universities and corporations has never been stronger (Boyer, 1985; Eurich, 1985; Naisbitt, 1985).
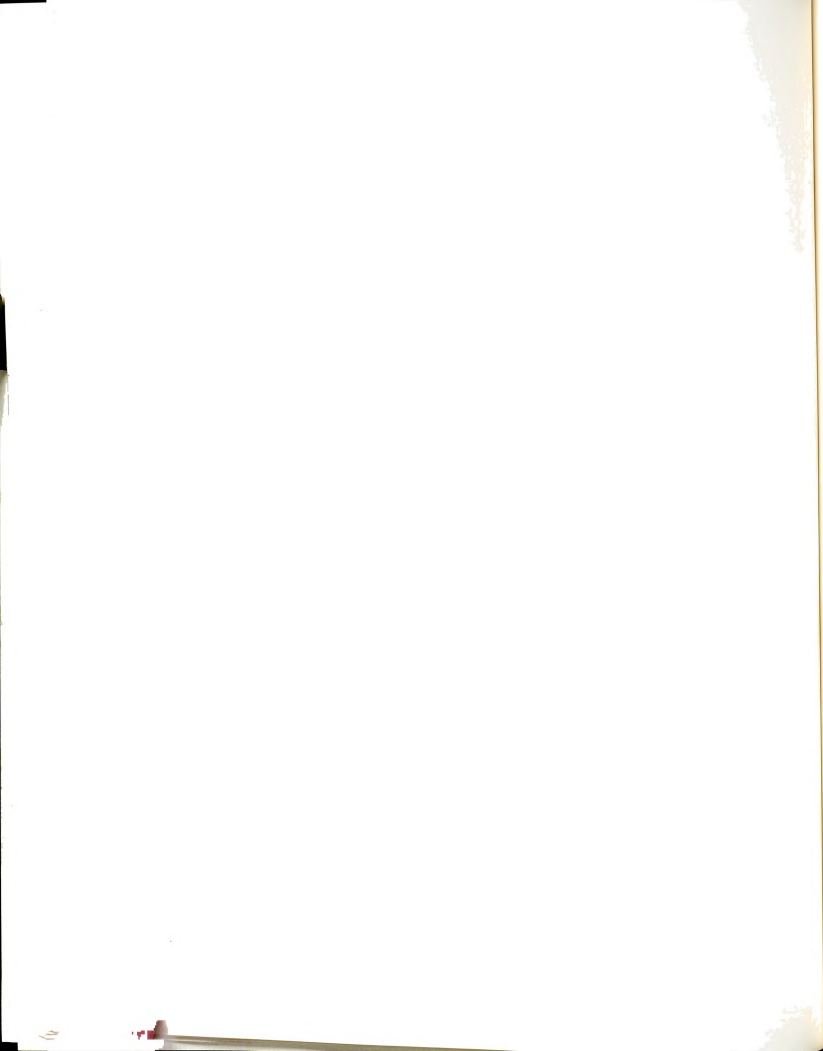
Much has been written about the need for cooperation between the private sector and public schools (Boyer, 1985; Drucker, 1985; Eurich, 1985; Goodlad, 1979; Naisbitt, 1985). The corporations did not embrace their new role as educator to compete with the schools; they meant only to compete with each other. Naisbitt (1985) further wrote:

> When corporations contribute to local education, they are investing in one of the ten considerations for re-inventing the corporation--the shift from infrastructure to quality of life. (p. 177)

The connection between education and the corporate world has in only a few cases translated into large sums of money for K-12 districts. Even the most generous estimates are less than half of 1% of the total cost of elementary and secondary public education. This total amount from corporations is more than is spent every year on school furniture and equipment but much less than is spent to purchase school buses. Schools are raising ten times as much through ticket sales and bake sales as they are through involvement with the private sector (Mann, 1984).

> Enduring political support from business may benefit schools much more than the material contributions they often seek. . . . Though recent activities have modestly enhanced school resources and created some prospects for stable political alliances, most public-private ventures have been narrow, episodic, and superficial. To meet current challenges, schools must take coherent action toward a long-term partnership with business. (Mann, 1984, p. 23)

As society looks to the schools, they look to school leaders to fix what appears to be broken. The United States Senate in 1979 went on record as stating that the educational leader is the most important key to a successful school.

Drucker (1985) also warned that the general public has lost confidence in the schools and that unless the educational managers take the lead in innovation, the public school system is unlikely to survive this century except as a class structure in education in which all but the very poor remain outside of the public system.

Lindahl (1984) wrote that the current rate of technological change will preclude the necessity of being a "master" of all aspects of management but will necessitate the need for all school administrators to know how to learn. The current rate of change will also necessitate learning the fundamentals of management: systems theory, decision theory, understanding of group and individual behavior, and distilled managing experience.

At the same time it has been predicted that businesses will focus 75% of their training efforts on white-collar and management workers (Carnevale & Goldstein, 1983); the challenge of the 1980s is not the retraining of the workers, but the retraining of managers. In the corporation, the manager's new role will be to cultivate and maintain a nourishing environment for personal growth--a role similar to that of the educational manager.

Management as a subject of scholarly interest and research is a product of the twentieth century. Not until then was there sufficient interest in the design of a framework for study, teaching, and research (Mee, 1963). In 1910 Spaulding urged that training of school administrators be based on simple and sound business principles to counteract the weakest phase of the educational
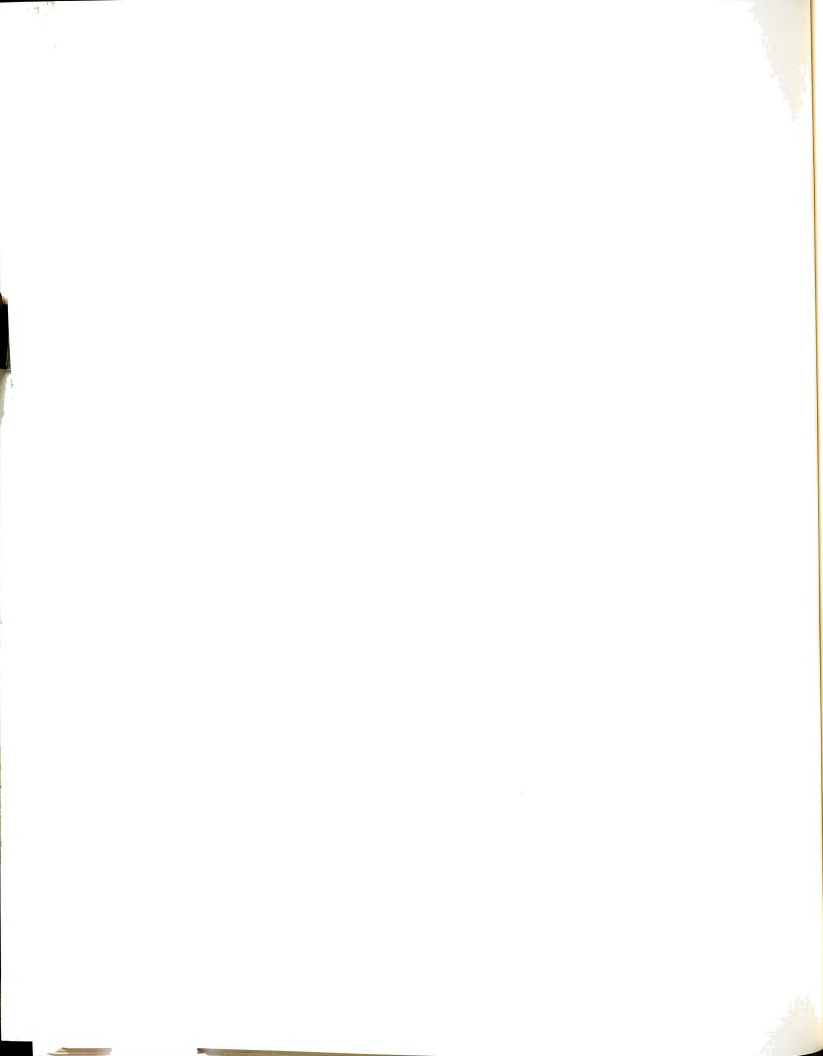
enterprise and to help public education become more efficient. A similar urging is being heard today in Martin's (1985) report for the United States Chamber of Commerce:

> If there is one area in which educators may welcome assistance, it is in planning and management of programs. In many areas in this country, the school administrators are the largest employers. As such, some have budgets, personnel, and facilities that rival their private sector counterparts. Most would readily accept the opportunity to compare and cooperate with local business leaders in discussing various management techniques, procedures, forms, and computer technology. By sharing expertise, the process of improving local schools becomes an active public private partnership. (p. 39)

Peters and Austin (1985) dedicated A Passion for Excellence to innovative business leaders everywhere and devoted a chapter to excellence in school leadership. They took the framework and findings of businesses in their research and applied them to the school setting, doing so for several reasons including the fact that school leadership and management are obviously important, and the subject of excellence in education is high on the national agenda. Peters and Austin were struck by the traits shared by excellent leaders in education and found those same traits shared by excellent leaders in business. In their writing they acknowledged that common sense is often missing from businesses today and, based on Lightfoot's (1983) research, concluded that good school administrators exhibit good common sense.

The NCEE recommended that principals and superintendents play a key role in developing reforms for excellence and suggested that leaders from the private sector respond to and support leaders in education. Schools need allies in preparing educational leaders for

the societal shifts that are occurring. Since the fields of business management and educational administration share an interest in preparing and developing leaders of major institutions in our society, many fields of learning can contribute to this development (Drucker, 1969; Yukl, 1982).

> Research to date has revealed that human behavior, as a result of organizational life, manifests remarkable similarities as one moves from hospital to school to retail store to welfare agency, and to military units. Teachers and nurses for example react similarly to dysfunctional efforts of status hierarchies within their respective organizations. Accountants, middle managers in business and industry and teachers report remarkably similar orientations to satisfying and dissatisfying factors in their work. . . . Conflict between line and staff officers occurs in schools in the same manner and probably with the same regularity as it does in military, business, and industrial organizations. Thus, while the school administrator is particularly concerned with one kind of formal organization, his vision may very well be improved by studying organizations in general. (Sergiovanni, 1969, p. ix)

Statement of the Problem

The purpose that guided this researcher was to examine (a) the similarities in the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs with the competencies seen as important in school-building management as reported by principals and superintendents and (b) the conditions for a management-development partnership effort between industry and education.

Private-sector industry has influenced educational leadership since the early 1900s (Griffith, 1979; Mee, 1963). From Frederick Taylor (1917) to Tom Peters (1985), educational leaders have emulated their peers in the private sector (Griffith, 1979), but the influence of business on education has not been limited to influencing early
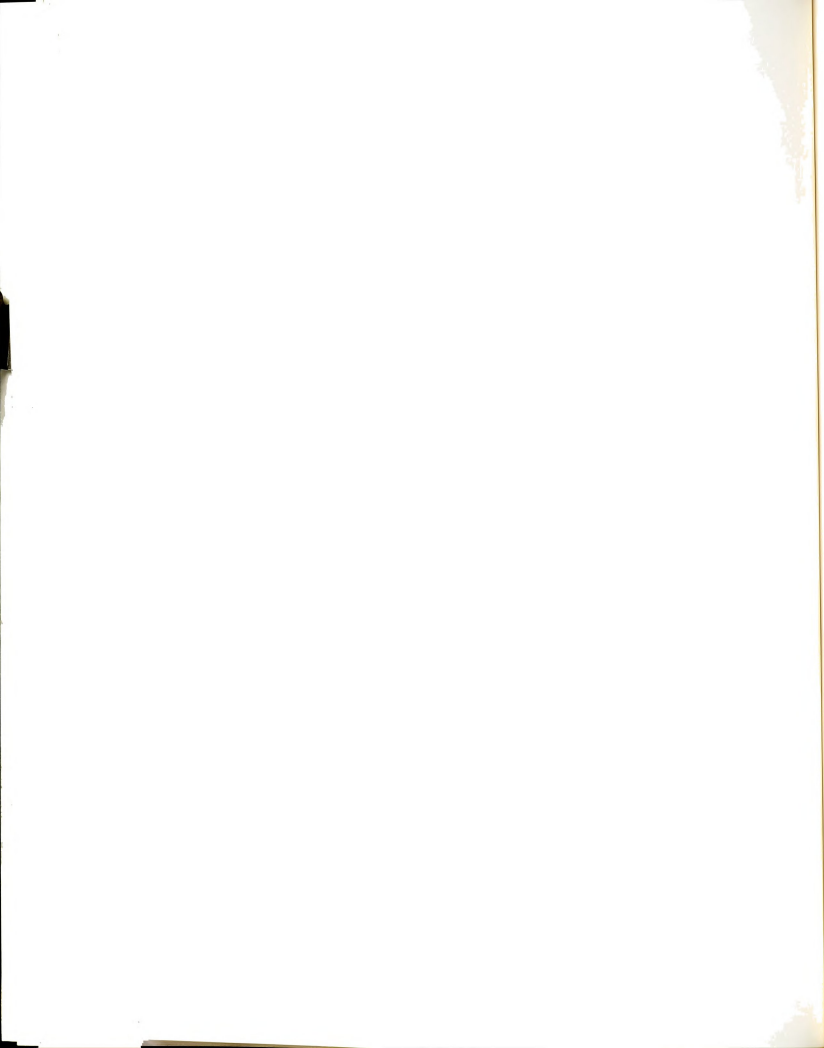
educational leadership styles. As the industrial revolution moved work activity away from the family and small town to the impersonal urban community, industrialists took responsibility for the welfare of their employees and provided the education needed for the transition from the agrarian age to the industrial age (Eurich, 1985).

In 1946 the Kellogg Foundation entered the field of public school administration with a grant of $3 million to develop programs to professionalize the position of superintendent of schools. During a ten-year period in the 1950s, the Kellogg Foundation gave more than $6 million to projects for the improvement and study of school administration (Moore, 1957).

The publication of A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (NCEE, 1983) sparked a renewed interest in the involvement of the private business sector with public education. In its report, Action for Excellence, the Task Force on Education for Economic Growth (1983) made explicit the link between the state of the schools and the economy of the United States.

While corporate education training programs have become so vast that they begin to rival traditional educational systems, American businesses have become the new activists in education (Naisbitt, 1985). The challenge for business in the 1980s is the retraining of managers (Carnevale, 1983), and educators may welcome the assistance of businesses in the planning and management of programs (Martin, 1985).
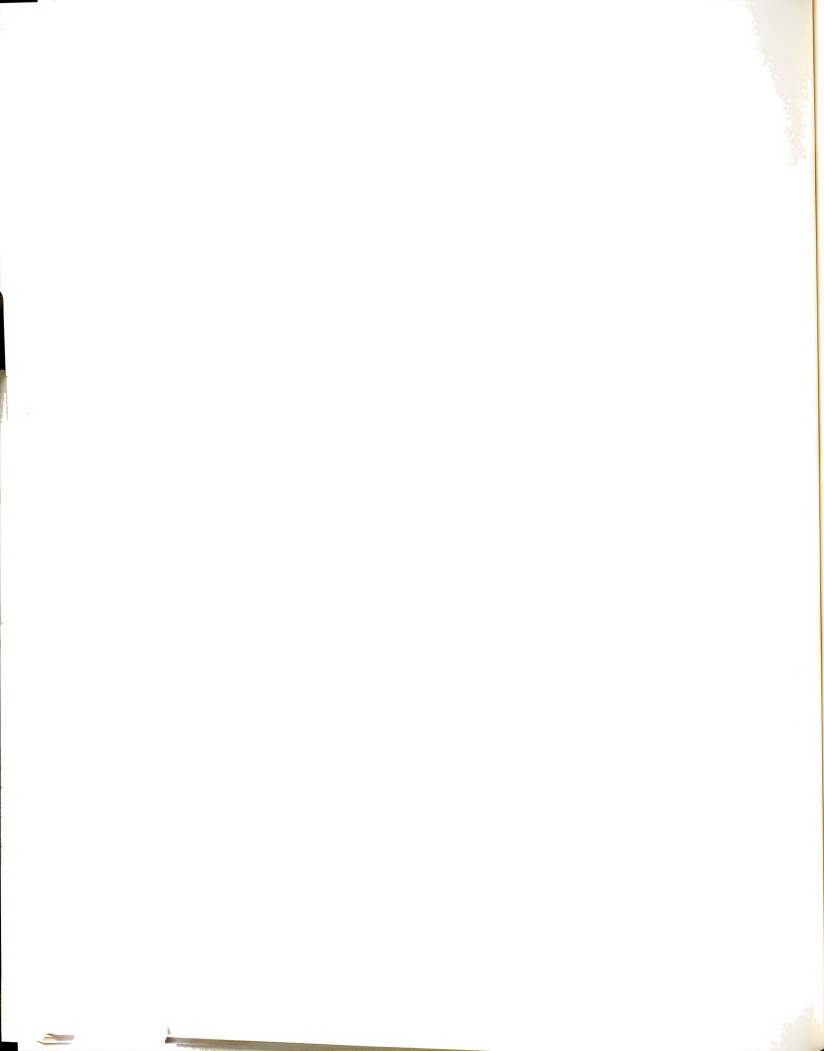
The concern that a stable, consistent exchange between education and business be focused at the leadership level, and then expand to the classroom, speaks to a managerial resource exchange (Mann, 1984; Martin, 1984; Riddley, 1985). To exchange expertise in the form of training resources without first exploring the skills that may be the foundation for the exchange may lead to widening the gap of misunderstanding between business and education. Assumptions may be drawn from the literature, but more specific data are needed to facilitate a systematic management partnership.

Therefore, this writer examined ten management-development programs in the private sector to determine the competencies that are being developed/supported in those programs. She also sought agreement as to the importance of those competencies being needed in school-building administration, as reported by principals and superintendents. The researcher explored the conditions expressed as important in a partnership training effort between educational administrators and private-sector management-development programs.

Need for the Study

A key element for reducing the "at risk" factor for this nation is to help schools prepare students for the new information-based society (Boyer, 1985; Goodlad, 1983; Hodgkinson, 1985; Hunt, 1983; Naisbitt, 1985), and educational managers remain the key for the effectiveness of this process. The need for cooperation between private-sector businesses and public-sector schools has been identified as a vital force in helping education become the quality

institution necessary for the United States to remain competitive in the world's economy and increase the quality of life for its citizens (Drucker, 1985; Mann, 1984; Robb, 1985).

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States identified four key areas of opportunity for business and education cooperation: (a) political action, (b) business volunteers, (c) planning and management programs, and (d) recognition and awards (Martin, 1985). As corporations spend more than $60 billion a year on education and development (Boyer, 1985; Carnevale, 1982) and concentrate on the training of managers (Carnevale, 1986), educational leaders may begin to look to their private-sector counterparts as allies in the transition to an information-based society by accessing their managerial training resources pertinent to education.

The Angus (1986) study for the University of Michigan found that 41% of school administrators in Michigan are eligible to retire by 1989. Angus's survey indicated that two-thirds of those eligible to retire plan to retire. Angus projected this figure to 1990 when, he predicted, 1,570 administrators will have left the field by virtue of retirement. This, coupled with a new set of credentialing require-ments in Michigan, will create a formidable task of training and retraining school administrators.

The literature included studies on managerial styles (Halpin et al., 1963) and managerial tasks (Kmetz, 1982; Lake, 1981; Luthans, 1983; Manesse, 1985; Martin, 1981; Mintzberg, 1973). Processes used in private-sector inservice training have been compared with processes used in public education inservice training (McKee, 1981),

as well as comparison of the percentage of time devoted to management functions (Guziewski, 1984), but the research does not reflect an examination of the similarities in skills delivered in private-sector management-development programs with the skills important in school-building administration. Nor does the literature reflect an examination of the conditions necessary for delivery of management-development activities in a partnership effort. This study may prove to be of value in the future training of school administrators and may enhance the partnership effort presently occurring in Michigan.

Purpose

The purpose of this research was to identify the competencies in private-sector management-development programs as competencies important in school-building administration as reported by principals and superintendents. In addition, the researcher sought to identify the conditions under which private-sector management-development program managers would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators as well as the conditions under which school district administrators would be willing to enter into a management-development partnership with the private sector. Finally, the researcher sought to determine if educational leaders considered a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs an important resource for the development of school-building administrators.
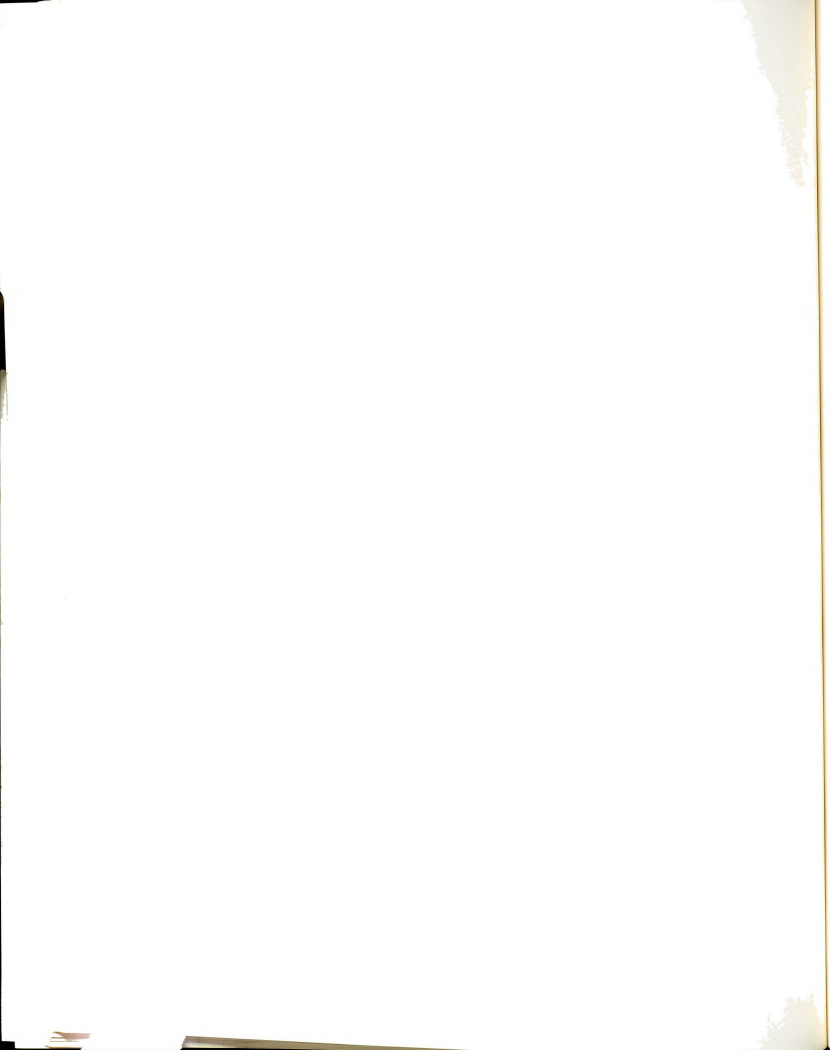
Research Questions

The four major questions and their subsets in this study were:

1.   Are the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs considered important competencies for school-building administration by principals and superintendents?

What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

a.   School district size
b.   Principals or superintendents
c.   Age of respondents
d.   Gender of respondents
e.   Elementary or secondary principals
f.   Geographic location of district
g.   Number of years in current position
h.   Number of years in present district
i.   Total years as a building principal

2.   If given the opportunity to participate in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector, what conditions are identified as important by principals and superintendents?

What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

a.   School district size
b.   Principals or superintendents
c.   Age of respondents
d.   Gender of respondents
e.   Elementary or secondary principals
f.   Geographic location of district
g.   Number of years in current position
h.   Number of years in present district
i.   Total years as a building principal

3.   Are there any conditions under which directors of private-sector management-development programs would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators?

4.   Do principals and superintendents consider a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs an

important resource for the development of school-building adminis-
trators?

Assumptions

In dealing with the problem and attempting to answer the research questions, the following assumptions were basic to the theoretical and conceptual foundations behind this study:

1. Private-sector management-development programs are of value in the development of managers and leaders in business.

2. Public school administrators are interested in management development.

3. A mutual understanding of the terms, concepts, and competencies exists.

4. Both the private-sector leaders and public school leaders have sufficient interest in a partnership effort to respond to this research.

5. A group of individuals exists whose perceptions regarding the importance of the competencies are likely to be reliable.

6. The results of this study may prove of value in furthering the partnership effort between the public schools and private enterprise.

Limitations

The limitations of this study that were obvious to the researcher are:

1. The terminology describing the identified competencies in private-sector management-development programs may have different meanings for administrators in public schools.

2. The ten management-development programs in population one had a minimum of 1,000 employees and were not representative of small business enterprises.

3. A survey is dependent on the subject's perception of terminology and needs.

4. No attempt was made to qualify the competencies for every corporation.

Definition of Terms

Competency. "The presence of characteristics or the absence of disabilities which render a person fit or qualified to perform a specific task or to assume a defined role" (McCleary, 1973, p. 2). "Competencies deal with the manager's intents or motives, actions and outcomes. . . . Competencies are observable in action as individuals become aware, perceive and interact with stimuli in the organization and environment" (Boyatzis, 1982).

Administration. "The sum of all the ideas, techniques, procedures, and processes which are employed to help an organization maintain, control, and coordinate formally and informally organized human and material resources for achieving its predetermined goals" (Banki, 1974, p. 5).

Management. "A collective term that refers to the system, function, process or office of planning, providing coordinating,

directing, evaluating, and controlling all available efforts and resources of an organization for the accomplishment of the objective and policies which are designated by and handed from the top executive of the organization" (Banki, 1974, p. 121).

Training. "Usually a formal process of developing in employees the skills, knowledge, habits and attitudes necessary for the successful attainment of the objectives and policies of the organization" (Banki, 1974, p. 187).

Development. "Preparing the employee so he can move with the organization as it develops, changes, and grows. The result could be a new job at a higher level or an expansion of the current activities of the employee into new fields which are as yet undetermined" (Nadler, 1979, p. 88).

Partnership. "An ongoing joint venture between interdependent partners, each contributing value to a common enterprise, each sharing in the opportunities and risks (profits and losses), and each gaining access to future growth in specified proportions" (Zinser, 1986, p. 5).

Principal. The "executive officer of a school" (Campbell, Corbally, & Nystrand, 1983, p. 68).

Superintendent. The "chief or top executive of the school district" (Campbell et al., 1983, p. 68).

Leader. "The individual who secures the cooperation of others toward goal achievement in a particular setting. . . . The individual who directs the full range of managerial responsibility" (Campbell et al., 1983, p. 125). For the purpose of this study, the terms

"leader," "administrator," and "manager" are used synonymously (Bittel, 1978).

NASSP. The National Association of Secondary School Principals, a professional organization whose membership is primarily secondary school administrators.

Business. "A person, partnership, or corporation engaged in commerce, manufacturing, or a service; profit-seeking enterprise or concern" (Random House Dictionary, 1967, p. 201).

Summary of Chapter I

The educational system that has served the United States since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the early nineteenth century is being reviewed and revised for the transition of the economic structure into what is being termed the information-based society. Beginning with the publication of A Nation at Risk: The Implications for Educational Reform (NCEE, 1983), public attention has been focused on the need for excellence in the schools as one of the ways to address the current economic challenge to the United States, and educational leaders are seen as the key to excellence in education.

At a time when the need for cooperation between private-sector business and public-sector schools has been identified as a vital force in helping education address a renewed challenge, corporations are choosing the dual role of educator-activist. In 1984 more than $60 billion a year was spent on the education and training of learners within corporations. A prediction is that businesses will

focus 75% of their training budget and efforts on white-collar and management training. Leadership academies have been created in many states for the continued training and retraining of educational managers, some of which have a component including the private sector as a resource for management development.

The purpose of this study was to identify those competencies in selected private-sector management-development programs that are seen as important in the management of a school and to identify those conditions under which superintendents, principals, and management-development program directors would be willing to enter into a training partnership effort. The researcher also attempted to determine the importance of a management-development partnership to principals and superintendents.

Overview of the Study

The background for this study was developed in Chapter I. This background included an introduction to the study, statement of the problem and need for the study, research questions, underlying assumptions and limitations, and a definition of terms.

A selected review of literature related to the study is presented in Chapter II. This review is divided into four major areas: (a) early influences of business on education, (b) partnerships between business and education, (c) leadership/management functions in business and education, and (d) the education and development of managers.

In Chapter III a description of the research design is presented. The discussion includes background information, development of the research instruments, the sampling procedures for selection of participants in both samples, a statement of the research questions, and methods used in collecting and analyzing the data.

The analysis of the data is described in Chapter IV. The statistical procedures used are described, and the results are discussed.

Chapter V includes a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations for use of the data, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

SELECTED REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

<u>Introduction</u>

The schools are an organized means of inducting the young into
our culture. Such an operation poses the constant question,
what culture? Education helps to answer such a question. Thus,
the schools serve continuously as an agency by which society
examines itself, and redirects itself in terms of what it
determines to be good. . . . Common elements permeate both the
school and its community and are numerous and strong. The kind
of community, physically and psychologically, and its decisions
about education are the dominant influences on the school. In
turn, the influence of the good school changes the community.
(Miller, Madden, & Kincheloe, 1972, p. 1)

The interdependence of the school and the community will

continue to be a vital factor in the future of the United States as

education extends beyond the traditional K-12 schooling and continues

into the workplace for millions of Americans.

At a time when members of the community are looking to

educational leaders to assure excellence in education, schools are

looking to the community for renewed support, cooperation, and

appropriate future strategic direction. A cooperative effort is

needed to produce a workforce that will keep the competitive edge in

the economic world market.

A contribution to the field requires knowledge of the field.

This study examines aspects of the interface between schools and the

business community in a historical and present-oriented perspective.

The selected review of the literature is divided into the following sections: (a) early influences of business on educational management, (b) partnerships between business and education, (c) leadership/ management in business and education, and (d) the education and development of managers.

Early Influences of Business on Educational Management

Management as a subject of scholarly interest and research is a product of the twentieth century. Not until then was there sufficient interest in the design of a framework for study, teaching, and research (Mee, 1963). Although no one really knows when the concept of administration began, informal studies of writings about administrative tasks have existed for years. The Egyptians, the Greeks, and the Chinese wrote about their leaders, but the study of administration as a separate entity is a fairly recent development. Griffith (1979) credited Woodrow Wilson, an instructor at Princeton, with beginning the modern study of administration in 1887. Wilson argued that executive method should be based on principles, not empiricism, and his essay "The Study of Administration" stimulated others to search for principles for a science of administration.

Schools were seen as organizations that also needed competent managers and were influenced by the needs of industry. Industrialization was the greatest force in the focus on the schools. By 1910, 14 million immigrants had flocked to the cities, resulting in a unprecedented rapid growth rate for both cities and schools. In 1870 there were only a few administrators in education, but the

growth of the schools created a change in the concept of administration and an increase in the number of school critics. Journalists believed that a reform movement would come from an aroused and informed public, and school administration became the focus of their writing. Beginning in 1911, hardly a month passed for two years in which an article complaining about the management of schools was not published (Mee, 1963).

The economy-minded public, in wanting to cut costs and make schools more efficient and effective, looked to the business and industrial leaders to make schools work. By that time business leaders were America's folk heroes, holding positions of both prestige and power (Miller et al., 1972), and Frederick Taylor had created a new method for increasing efficiency and means of achievement. According to Taylor (1947), the principal objective of management should be the achievement of material prosperity for both the employer and the employee. Consequently, management had a responsibility to compel workers to accept regimented methods by setting definite tasks each day and determining the time allowed for completion. Scientific management was applied to many fields besides industry, including education (Griffith, 1979; Mee, 1963; Miller et al., 1972).

Scientific management had a powerful effect on American education from 1912 to 1925 (Griffith, 1979). The three forces of rising costs, business ethos, and scientific management combined to force discussion about increased efficiency and lowered costs in

public education. Administrators soon found themselves adopting scientific methods as appropriate models and became managers, not educational leaders (Miller et al., 1972).

> The superintendency fell a victim to the cult of efficiency. Until the early part of the twentieth century, a superintendent was considered an educational leader, concerned primarily with the improvement of instruction. By 1925, however, the superintendency had become a managerial position rather than an educational one. Superintendents were looked upon as experts in the business aspects of education, the nuts and bolts of management, rather than as educators. This role change was in part the result of the increasing size and complexity of school systems, conflicting pressures from external sources, and the ever-increasing financial aspects of the position. As a consequence, training programs for school administrators stressed courses in school finance, building management, and public relations instead of philosophy and the liberal arts. Education was looked on as a business and the superintendent as a business executive. (Griffith, 1979, p. 13)

Two strong proponents of business principles in educational leadership were George Strayer and Frank Spaulding. Strayer was the first to apply Thorndike's basic statistical techniques to the work of educational administration. He wanted to achieve for his graduate program at Teachers College, Columbia University, the prestige and responsibility of other professions such as law and medicine by advocating that professional training should provide students with the necessary skills for the job. The two most influential organizations of the time, the National Society for the Study of Education and the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, strongly supported applying Taylor's doctrines to education (Griffith, 1979).

Russell (1922) compared the necessity of skill development in the training of school administrators with the skill of binding a

wound as necessary for a physician. He stated that even though the binding of a wound is not a test of intelligence, no medical school would graduate a physician without that ability. Russell then proposed that educational administration must have certain basic skills that are not controlled by an academic or research faculty. Madden wrote that the preoccupation with scientific management may have done a disservice to the field of education because it prevented a more in-depth study of administration (Miller et al., 1972).

In the 1930s, the results of the Depression precipitated doubts about both the political and economic systems of the United States. As American values were championed, schools became the focus of democratic values. As members of society became disenchanted with business, the emphasis became social consciousness in education, and a human relations approach emerged. The growing strength of labor unions focused attention on the human element in the workplace and in the schools. Mary Parker Follett (1924) was motivated by the concern for the individual as a concomitant of the production process at the same time that Mayo was discovering serendipity at Western Electric (Wren, 1972).

Mayo's Hawthorne effect began the human relations school movement. Although workers were no longer treated like machines, in many cases they were psychologically manipulated like animals. The fundamental problems of alienation were not eliminated, but lives were ameliorated (Miller & Form, 1954). John Dewey (1916) was making statements similar to Follett's in proposing that an ideal school will prepare students for life by having them live in a microcosm, a

miniature society, a democratic climate. Terms not heard before in education--like democratic, rapport, morale, and contented--became buzzwords. Principals were interested in being liked and were often accused of tolerating incompetence and neglect, which had a negative effect on the students. To silence critics' contention that quality suffered with a democratic climate in the schools, experiments by Lewin, Lippitt, and White (Lippitt, 1962) confirmed that a democratic leadership style is best for group achievement. Administrators were then reinforced to model Dewey's democracy for the students.

The business community began to emphasize the study of administration in the context of organizations. The successful manager was thought to balance both individual and organizational needs. Chester Barnard (1938) was both a practitioner and a scholar. He emphasized the study of administration in the context of the whole organization as units of interaction with the environment, and the function of the manager was to serve as a channel of communication. According to Barnard, management's first task was the goals of the organization. Acknowledging that functioning of the organization depended on workers completing required tasks, Barnard nevertheless cautioned that quality could not be forsaken for individual fulfillment.

Following the "benchmark works" of Barnard, the new work was directed at empirical research resulting in a renewed emphasis on academic training rather than practical experience for students of administration (Miller et al., 1972).
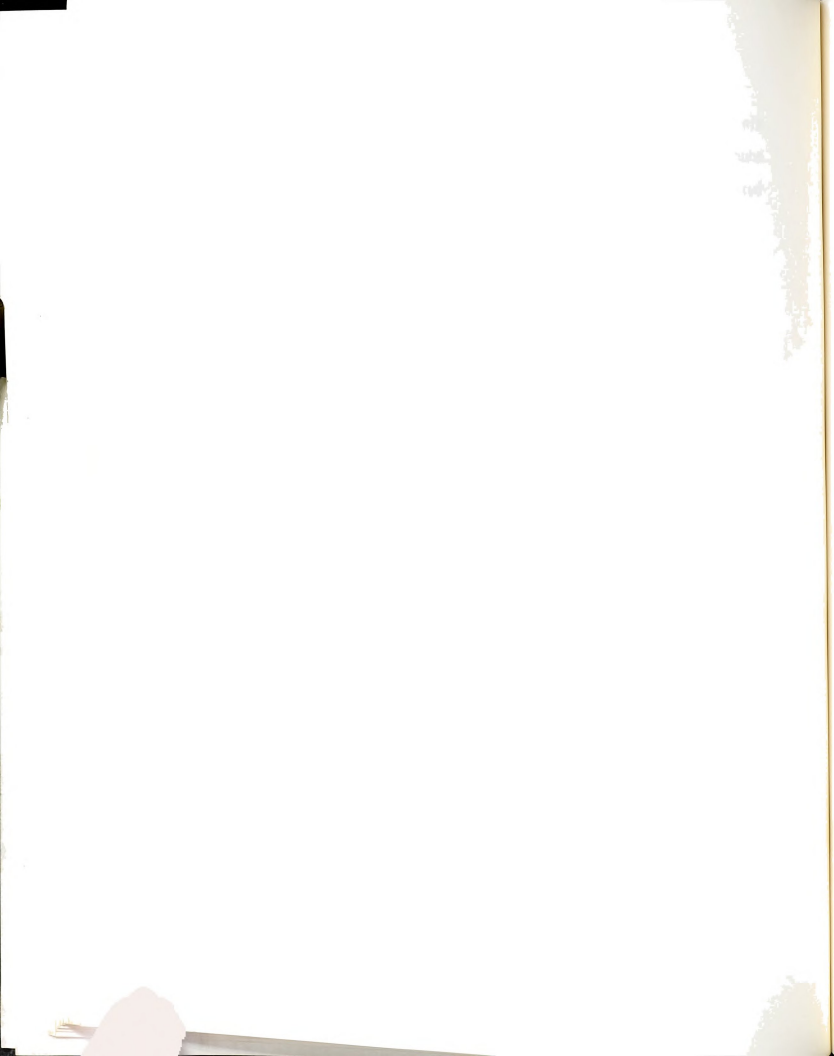
The mood of the country changed again after World War II, and educational administration, along with private-sector businesses, began to exhibit that change. The trend of the 1950s was groups of people working together with less emphasis on individual great men as leaders. Both organizational needs and human needs became the responsibility of the manager, and the style of the leader became the focus of research and theory (Wren, 1972). Educational leadership, as a field of study, was also undergoing "radical change." Before 1950, the definition of the field was modeled after Moehlman's (1940) work. However, in 1959, Daniel Griffiths wrote that the field was no longer neatly defined, and education once again reflected business in the emphasis on the style of the leader.

In the 1920s, trait theory was empirically researched in the United States, and a successful leader was defined in terms of how his personal characteristics influenced the group (Burke, 1980). Stodgill, however, in 1948 reviewed 124 trait studies that found leader characteristics by several cluster items that could be identified as participation, status, situation, achievement, responsibility, and capacity. With Stodgill's publication in 1948 came a turning point in the study of leadership from a study of traits in the leader to a study of the situation in which the leader performed. Specific situational analyses dominated the field, with the assertion that adaptation is the key to successful leadership and the successful leader adapts behavior to fit the situation (Burke, 1980). Since the trait approach was out of favor, an attempt was made to study the behaviors rather than the traits of a leader--a

description of the behavior of the individual as the leader of the group.

In 1945, Shartle organized the Ohio State Leadership Studies. Hemphill (1949), who had initiated work at the University of Maryland before joining Shartle's group, developed a list of approximately 1,800 items describing different aspects of leader behavior. These items were divided into nine categories and became the first form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. After several factor analyses, the subscales measured two different patterns of behavior rather than the nine proposed: consideration and initiation of structure (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Consideration was the extent to which a leader exhibited concern for the welfare of the other members of the group, and initiation of structure was the extent to which a leader initiated activity in the group toward goal attainment (Halpin, 1967).

Halpin (1967) applied the Leader Behavior Description questionnaire to school settings. Not being satisfied with those two factors, he extracted four factors in the behavior of principals. Halpin is credited with providing insight into the necessary elements in school climate--leader behavior and teacher response. The leader-behavior dimensions of initiation and consideration are not to be conceived as traits of leadership but simply describe the behavior of a leader as he operates in a given situation. The importance of the followers' perceptions of the leader's effectiveness with the group continued to emerge (Halpin, 1967), as well as an emphasis on the

leader's beliefs about the needs of the workers (Herzberg, 1959; Maslow, 1968; McGregor, 1966).

Effective organizations contain motivated human beings. While the nature of the organization is to structure member roles and control performance to achieve specific goals, the individual's nature is to be self-directed and seek fulfillment through initiative and responsibility. The leadership in an effective organization will provide followers with a means to make a creative contribution as a natural outgrowth of their needs for self-expression, maturity, and growth. Conflict between the formal organizational needs and the individual needs will decrease with an effective leader (Argyris, 1957).

Likert (1961), like Argyris (1957), wrote that leaders must take into account the followers and provide exercise of initiative as well as a sense of personal worth for necessary goal achievement. Likert and his associates at the University of Michigan conducted 40 studies in school systems and concluded that a setting with democratic interaction between leader and followers achieved superior educational result (Likert, 1961).

Educational theorists (Campbell, 1977; Griffith, 1977; Griffiths, 1959) continued to use theories and practices of business leaders as a model for educational administration. Staff-development programs and college and university management programs in both the school of business and education today reflect and use the writings of the new "management historians" such as Bennis (1985), Kanter (1983), Naisbitt (1982), and Peters (1982). Peters and Austin (1985)

cited Lightfoot's research to demonstrate the similarities in the behavior of excellent leaders in education and excellent leaders in business. At this writing, it appears that the United States is undergoing a new shift in management theory to include innovation, team building, and a renewed emphasis on the leader in shaping the culture of the organization. Schools as well as businesses are being recognized as organizations in need of strong leadership (Drucker, 1985; Robb, 1985; Yukl, 1982).

Partnerships Between Business and Education

What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all of its children. (Dewey, 1900)

The influence of business on education has not been limited to influencing early educational leadership styles. Private-sector support and effect on public education has been demonstrated in various ways since the beginning of public education in the eighteenth century.

At the time of the Industrial Revolution, most people in the United States were farmers or skilled laborers, and work activity was centered in the local town or village. Family life was an integral factor in the worklife (Gardiner, 1785; in Eurich, 1985). The Industrial Revolution moved work activity away from the family and small town to the impersonal urban community. Having a scarcity of workers, early industrialists took responsibility for the welfare of their employees. With no public education system, the industrialists had to provide the education needed for the transition from the

agrarian age to the industrial age. Not wanting to repeat the pattern of physical degradation and mental defeat of factory workers in England, early industrialists began the scheme of factory communities. Because workers in the cities were not plentiful, young women from New England farms became the bulk of the early workforce, and female boarding schools provided a transition from the farm to the workplace. Facing a human resource crisis, the early industrialists saw their schools as a way to move many workers successfully from the small towns into the cities (Eurich, 1985).

Worker groups wanted an enlightened workforce to be in a better position to deal with an oppressive factory system, and they began a strong argument for good free public schools that would teach reading, writing, and arithmetic to every child. Corporation schools were early schools conducted by the corporation to Americanize alien laborers, with technical schools being run by the corporation on corporate time leading to a certificate representing a degree of mastery.

Historically, the private sector's involvement with public education has been translated into financial support for educational endeavors. In 1930 the Kellogg Foundation provided funds to improve school programs in seven rural counties in Michigan. The Foundation conducted summer training programs for administrators to help teachers and administrators understand child development. The Kellogg Foundation's advanced committee in education was concerned about the quality of life for young children and recommended that the Foundation enter the field of public school administration since the

role of school administrators in community leadership was stressed (Miller et al., 1972).

In 1946 the Kellogg Foundation entered the field of public school administration with a grant of $3 million to develop programs to professionalize the position of superintendent of schools (Griffith, 1979). The Kellogg Foundation and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) joined in the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration and financed five regional conferences in 1948-49 taking place throughout the United States. Public school (K-12) administrators and university professors were concurrently involved in discussion and consideration of educational administration as a field of study and development.

During a ten-year period in the 1950s, the Kellogg Foundation gave more than $6 million to projects for the improvement and study of school administration. Several of these projects concentrated on the development of theoretical approaches to educational administration. Orin Graff at the Southern States Center at George Peabody College is credited with having the greatest influence in shaping the direction of the theoretical inquiry. The Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago had as one of its objectives under a Kellogg grant to formulate a general theory of administration to guide practice and research. A leading figure in the Chicago Cooperative Project in Educational Administration (CPEA) was Jacob Getzels, whose project described administration as a social process in which behavior is conceived as a function of both the

nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of the social system (Griffiths, 1959).

Moore (1957) wrote of the Kellogg-funded CPEA as being the most significant vitalizing influence in the field of educational administration. He listed the accomplishments as:

1. School administration preparation programs in universities were altered and improved.

2. National programs produced new literature in school administration.

3. Young, new leaders in school administration were discovered and encouraged to contribute to the preparation of professional school administrators.

4. The establishment of professional solidarity and sanctions committees for the advancement of university councils for educational administration.

The Rockefeller Foundation, the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, and the New Orleans Public Schools initiated a Middle-Management Center to provide for the improvement of schools as organizations through the development of collaborative arrangements linking middle managers in the schools, professors, and practitioners from management roles in private enterprise. The objectives were to have theorists become more involved in field-based efforts and to enable principals to become better informed and more skilled in assessing needs and strategies to accomplish management priorities (Dolese, 1979).

The publication of <u>A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform</u> (NCEE, 1983) sparked a renewed interest in the involvement of the business sector with public education. The common theme of this report, and those that followed or reflected it, was the theme of excellence. The alarm sounded to warn the public that the shortcomings of the schools are tied to a faltering economy and that excellence is required to keep America competitive (Gross, 1985). In the past, a few large corporations provided some financial support of school programs, but only recently have businesses and schools addressed the definition of partnership--the sharing of an endeavor or effort (Miller et al., 1972).

Four of the major reports on education in the 1980s focused on the need for school improvement (<u>America's Competitive Challenge</u>, Business--Higher Education Forum, 1983; <u>High School</u>, Boyer, 1983; <u>Action for Excellence</u>, Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983), and <u>A Nation at Risk</u>, NCEE, 1983). As articles in journals and periodicals suggested that leaders from the private sector must respond to the alarm sounded for America's schools, the business community expressed concern that involvement with education at all levels is essential to long-term economic growth (Gross, 1985).

> The nation's economic future is taking shape in schools throughout the country. Why? The answer is as simple as ABC: high-quality goods and services depend on high-quality producers. To ensure a sound, competitive economy, American business and industry must be able to draw on a steady flow of well-trained human capital. We need people who can read and write, think and analyze, make intelligent decisions and deal effectively with others; above all, we need people who can adjust to change and absorb new ideas. (Hechinger, 1985, p. 136)

Business must use its human resources to strengthen the training of future workers and help students develop effective school-to-work and school-to-college skills. Both business and education leaders are facing the new challenges of the transition from an industrial to an information society (Naisbitt, 1985).

The Task Force on Education for Economic Growth in its report made explicit the link between the state of the schools and the economy of the United States. The members of the task force emphasized the conditions of concern today--swiftly advancing technology, economic competition in a global arena, the obsolescence of skills-- will be even more acute in the future. High school graduates in 1985 will retire 35 years later from jobs quite different from those for which they were originally hired, necessitating a sound education to be trained and retrained several times in their careers (Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983).

Technology, too, is requiring the services of a new kind of nontraditional worker. No longer will an employee be expected to perform the same rudimentary task for an entire work career; the key to future job and career growth is flexibility (Martin, 1984). Vocational education as we know it is becoming obsolete; the best preparation for employment is a high degree of awareness, insight, and problem-solving ability (Goodlad, 1979).

Naisbitt (1985) wrote that the "real problem" with education today is that we have the same educational system we had in the industrial society trying to prepare students for the information age. The educational system described in the reports of the great

school debate as a primary factor in placing the nation "at risk" was born in the nineteenth century as a response to a change in society known as the Industrial Revolution.

The private sector in 1987 continues to express concern about the state of education. Riddley (1985) stated that business is interested in the product being produced by the schools today as these students will be staffing and managing enterprises that determine the economic future of this country. Business leaders are expressing concern that young people are going into the labor market without the proper background in fundamental learning and training in problem-solving capabilities. This renewed interest in the schools and the adequate supply of qualified human resources provide an opportunity for a renewed alliance between education and business (Martin, 1984; Naisbitt, 1985; Pearson, 1987; Riddley, 1985).

In addressing partnerships, Riddley (1985) cautioned that federal funds should be spent to bring about "proper partnerships" that will find a way to benefit both parties--a use of resources so that business sees a proper return on the investment. American business is playing the dual role of educator-activist in society to intercede as today's "ill-prepared" graduates become tomorrow's corporate burden (Naisbitt, 1985).

Establishment of a genuine partnership for educational improvement necessitates partners who share in a goal or endeavor, not patrons who criticize and dictate. Local business leaders must guard against involvements that are public relations efforts and

patiently be involved in long-term commitments of human resources, surplus goods, released time, and direct cash. Business involvement in education cannot and will not cure all the ills of the educational system but can play a leadership role in getting government officials to make public education the quality institution this nation demands and needs (Martin, 1984).

> We're talking about an enormously complicated management problem. The solution to most management problems that I've had any experience with is that you get to the solution incrementally. Very rarely is there some blinding flash of genius which puts everything into place and you've got the formula for the future. It'll take us a decade or more to work our way, but the important thing is that we get started. (Lundeen, 1985, p. 444)

The generosity of corporations in supporting higher education continues, with the gifts for 1983 totaling approximately $1.29 billion (Eurich, 1985). Unfortunately, the connection between the corporate world and K-12 districts has in only a few cases translated into large sums of money--the most generous estimates being less than half of 1%. The discrepancy between the gifts to higher education and the gifts to K-12 does not reflect the degree of confidence in the ability of higher education versus K-12 but, instead, reflects economics in terms of tax breaks for contributions to higher education (McDowell & Price, 1979).

The federal government lists approximately 55,000 examples of different partnership efforts across the country (Riddley, 1985). Many are simple affiliations, with peripheral, episodic, and limited projects being the most common. There are two prospective benefits to the current wave of private-sector and public school partnerships:

(a) mutual understanding may mature into political collaboration, which will provide more financial support for the schools than the dollars currently being invested by the private sector; and (b) public schools may get allies and continuing partners in preparing students for a life in the information age (Mann, 1984).

While most attention has been given to counting the number of schools "adopted" by businesses, the maximum payoff may be in the legislative and executive chambers that determine how much money goes to municipalities and for which purposes--leaders talking with leaders.   Minnesota, Texas, and California directly attribute to partnerships that matured into political alliances a change in curriculum requirements that was accompanied by additional allocations for the change.

> Virtually everything that is now being done is project-based, i.e., episodsic, special purpose, tacked on and usually at the periphery of the school's core technology of teaching and learning. That is a short leash for the schools and a fragile base for long-term partnership. If public/private partnerships continue to be dominated by small projects supported by small grants, they will have done some good. But they will also fall short of the assistance and improvement which the movement promises. . . . Systems need to think about how to lever the interest so far shown from the business community into the sort of enduring institutional alliance that can support big city schools and the children they serve. (Mann, 1984)

When education and business join together for the common good of the learner, the change will affect the educational product, health, and welfare of both the culture and economics of the nation. Successful partnerships will have a shared perspective (a frame of reference), a shared vision (purpose or goal), shared action (Pearson, 1985).

The Michigan Department of Education lists management training as a first-priority activity for their partnership effort, as do South Carolina, Pennsylvania, New York, California, and Wisconsin. Except for Michigan, the preceding states have established systematic partnership efforts in management development.

The challenge of the 1980s will no longer be the training or retraining of workers, but the retraining of managers with businesses focusing 75% of their training efforts on white-collar and management workers (Carnevale & Goldstein, 1983; Naisbitt, 1985). Seven of the nine major national reports on education selected by the Northeast Regional Exchange for a comparative analysis stressed the quality of school-based leadership as a primary factors affecting school organization and management: Making the Grade, A Place Called School (Goodlad, 1983), America's Competitive Challenge (Business--Higher Education Forum, 1983), A Study of High Schools, A Nation at Risk (NCEE, 1983), High School (Boyer, 1983), and Action for Excellence (Task Force on Education for Economic Growth, 1983). Collectively, the task forces placed the principal in charge of educational quality and called for training support in helping principals to achieve excellence in schools (Gross, 1985).

> We challenge our private-sector colleagues in large and small businesses and in labor to do what they must do to insure a high-quality work force in the years ahead. . . . Business leaders must raise this issue, debate it, look at exemplary programs, join in partnerships and get to work. We cannot afford to let the proportion of at-risk youth in the labor force continue to grow. We cannot afford to say it is someone else's problem. Through partnerships. . . business leaders can offer expertise in management, personnel, evaluation, creative financing of new programs or materials. . . . Businesses small and large have an important role to play in bringing issues to

the attention of state and local policy makers. Business input does make a difference. (Robb, 1985, pp. 22-23)

Leadership in Business and Education

Leadership has fascinated philosophers for centuries. The Egyptians, Greeks, and Chinese wrote about their leaders. Plato in <u>Republic</u> talked about three types of leaders: the philosopher-statesman who ruled the republic with reason and justice, the military commander who defended the state and enforced its will, and the businessman who provided for the citizens' material needs and satisfied their lower appetites.

Considerable media attention is still given to leaders. A change in the leadership of an organization attracts attention and will often be tied to the success or failure of the organization (Campbell et al., 1983). Definitions of leadership are numerous (Hoyle & Miskel, 1982, p. 220):

> To lead is to engage in an act that initiates a structure-in-interaction as part of the process of solving a mutual problem.
> John K. Hemphill

> Leadership is power based predominantly on personal characteristics, usually normative in nature.
> Amitai Etzioni

> The essence of organizational leadership is the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.
> Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn

> Leadership is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives.
> James Lipham

Management in Business

Just as there is no consensus on the definition of leadership, there is no consensus as to the skills needed by effective leaders. To say that managers do things right while leaders do the right things (Bennis, 1985) or to say that the job of the manager is to get things done through other people is too simple, for every astute manager knows that playing with people's minds and personalities can be extremely difficult for even the best psychiatrist (Koontz, 1961).

Henri Fayol was one of the earliest theorists to maintain that the elements of management are universal. Fayol (1949) described these elements as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting. Sears (1950) had a slightly different version for educational management that consisted of planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling. Koontz (1961) wrote that the task of the manager is one of selecting goals and designing and maintaining an environment for performance of the organization's goals. The manager must be responsive to various environments in which he operates, but the crucial elements according to Koontz are commonality of understood purpose, intentional structure of roles, existence of guidelines and techniques for inducing performance, removal of obstructions to performance, and maintaining an environment of clarity. Both Fayol and Halpin (1955) stated the importance of the managerial function in facilitating the technical output.

> The technical and commercial functions of a business are clearly defined, but the same cannot be said of the administrative function. Not many people are familiar with its

constitution and powers: our senses cannot follow its workings --we do not see it build or forge, sell or buy--and yet we all know that, if it does not work properly, the undertaking is in danger of failure.

The administrative function has many duties. It has to foresee and make preparations to meet the financial, commercial, and technical conditions under which the concern must be started and run. It deals with the organization, selection, and management of the staff. It is the means by which the various parts of the undertaking communicate with the outside world, etc. Although this list is incomplete, it gives us an idea of the importance of the administrative function. The sole fact that it is in charge of the staff makes it in most cases the predominant function, for we all know that, even if a firm has perfect machinery and manufacturing processes, it is doomed to failure if it is run by an inefficient staff (Fayol, 1929, p. 79; quoted by Albers, 1961, p. 56)

In the 1950s, business-management theories were being empirically applied to public school education, and educational administrators were being encouraged to apply theories of business management to the daily functions of their workplaces (Griffiths, 1979). The question then was, "What exactly is the job of the manager?"

The job of the manager has been described in terms of process as a variation of the functions of planning, communicating, organizing, influencing, coordinating, decision making, and evaluating (Reed, 1977). Katz (1955) chastised American industry for the continued search for the executive stereotype and was concerned that many companies were losing sight of their real concern for what a person can accomplish. Katz was not concerned with what good executives are, but instead with what they do--the kinds of skills they exhibit in carrying out their jobs effectively. He classified skills into three areas--technical, human, and conceptual--and clarified the separation of these three as necessary for purposes of analysis.

Katz acknowledged that, in practice, these skills are so closely interrelated that it is difficult to see where each ends or begins. The relative importance of each occurs at different levels of responsibility.

> We live in a world of organizations. Aside from art, some crafts, and individual practices in medicine and law, almost all the work of our society gets done through human organizations. Even highly individualistic professional work is increasingly practiced through partnerships, clinics, and laboratories requiring managerial abilities that complement the technical skills of the surgeon or attorney.
> . . . Missing managerial skills do not represent profound or abstruse techniques. There are tens of thousands of tracts, as well as more erudite publications, setting forth the principles of good management. Reduced to their essential components . . . good managers plan ahead, select qualified subordinates, and reward the best performers; they maintain open communications and encourage feedback, and so on. It seems easy. . . . Why should a rather obvious, straightforward task be mishandled so frequently?
> . . . Unfortunately, students of management behavioral scientists, like managers themselves, have no language to describe or concepts to analyze this hectic interactional world. The concepts and models that they use are more likely to relate to the world of professions, to the statics of occupational knowledge, than to the dynamics of human interaction. Management bears little resemblance to any other profession, if indeed, it is a profession. It represents an extraordinarily challenging skill that must be played on a confounding "field"-- the complex organization. Efforts to professionalize it, to reduce it to a set of things to know, as distinct from actions to do, further increase the gap between what managers are told and what they must really learn to do . . . and the managers who make the system work have on their shoulders the most difficult assignment of our age. (Sayles, 1979, pp. 2-4, 24)

That does not mean that supermen/women need to be hired. Instead, what is required is people who are well-trained, intelligent, and have the necessary human, technical, and conceptual skills to lead the organization. Maintenance or administration of the organization is a constant requirement and must convey images of

actions that are possible and feasible (Campbell, 1977; Hughes & Ubben, 1978; Watson, 1975).

What does the leader/manager/administrator know how to do? Gulick gave the tasks of managers the acronym POSDCORB: "planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, budgeting" (Gulick & Urwick, 1937, p. 13).

Katz (1955) and Mann (1965) proposed the widely accepted three-skill typology of technical skills, human-relations skills, and conceptual skills. Yukl (1981) completed a four-year program of research to identify categories of measurable leadership behavior and proposed a 19-behavior taxonomy:

1. Performance emphasis
2. Consideration
3. Inspiration
4. Praise-recognition
5. Structuring reward contingencies
6. Decision participation
7. Autonomy-delegation
8. Role clarification
9. Goal setting
10. Training-coaching
11. Information dissemination
12. Problem solving
13. Planning
14. Coordinating
15. Work facilitation (remove obstacles)
16. Representation
17. Interaction facilitation
18. Conflict management
19. Criticism discipline

Koontz (1971) wrote that the task of the manager is selecting goals and designing the environment to ensure attainment of those goals by the individuals working for him. The maintenance and design of the environment should include a commonality of understood purposes; existence of structure of roles; guidelines, techniques, or

situations for role clarity; and goal accomplishment with a minimum of resources. Graham and Mihal (1986) stated the management-development needs as: designing work rules and procedures; clarifying performance standards and priorities; instructing and coaching subordinates; encouraging cooperation and support among subordinates; coordinating work flow with other units; and developing favorable relations with customers, supplies, and so on. The skills needed were efficiency orientation, initiative, problem solving, persuasiveness, oral communication, and written communication.

Adding to the wealth of "what to" literature is management by walking around (Peters & Waterman, 1982), encouraging innovation throughout the organization (Kanter, 1983), uncovering organizational culture (Schein, 1985), learning from Japan (Ouchi, 1981), and I did it my way (Iacocca, 1984).

Management in Education

Findings for managers in business will not always apply to school administrators, but the similarities in the roles of managers and principals provide a basis for generalizing. Both fields share an interest in discovering effective leadership components. Cross-fertilization between the studies of effective managers in business and effective school administrators has been infrequent but could lead to the sharing of insights, comparison of findings, and the development of models to integrate both kinds of leaders (Yukl, 1982).

Since the 1950s, educational administration has become a field of study in its own right, having emerged at Texas Christian and Teachers College of Columbia University, soon to be followed by work at Stanford and the University of Chicago (Cunningham et al., 1977).

Not to be outdone by business, public school education has a wealth of literature describing the functions of the administrator.

> The basic purpose of administration is to enhance teaching and learning. In short, administration serves an instrumental and not a primary purpose. Since schools exist for teaching and learning, people who work in schools and school systems should contribute to that overriding purpose. . . . Principals are the formally appointed leaders of their schools. They are the line officers in the school system. . . . Thus we see principals as generalists needing and relying on the expertise of others. Indeed, the expertise of principals becomes that of fitting the pieces together so that the total program of teaching and learning . . . is the best that can be devised. (Campbell et al., 1983, pp. 4-5)

> The functions of administration are:
> . . . discern and influence the development of goals and policies for the school
> . . . stimulate and direct the development of programs to achieve the goals and purposes
> . . . procure and manage the resources needed to support the organization and its programs
> . . . represent the organization to groups in the local or larger community and when necessary, mediate among these groups
> . . . appraise the effectiveness and efficiency of these operations. (Campbell et al., 1983, p. 5)

The Southern States Cooperative Program (1955) listed the critical task areas for principals as instruction and curriculum, pupil personnel, communicating school leadership, staff personnel, school plant, school transportation, organization and structure, school finance, and business management. McPherson, Salley, and Baehr (L975) described the key duties and responsibilities in their
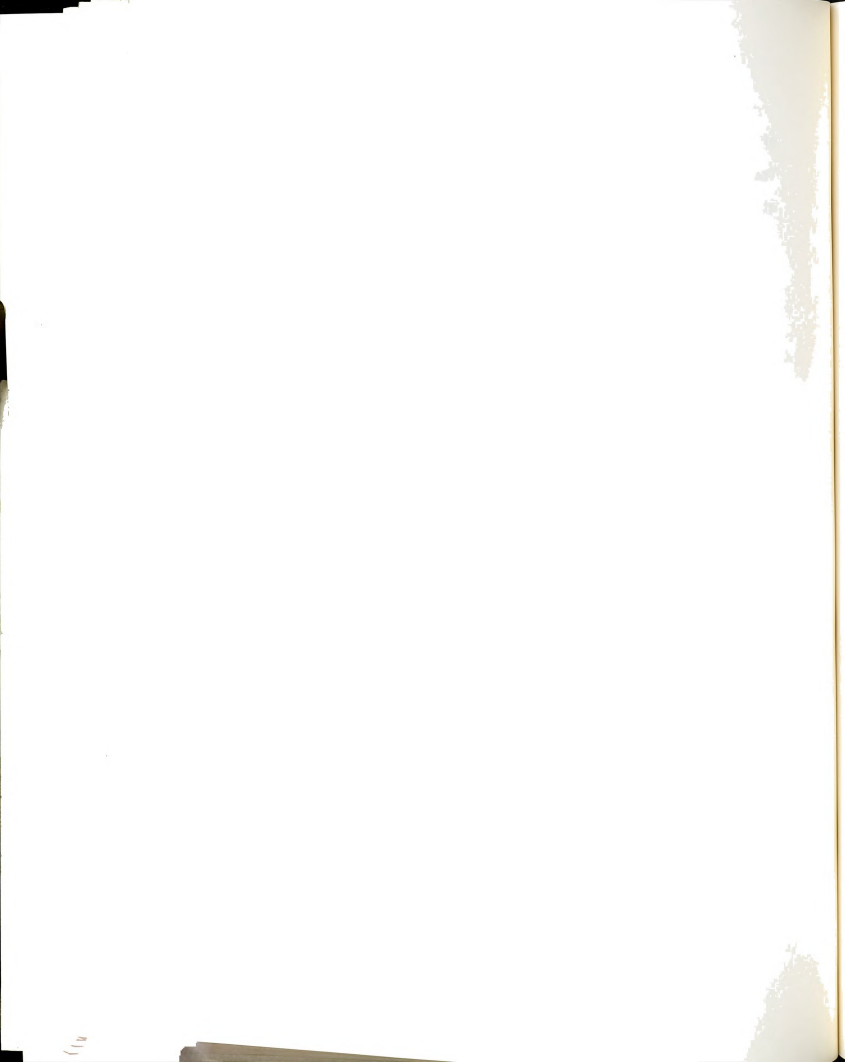
job function inventory as relations with people and groups, curriculum, personnel administration, and general administration.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974) described the primary task of principals as lying in the areas of instructional program, staff personnel, financial and physical resources, and school and community resources. However, Lipham (1981) later wrote that studies suggested three guidelines for principals of effective schools: (a) strong leaders accept responsibility for major decisions of the school, (b) the management team approach is used to build skills of others in the school, and (c) leadership style shifts as circumstances warrant to either directive or supportive leadership. Management functions are important only as they foster and facilitate improvement in instruction. Lipham further defined the impelling issues about which the principal makes decisions:

1. Diversity versus uniformity in educational goals
2. Traditional versus nontraditional values and attitudes
3. Centralization versus decentralization in organizational relationships
4. Directiveness versus supportiveness in leadership behavior
5. Authoritative versus participative decision-making processes
6. Managerial versus instructional tasks to be completed
7. Programmed versus adaptive approaches to change
8. Interaction versus insularity in relations with the public (Lipham, 1981, p. 2)

Having developed a taxonomy for leadership, Yukl (1981) addressed the issue of the principalship and suggested that the most important functions performed by principals appeared to be:

1. Develop goals, policies, and directions
2. Organize the school and design programs to accomplish the goals
3. Monitor progress, solve problems, maintain order
4. Procure, manage, and allocate resources
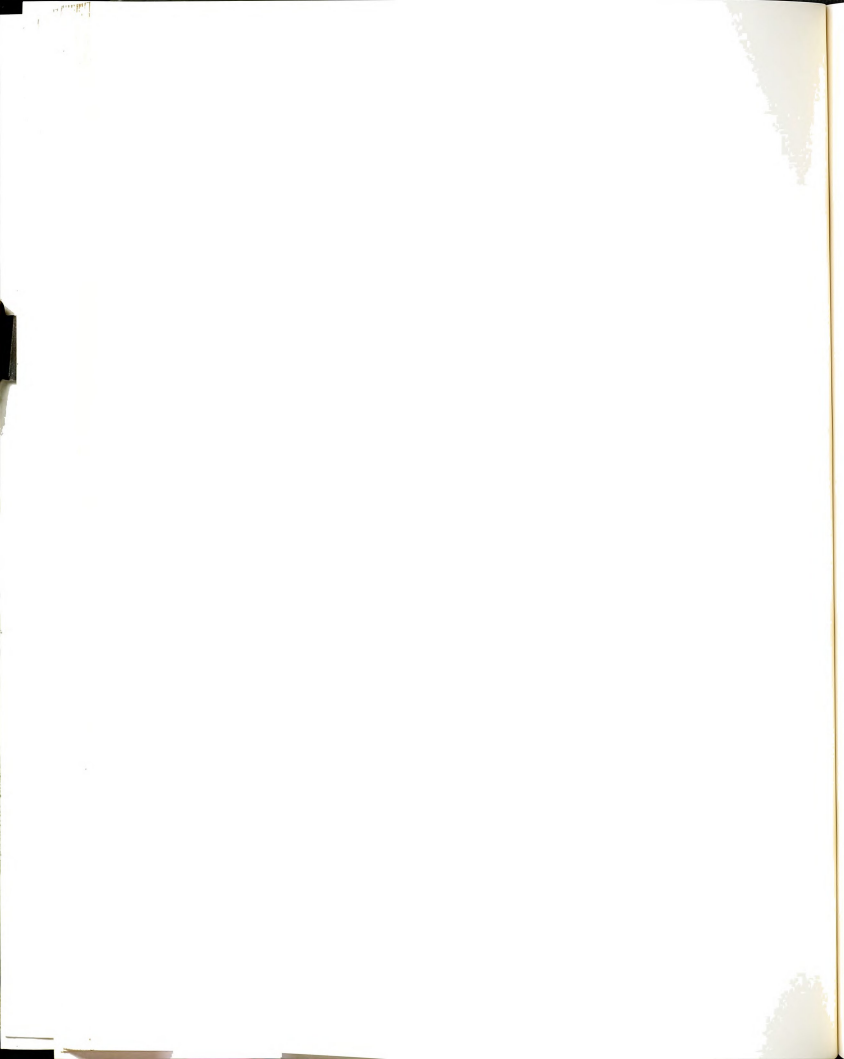
5. Create a climate for personal and professional growth and development
6. Represent the school to the district office and outside community (Yukl, 1982, p. 4)

Adding to the abundant list of "shoulds," Hoyle, English, and Steffy (1985) stressed that although school administration is changing, a core of permanent skills remains necessary. They suggested the analytical techniques of management as being techniques of decision theories, organizational theories, financial concepts/applications, planning and evaluating, program management, political theories, politics, and policy development. Finally, Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen (1962) identified factors that constitute a taxonomy for the principalship that could be used for principal-preparation programs as exchanging information, discussing before acting, complying with suggestions, analyzing the situation, maintaining relationships, organizing work, responding to outsiders, directing others, preparing for decisions, and establishing the amount of work.

In defining what the principal does rather than what should be done, Manasse (1985) wrote:

> In an important paper comparing writing about the principal-ship by principals and by nonprincipals (professors, consultants, and others), Barth and Deal (1982) found most of the academic literature to be the following: (1) theoretical, emphasizing concepts, research, and ideas that draw heavily from the behavioral sciences; (2) analytical, encouraging principals to rearrange experience into manageable and understandable pieces; (3) rational, logical, and linear, encouraging the use of scientific methodology; (4) usually impersonal and neutral, emphasizing generalizations over particular idiosyncrasies of schools or the peculiarities and sentiments of individual principals; (5) often critical and judgmental about principals and schools; (6) prescriptive; (7) focused on the instrumental leadership of the principalship, with comprehensive lists

defining the role of the principal organized into various functions; and (8) based on an organizational image of schools that emphasizes themes of rationality, certainty, and orderliness.

If this is the material used to prepare future principals, it is little wonder, given what is now known about principals' actual work lives, that many are ill-prepared. Similarly, if these are the assumptions that guide scholars in framing their research questions, it is no surprise that very little of the research has been of value to practicing principals. (p. 442)

Characteristics of Managerial Work

While the most difficult and most important task of the day for a leader is the managerial task (Freedman, 1972), the reality of managerial work may be very different from the rhetoric proposed by academicians (Sayles, 1979). Given the emphasis placed on goals, objectives, and orderliness proposed in the literature (Hemphill et al., 1962; Hughes & Ubben, 1978; Koontz, 1971; Lipham, 1981; Yukl, 1982), managers may want to have a compartmentalized world of clear goals and objectives with an orderly process for achievement. Managers actually receive little sense of closure or completion. Much like the homemaker's problem of beginning again each day, the manager, too, deals with the unexpected that interferes with expectations and routines.

Expecting to command and make major decisions that could contribute to a change in the culture of the organization, managers instead discover that the behavioral skills involved in the job require extraordinary patience, endurance, continuous interaction, spontaneous compromises, and negotiation. The time required for the unanticipated and the repetitive working of relationships may produce

low self-esteem, a sense of time wasted, and nothing to show for the accomplishment (Sayle, 1979).

> If you ask a manager what he does, he will most likely tell you that he plans, organizes, coordinates, and controls. Then watch what he does. Don't be surprised if you can't relate what you see to these four words. . . . The fact is that these four words, which have dominated management vocabulary since the French industrialist Henri Fayol first introduced them in 1916, tell us little about what managers actually do. At best, they indicate some vague objectives managers have when they work.
> The field of management, so devoted to progress and change, has for more than half a century not seriously addressed THE basic question: What do managers do? Without a proper answer, how can we teach management? How can we design planning or information systems for managers? How can we improve the practice of management at all? (Mintzberg, 1975)

In his now-famous observational study of five chief executives, Mintzberg (1973) wrote that the characteristics of managerial work are: (a) activities characterized by brevity, activity, and fragmentation; (b) a preference for live action; and (c) attraction to the verbal media.

Half of the activities engaged in by the executives in Mintzberg's study lasted less than nine minutes, and only 10% exceeded one hour. In contrast, in a study of 56 first-line managers (foremen), Guest (1956) found that they averaged 583 activities per eight-hour shift, an average of one every 48 seconds. In diary studies, Stewart (1967) and Carlson (1951) found that middle and top managers worked for a half hour or more without interruption only about once every two days. The manager tolerates interruption because he does not wish to discourage the flow of information. While the manager may become accustomed to variety in work and become

easily bored, he may become proficient at superficiality by avoiding becoming involved with any one issue (Mintzberg, 1973).

The job of the manager spawns adaptive information manipulators who prefer the live, concrete situation. The manager works in an environment of stimulus-response and often encourages this behavior by leaving meetings early, as well as leaving the door open when working alone (Mintzberg, 1973).

Mintzberg identified five basic media used by managers as the mail, the telephone, the unscheduled meeting, the scheduled meeting, and the tour. He wrote that "the most significant finding concerning media is that managers demonstrate very strong attraction to the verbal media" (p. 38). Estimates of the time spent in verbal communication have ranged from 57% (Guest, 1956) to 89% (Lawler, Porter, & Tannenbaum, 1968).

Whereas Drucker (1954) referred to the manager as the composer and conductor of the symphony, Carlson (1951) saw the manager as a puppet with hundreds pulling the strings. Mintzberg (1973) deduced eight basic skills from an analysis of the work of managers: peer skills, leadership skills, conflict-resolution skills, information skills, unstructured decision-making skills, resource-allocation skills, entrepreneurial skills, and skills of introspection.

In the United States there are approximately 77,000 elementary schools and 29,000 secondary schools, most of which have a principal (Bureau of the Census, 1979). The principal has responsibility for the school and as its leader establishes the quality of the school regimen (Campbell et al., 1983).
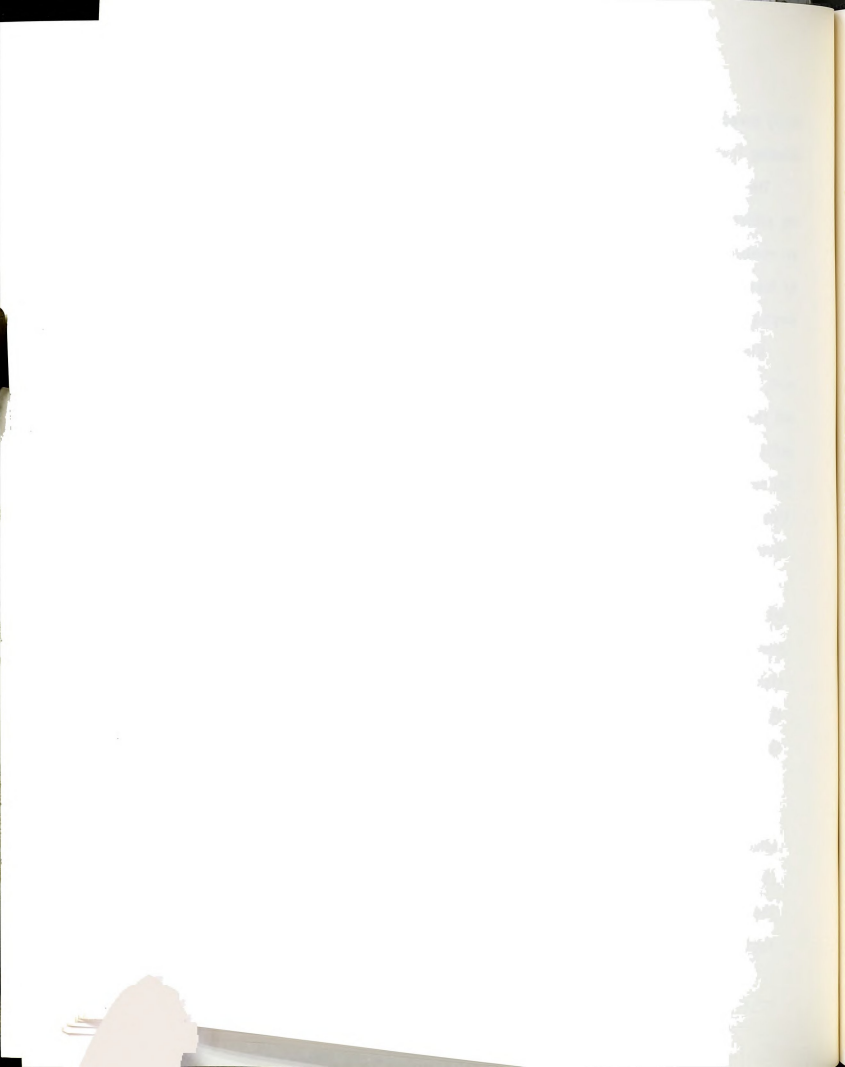
If a school is a vibrant, innovative, child-centered place; if
it has a reputation for excellence in teaching; if students are
performing to the best of their ability, one can almost always
point to the principal's leadership as the key to success. (U.S.
Senate, 1979)

What do principals do? Do they spend their time in ways similar
to the studies of managers in business? In the decade since
Mintzberg's seminal study of the nature of managerial work, many
other studies have been conducted, including several observational
studies of principals that provided detailed descriptions of
principals' work (Kmetz & Willower, 1982; Martin & Willower, 1981;
Morris et al., 1981; Peterson, 1981; Sproul, 1981).

Berman (1982), Kmetz and Willower (1982), and Martin and
Willower (1981) adapted Mintzberg's methodology to study the work of
principals. The primary objective was to describe the nature of the
principal's work behavior. A secondary objective was to consider the
variables that influenced this work behavior. Whether using
Mintzberg-type methodologies, case studies, ethnographic approaches,
or self-report, several studies have suggested similarities in the
activity patterns of principals and private-sector managers. The
administrative work of principals also consisted mostly of brief,
fragmented, and varied activities involving scheduled and unscheduled
oral interaction with subordinates. The tendency to become preoccu-
pied with superficial activities applies to both disciplines (Yukl,
1982).

Manasse (1985) summarized what has been learned from Mintzberg-
type studies. Administrative work is characterized by

1. A low number of self-initiated tasks
2. Many activities of short duration
3. Discontinuity caused by interruptions
4. The superseding of prior plans by the needs of others in the organization
5. Face-to-face verbal contacts with one other person
6. Variablility [sic] of tasks
7. An extensive network of individuals and groups
8. A hectic and unpredictable flow of work
9. Numerous unimportant decisions and trivial agendas
10. Few attempts at written communication
11. Interactions predominantly with subordinates
12. A preference for problems and information that are specific (rather than general), concrete, solvable, and currently pressing. (p. 442)

In 1978 the National Association of Secondary School Principals published The Effective Principal, Volume 2 of a three-part study of the principalship at the senior high school. The total survey population was reduced to 60 principals who were interviewed by the research team. While principals planned to spend most of their time in program development, they actually spent most of their time in personnel.

The Montgomery County Schools in Maryland did a complex study of elementary, middle, and senior high principals. The research department collected three types of data: surveys completed by 155 principals, providing estimates of time spent on various duties; logs of school-related activities performed outside the regular school day by 179 principals; and observations of the activities during the working day of a random sample of 50 principals. Table 1 shows details of the findings.

While superintendents tended to describe principals primarily as the instructional leader, very little time in any week was spent on

Table 1.--Montgomery County study.

Area of Responsibility	Percent of Time Spent in Each Area of Responsibility					
	Elementary School Principals		Middle/Junior High School Principals		Senior High School Principals	
	Percent of Time Estimated by Principals	Percent of Time Observed and Logged	Percent of Time Estimated by Principals	Percent of Time Observed and Logged	Percent of Time Estimated by Principals	Percent of Time Observed and Logged
MANAGEMENT						
Executive	12	14	10	15	12	15
Student personnel	15	17	16	21	12	20
Personnel	10	7	12	8	13	8
Facilities and financial	6	6	6	4	8	4
Combination and other	0	8	0	11	0	8
TOTAL	43	52	44	58	45	54
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP						
Program development	14	6	11	7	14	5
Program evaluation	6	3	6	0	6	1
Staff evaluation	15	7	17	10	16	5
Other	0	3	0	1	0	1
TOTAL	35	20	34	17	36	12
LIAISON WITH SCHOOLS, AREA AND CENTRAL OFFICES	6	8	8	5	6	7
PUBLIC RELATIONS--SCHOOLS, COMMUNITY, GOV'T AGENCIES	12	12	10	12	8	17
OUTSIDE PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES	4	3	5	2	4	6
COMBINATION[a]	--	2	--	2	--	1
PERSONAL[a]	--	2	--	3	--	3

Source: Department of Research, Report of Findings of a Study of the Principalship in Action in the Montgomery County Public Schools (Rockville, Md.: Montgomery County Public Schools, 1975).

[a]These two categories were not included in data-collection instruments for estimates or logs.

the instructional-leadership task or role. Instructional leadership gives way to office mandates (Howell, 1981). Table 2 shows the findings of Martin and Willower's (1981) study of the types of activities in which high school principals were engaged, as well as the amount of time spent in each activity.

Table 2.--Findings of Martin and Willower's study of the managerial behavior of high school principals.

Type of Activity	Number of Activities	Total Time	Average Duration[a]	Percentage of Time
Unscheduled meetings	1,221	4,122	3.4	27.5
Scheduled meetings	117	2,601	22.2	17.3
Desk work	254	2,394	9.4	16.0
Exchanges	1,355	1,355	1.0	9.0
Tours	88	1,158	13.2	7.7
Phone calls	393	868	2.2	5.8
Monitoring	82	828	10.1	5.5
Personal	133	767	5.8	5.1
Other	87	914	21.4	4.1

Source: Adapted from W. J. Martin and D. J. Willower, "The Managerial Behavior of High School Principals," Education Administration Quarterly 17 (Winter 1981): 72.

[a]Computed in minutes.

If, as Campbell et al. (1983) suggested, the data convey the reality of the principalship--principals must manage their schools-- then principals should be prepared for management.

> To be an educational leader in the Eighties is to have experienced frustration with the inadequate education available in traditional pre-service programs, for it is no longer reasonable to expect our colleges and universities to do the job

alone. Today's educational leader must also be an educational manager. Today's manager must be prepared to respond to changes in state and federal mandates, to manage resources, to work miracles with a shrinking budget, and analyze and synthesize an incredible amount of data--all in an effort to improve the quality of education services related to increased achievement. (Ralph Turlington, Commissioner of Education, State of Florida)

The Education and Development of Managers

Tomorrow's vision is today's work assignment.
(Drucker, 1969, p. 290)

Training is considered the most widely used method for improving leadership (Yukl, 1981). Training for leadership occurs in the context of the current stage of development in which the leader is found and is not meant to be an end in itself but a means to an end. The ultimate purpose of inservice training is to improve job performance to insure the successful accomplishment of the goals of the organization (Bass, 1981; Landon, 1985; Yukl, 1981).

Training and development of present school administrators has been identified as a key to improving principal effectiveness. To be successful, relevant technical, conceptual, and interpersonal skills need to be developed (Yukl, 1982).

School leaders are America's most important executives. With a budget in the billions of dollars and a clientele of more than 46 million students, they manage the single most important enterprise in our nation. However, until recently, the professional competence of the administrators who manage this huge enterprise was largely taken for granted. School leaders received little opportunity and even less incentive to acquire basic management skills that, in the private sector, have marked the difference between success and failure.

Front line managers--principals and superintendents--are often expected to perform as fully developed chief executive officers even though they may have little preparation in the

basic management skills considered essential in any effective organization--including schools and school districts. (Patterson, 1983, p. 7)

Options need to be found to assist practicing school leaders to improve their daily performance, and increased support for inservice training is one way of doing this (Lipham, 1981). Schools are not businesses, but school administration finds roots in many fields. Many business concepts can also be applied to improve performance in the schools (Hoyles, 1985). School leaders could use organizational-development interventions proven useful in business organizations for providing feedback and identifying training needs (Bass & Vaughan, 1966; Boyatzis, 1982; Nemeroff & Cosentino, 1979).

> An organization, whether public or private, exists and grows because it provides the community with goods or services the community sees as worthwhile. To do this efficiently, the organization must function at an optimum level of productivity. This level is a direct result of the collective effort of all employees. Yet not every employee works at the level established by the standard of performance for the job he or she holds. Similarly, groups of employees may not consistently produce up to standards.
> When there is a difference or gap between actual performance and what is needed (the standard), productivity suffers. Training can reduce if not eliminate this gap. It does so by changing the behavior of individuals--by giving them whatever additional specific items of knowledge, skill, or attitude they need to perform up to that standard.
> Changing behavior, then, is the function of training. The terminal objective is to help achieve the goals of the organization through optimum use of manpower. (Johnson, 1976, p. 2-1)

Historical Perspective of Training

The need for training in the development of humankind came with the invention of tools, weapons, clothing, and the other accouterments of civilization. Humans had the ability to pass

knowledge and skills on to others, and the acquisition of knowledge became a strategic resource. Knowledge accumulation for humans began with the Stone Age and ended with the advent of the Industrial Revolution, around 1750 (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976). The year 1750 signaled the close of man's first period of accumulation of knowledge and began a new phase.

        1750-1900--knowledge doubled
        1900-1950--knowledge doubled
        1950-1960--knowledge doubled
        1960-1965--knowledge doubled

The accelerated knowledge base provided a challenge to the field of education and training.

The astounding architectural and masonry accomplishments of the pyramids and ancient temples are testimonials to the success of the early apprenticeships. Literacy was not a privilege of the craftsman and peasantry, which meant that all skills and knowledge of the crafts had to be transmitted by direct instruction. As early as 2100 B.C., rules and procedures for governing apprenticeships were included in the Code of Hammurabi. As recently as 1920, apprenticeships were offered as a vehicle for instruction in medicine, law, and education. An apprenticeship followed by a passing grade on an exam sufficed to practice law (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

Guilds established quality standards of products through quality workmanship of people with the same or similar interests and were the forerunners of the labor unions. By the early 1900s, vocational
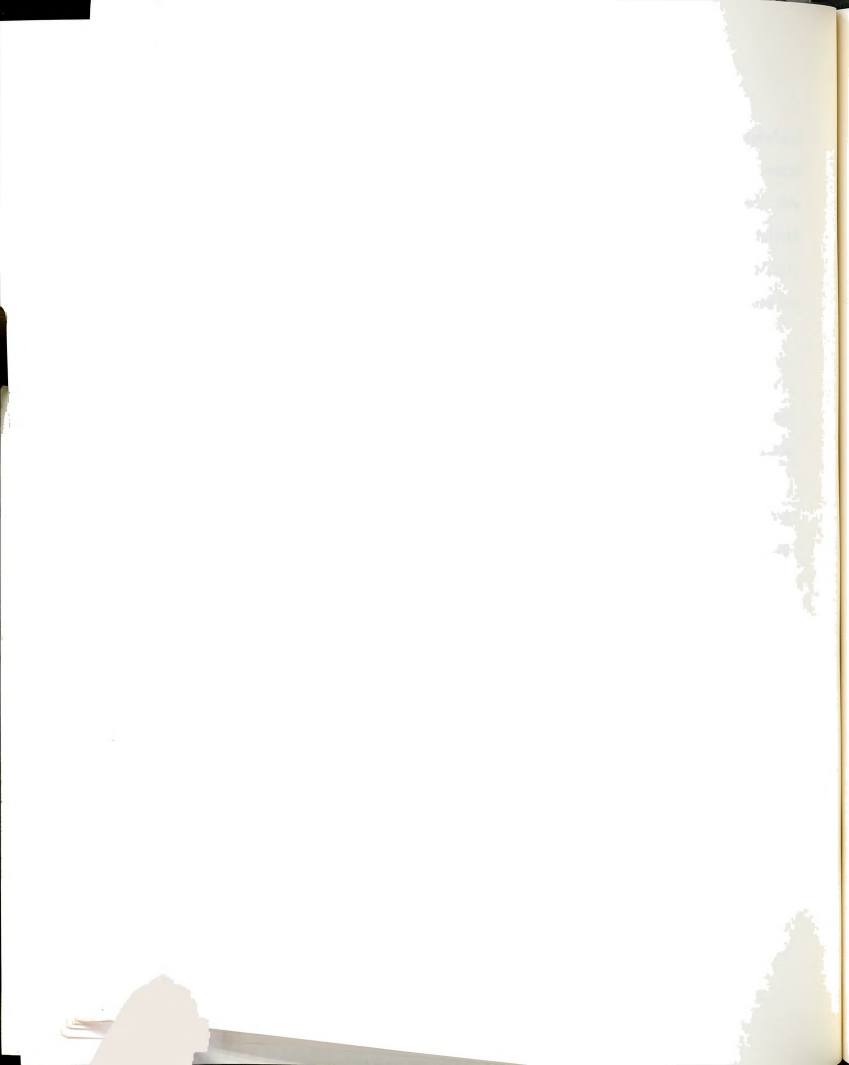
education was extensive, and in 1917 President Woodrow Wilson signed the Smith-Hughes Act, providing for public money to assist vocational training efforts. Since the 1930s, vocational education has received legislative attention, and funding in one form or another has continued in the United States.

Shortly after the Smith-Hughes Act was passed in 1917, the training impetus occurred with the establishment of an education and training section of the Emergency Fleet Corporation of the United States Shipping Board to provide ships to Europe. To make the world safe for democracy, shipyard workers needed to be trained (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

Although the Federal Board of Vocational Education developed a program of part-time instruction for people who had left school and gone to work, the Depression years of the 1930s wrecked many internal training programs as the need for workers was met by the unemployed. Training in the public sector grew as unemployed people had too much time on their hands. Local, state, and federal governmental agencies appropriated funds for handicraft training while using public school facilities. As the World War II crisis emerged, the aged, handi-capped, and women were called on to produce for the war effort, and the importance of transference of skills to unskilled workers was essential to the defense effort. The role of the supervisor became critical, and Job Instructor Training (JIT) was developed. At the same time, a tremendous training impetus occurred when the Training
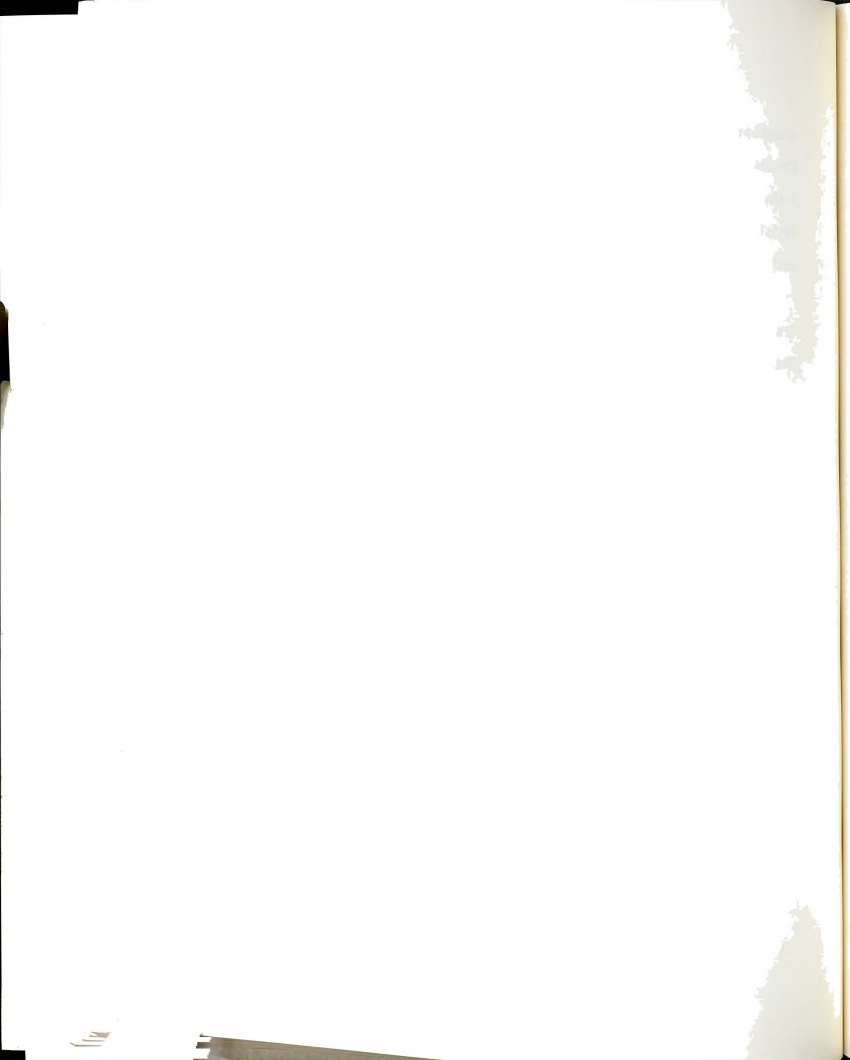
Within Industry Group of the War Production Board was established (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

Focusing on colleges, the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training (ESMWT) program was instituted to meet the need for upgrading workers in college-level subjects. Higher education discovered a new market for their skills by providing a service to war production companies. In many communities in the United States, the ESMWT program became the forerunner of the junior and community colleges and also influenced the conception of the American Management Association (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

In 1931 Erwin Schell and Alfred P. Sloan began an experimental one-year course at Massachusetts Institute of Technology for young executives of high potential. By 1938 the course had become the present Sloan Fellowship Program. The United States Office of Education requested that Harvard Business School establish the "War Production Retraining Course" for executives returning from war service. In 1943 the government assumed responsibility for this course; this responsibility continued until 1945, when the course became the Harvard Advanced Management Program (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

As has always been the practice in education, the combination of students and curriculum provided a need for instructors; hence the birth of the industrial training director. In 1945 the American Society of Training Directors (ASTD) was formed and held its first annual convention in Chicago (Steinmetz & Craig, 1976).

Corporate Management Development
in the 1980s

Training in the private sector was born in the crisis of a war but has grown to be an essential area in all fields of employment. Corporations are becoming like universities of lifelong learning. The costs for these programs are publicly supported in two ways: a 50% write-off as a business expense and a product price increase to the consumer. As an example, IBM annually spends more than $700 million in employee education (Naisbitt, 1985). In 1935, only 3% of major firms had some type of management-development program. In 1954, 50% of the country's top 500 companies had management-development programs. By 1961, 77% of the country's large companies had management-development programs for their employees (Campbell et al., 1970).

Corporate education has implications for business and industrial growth while presenting a challenge to the nation's schools. Corporate classrooms can be viewed as competitive (spending more than the total budget for colleges and universities) or as a vital contributor to adult educational opportunities in America. Corporate education is challenging higher education to clarify and reaffirm its mission and can be viewed as an essential national resource in keeping America competitive in the world market and a major provider of education for productivity (Boyer, 1985; Eurich, 1985).

Innovations and new insights into learning are coming from the private sector and are beginning to rival the traditional role of the

university. By comparison, the resources allocated by the university to educational innovation are miniscule. Universities are being challenged to take education as seriously as Bell Telephone takes communication (Reif, 1980).

Employees must be able to translate intellectual information into practical realities at a far greater pace than has yet been experienced. Instructional management of the environment remains a problem for top executives who are concerned with the productivity of their organizations. Increasingly, they will promote and develop those managers who will shape the experience and productivity of subordinates, with the manager becoming the Pygmalion (Livingston, 1969; Vaughan, 1975).

> Management development does not happen as a matter of course and it cannot be left to chance. Very few people become first rate managers simply because of their experiences for one or a variety of positions. For most people, the development of managerial ability is a carefully guided process. (Watson, 1979, p. 2)

As knowledge increases exponentially, the managers' environment is changing. Significant changes having a major effect on managers include technological changes; changes in availability of raw materials; changes in public attitudes and demands; changes in strategies and organizational structures; and changes in employees' values, lifestyles, and educational levels (Eurich, 1985; Naisbitt, 1985; Ross, 1984; Watson, 1978).

Crotty (1974), Powell and Davis (1973), and Watson (1979) all wrote that a major reason for management training is an awareness of

individual strengths and developmental needs. Management development is self-development and includes learning experiences both on and off the job, including formal classroom training. Knowing that conceptual education alone is inadequate to produce the desired behavior, effective management development begins with deciding the essential objectives. Education within the business organization focuses on applied learning of generic skills and necessary development issues needed at any level of management (Eastburn, 1986).

Paradoxically, most management development occurs on the job through a series of unstructured and accidental processes, leading to the necessity for focusing on what managers do and how to help them do that well (Kotter, 1982; Margerison, 1982; Mintzberg, 1973; Stewart, 1982). Management education and management training lead to management development. To dichotomize the issue of education and training is not this researcher's intention; that "grail" will be left to those who wish to search for it. The teaching of knowledge, skills, and attitudes must not be compartmentalized between training and education. Management is all learning experiences both on and off the job that lead to job effectiveness (Watson, 1979).

Crotty (1974) identified five major reasons for the use of management-development programs:

1. They broaden the manager's vision and understanding in preparation for additional responsibility.
2. They provide the manager with the information on business theory and practice.
3. They stimulate a more creative and innovative approach to problem-solving and decision-making.
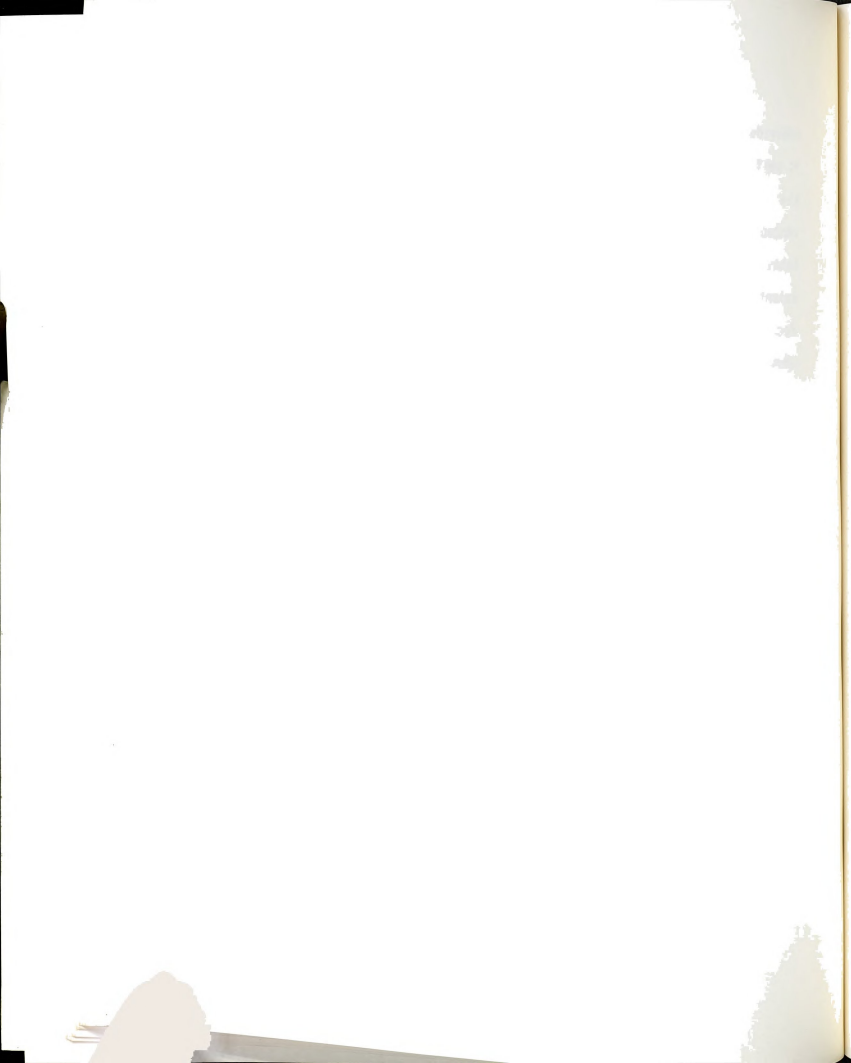
4. They give the manager the opportunity to discuss ideas and problems with other business people.
5. They allow the manager to reflect upon and assess his or her career development and work role. (p. 84)

Although management development is an individual process involving the interaction of the person, the job, and the environment, management-development programs should reflect the long-range goals of the corporation. Individual development will focus on acquiring new knowledge, skills, and attitudes to improve present job performance, as well as looking to the future of the company (Desatnick, 1970; Weinberg & Kessler, 1979).

Watson (1979) identified the value of management-development programs as (a) communicating corporate philosophy and policies, (b) teaching the cause and effect of specific behaviors along with the appropriate diagnostic tools for assessing the significance of certain behaviors in specific situations, (c) sharing and comparing thoughts and practices with peers, (d) stimulating thinking and providing new insights, (e) providing an environment for introspection, and (f) teaching new practices and new skills. Managerial training is one of the means for a company to reach its goals (McGhee, 1961).

Powell and Davis (1973) surveyed organizations using university management-development programs and measured the importance of the reasons organizations sent managers to these programs. Their reasons are were as follows (p. 85):

Reasons for Program Use	Importance Index*
Broadens the individual's interests or awareness--that is, widens her or his business perspectives	6.8
Exposes an already competent manager to new hypotheses or avenues of management thought	6.3
Prepares the individual for greater responsibility but not necessarily for promotion	5.8
Provides management training or education to an individual who was promoted through technical channels	4.9
Permits managers to interact and compare problems/solutions with managers in other areas	4.8
Prepares the individual for imminent promotion	3.6
Provides an opportunity for subordinate development while the supervisor attends a program	2.2
Checks competency of potential successor	1.2

*Maximum score = 8
Minimum score = 1
Average score = 4.5

Managers are most satisfied with programs that teach them how to cope back on the job, but they also have a need to examine ideas and deal with data that may move them in opposite directions (Whitsett, 1983). Managers do need specific skill training, but differences in individual perspectives need to be acknowledged and respected.

Spenser (1979) defined six stages in the acquisition of soft-skill competencies for professional managers and human service jobs:

1. Recognition of the competency
2. Understanding of the competency and how it relates to managerial effectiveness
3. Self-assessment or instrumented feedback on the competency
4. Experimentation with demonstrating the competency or demonstrating it at a higher level of effectiveness
5. Practice using the competency
6. Application of the competency in job situations and in the context of other characteristics

Boyatzis (1982) emphasized the necessity for stages five and six of the process to use the competency in real settings. An organizational process of identifying the necessary job competencies will help the manager in developmental assessment to assist in choosing appropriate training programs and provide the framework for providing guidance for subordinates through mentoring.

Education and Development of School Administrators

Training and development of school administrators has been identified as a key to improving principal effectiveness (Barth & Deal, 1982; Berman, 1982; Hersey, 1977; Huff, Lake, & Schaalman, 1982; Manasse, 1985). Despite some weaknesses in the research base (Perkey & Smith, 1983; Rowan, Dwyer, & Bossert, 1982), there are emerging patterns regarding the work patterns and behavior of effective principals. Educational administrator training at the university setting assumes a more rational work setting than actually exists. While the principal's work consists of brief verbal encounters with an assortment of people covering a multitude of

issues, academic-preparation programs often require long hours alone, reading, writing, and planning (Bridges, 1977).

> Preservice training, then, must realistically take into account the nature of the work and work setting of principals and attend to the development of operational management skills. (Manasse, 1985, p. 457)

When asked what they see as the areas in which they need help, principals often score themselves low in ability to establish and maintain human relationships, teacher evaluations, planning and strategizing, and change agentry (Goldhammer et al., 1971). Kelley (1975) reported that the Terre Haute Institute invited 30 principals and professors to participate in establishing fundamentals for preparation programs for educational administrators. The principals were asked to list their problems, and the professors were to describe how university programs would respond. Unexpectedly, the areas of help needed were coping with crisis situations; working with parents, students, and pressure groups; responding to rumors; initiating growth and development for teachers with tenure when they are resistant to change; responding to delegated responsibilities which exceed the legal or role authority; planning for self-evaluation of effectiveness; responding to bargaining units; providing for effective evaluation and decision making with regard to both personnel and instruction; analyzing and coping with political realities affecting the principal's role; designing and conducting needs-assessment procedures to identify areas of change and priorities for development; and finding time to keep up to date with changing legal, social, and educational conditions. Better

selection, training, and development appear to be the most promising approaches for principal effectiveness.

One of the approaches for training provided by several state agencies is the academy. Although differing in agenda, curriculum, and financing, each functions to improve the skills of school administrators. Those that have been described as the most sophisticated (Patterson, 1985) and adhere to the fundamentals considered important to an outstanding academy (Cunningham, 1981) are the North Carolina Leadership Academy, the Florida Academy for School Leaders, the Maryland Professional Development Academy, the Pennsylvania Executive Academy, and the South Carolina Administrators Leadership Academy.

The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction sponsored the first academy to establish the Business Liaison Program, a partnership for management development with local businesses. The North Carolina Leadership Institute for Principals identified corporations that offer management-development programs for their employees that are generic and may have value for managers and leaders in education (Patterson, 1985).

Another example of cooperation in management training was a national symposium held in Florida in 1981. The directors of five state management-training academies, chief school officers, executives from the major national education organizations, and executives from major national corporations met to explore the role of state education agencies in providing management training for school leaders. The viewpoint of the private sector was considered critical (Patterson, 1985).

Education agencies and organizations, including colleges of
education, acknowledge that management development is important
for school administrators. Thousands of educators are engaged
in management development, especially in the areas of budget and
finance, legal analysis, computer literacy, time and stress
management, and negotiating skills. But the situation today is
compounded because the school administrator, caught in an
economic paradox of simultaneous inflation and recession, must
respond to a public that wants to cut taxes and governmental
services, and at the same time respond to demands from school
employees for higher salaries and increased benefits. If public
school administrators are to function successfully in this
current situation, they must master the art of management.
(Patterson, 1985, p. 8)

Summary of Chapter II

Recognition of the interdependence of business and education is

not a new phenomenon. The movement from an agrarian society to an

industrial society provided a systematic process for business to

influence the education of its present and future workers. Since the

beginning of the twentieth century, methods in the management of

businesses have also been the methods adopted by leaders in

education. Educational theorists continued to use theories and

practices of business leaders as a model for educational

administration.

Private-sector influence on education has been accompanied by

some financial support since the eighteenth century. Early industri-

alists saw the schools as a way to move many workers successfully

from the small towns into the cities. The Kellogg Foundation's entry

into the field of public school administration in 1946 provided more

than $9 million during a 15-year period to improve the study of

school administration. The Kellogg-funded Cooperative Project in

Educational Administration is considered the most significant vitalizing influence in the field of educational administration.

American business is today playing the dual role of educator-activist in this society. While corporations remain generous in supporting higher education, the connection between the corporate world and K-12 districts has translated into less than 1% of the total school budget. Although the federal government lists approximately 55,000 examples of different partnership efforts around the country, most are simple affiliations; episodic and limited projects are the most common. While most attention has been given to counting the number of schools "adopted" by businesses, the maximum payoff will be in the legislative and executive chambers that determine how much money will go to schools: the need for leaders to talk with leaders.

This is a world of organizations, each of which has a leader or manager. A wealth of literature that describes what a manager should do conflicts with the observational and self-report studies of what managers actually do. Expecting to command and make major decisions that could contribute to a change in the culture of the organization, managers, instead, discover that the behavioral skills involved in the job require extraordinary patience, endurance, continuous interaction, and compromises. Several researchers have suggested similarities in the activity patterns of principals and private-sector managers, who have a tendency to become preoccupied with superficial activities applying to both disciplines.

Training is considered the most widely used method for improving leadership. Corporations are becoming like universities of lifelong learning; more than $60 billion dollars is spent annually in corporate training. In 1935, only 3% of major firms had some type of management-development program, but in 1961 that number had increased to 77% of the top 500 companies having such a program.

As leaders in the United States and in Michigan look to ways to remain competitive in the world economy, the role of training and retraining will increase in importance. Leaders have begun to focus their attention on the present and future pool of workers and how to influence the quality of that pool by determining the strategic targets of interdependence. The literature reflects a resurgence of support for private-sector and public school partnerships to ensure excellence in the schools. The literature also reflects the similarity of tasks and necessary skills for management in business. As leaders focus their vision on excellent schools as a vital ingredient in a healthy economy, a management-development partnership between business and education may be a key to reaching that vision.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to attempt to answer the following major research questions and their subsets:

1. Are the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs considered important competencies for school-building administration by principals and superintendents?

What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

   a. School district size
   b. Principals or superintendents
   c. Age of respondents
   d. Gender of respondents
   e. Elementary or secondary principals
   f. Geographic location of district
   g. Number of years in current position
   h. Number of years in present district
   i. Total years as a building principal

2. If given the opportunity to participate in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector, what conditions are identified as important by principals and superintendents?

What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

   a. School district size
   b. Principals or superintendents
   c. Age of respondents
   d. Gender of respondents
   e. Elementary or secondary principals
   f. Geographic location of district
   g. Number of years in current position
   h. Number of years in present district
   i. Total years as a building principal

3. Are there any conditions under which directors of private-sector management-development programs would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators?

4. Do principals and superintendents consider a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs an important resource for the development of school-building administrators?

The remainder of this chapter is divided into the following sections:

I. Background Information

II. Population One--Management-Development Directors

    1. Development of the instrument

    2. Sampling procedure

    3. Data collection

    4. Treatment of the data

III. Population Two--Elementary Principals, Secondary Principals, and Superintendents of Local School Districts

    1. Development of the instrument

    2. Sampling procedure

    3. Data collection

    4. Treatment of the data

Background Information

This research is descriptive in nature. The populations for this study were (a) ten management-development directors of

corporations located in western Michigan and (b) a stratified sample of all elementary principals, secondary principals, and superintendents in Michigan.

The State of Michigan

The state of Michigan was chosen for this study for the following reasons:

1. By 1990, 48.5% of Michigan's present school administrators will have left the administrative ranks (Angus, 1986).

2. The Michigan Department of Education in 1985 established the Michigan Partnerships for Education, and in 1986 the Michigan Legislature allocated monies for partnerships between education and the private sector. Management training has been identified as a first-priority activity.

3. Legislative approval of changes in Michigan's School Code will empower the Michigan Department of Education to establish requirements for administrator certification.

In the past decade, the people of Michigan have been losing confidence in their economic future (Ross, 1984). Michigan's 17% unemployment rate during the recession of 1979 to 1982 further weakened Michigan's confidence in the future. To retool the industrial base to compete in the 1990s, there will need to be considerable innovation in industrial technology, labor skills, labor-management relations, and managerial styles (Ross, 1984).

The present Governor of Michigan, James J. Blanchard, has begun a push toward a coordinated state economic strategy including a
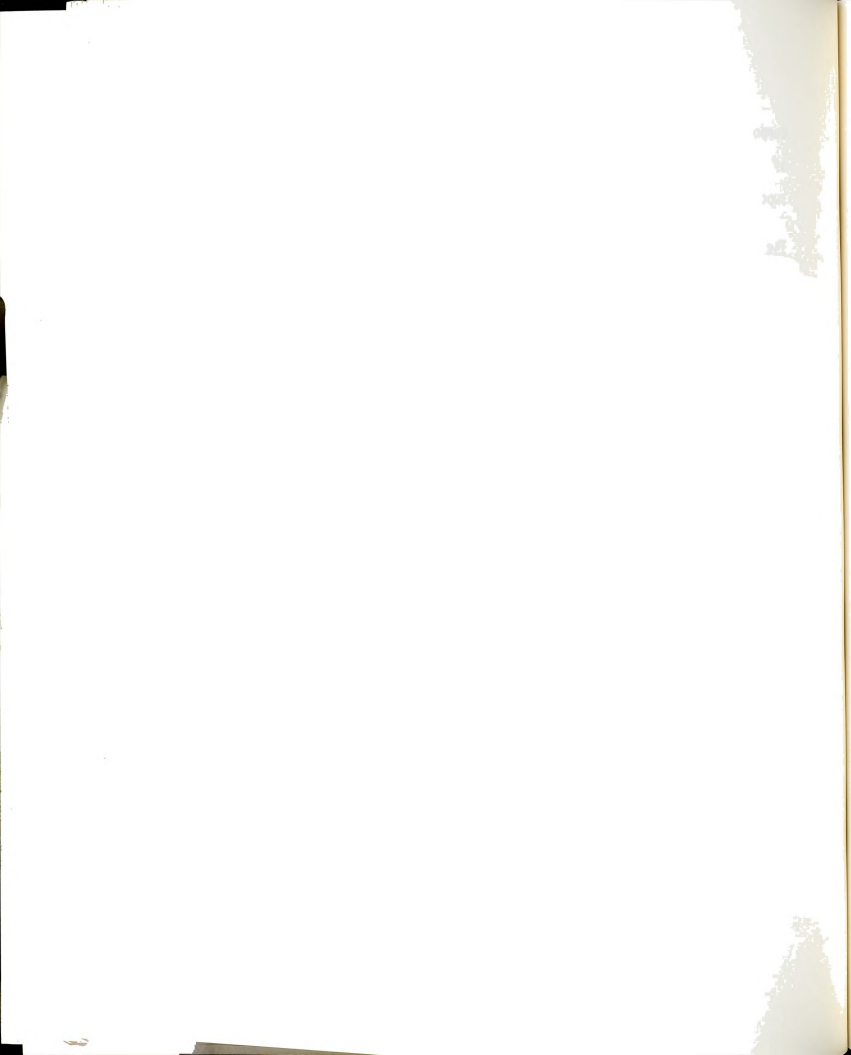
broad-based effort to upgrade the educational system. The theme of "human investment" is expected to be the primary thrust of the Governor's second term, based on a concern that Michigan is falling behind other states in preparing managers and workers for the more complex factories and offices that are sources of new, high-paying jobs (Grand Rapids Press, 1986).

Michigan's advantage in world competition is to remain one of the leading centers in the manufacturing of durable goods in a variety of industries: automobiles, steel, machinery, office equipment, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, appliances, and office furniture. The vision of a prosperous future for Michigan is not in services but as a leading center of durable goods complex manufacturing (Ross, 1984).

Kent County

The members of Population One were chosen from private-sector corporations in Kent County, one of Michigan's high-growth areas. Population expansion in Kent County in the last decade was 8%, reflecting almost double the statewide growth rate. The city of Grand Rapids is the second largest in the state; it has a population of 181,843, and the greater metropolitan area has a population of 601,680 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1980). In terms of providing employment for its residents, Kent County is considered self-sufficient; less than 5% commute to other areas for work (Ball, 1986).

Industrial employment in the area is diversified; one-third of the industry jobs are in manufacturing. Because the automobile industry plays a much smaller role in Kent County's manufacturing base when compared to the state (Ross, 1984), the Kent County area has not experienced strong cyclical employment shifts. The major manufacturing operations in the area include fabricated metals, furniture, nonelectrical machinery, and automobile components. The furniture industry has continued to expand at rapid rates with little effect from economic cycles, giving the area a major stabilizing factor. Wholesale and retail trade; services; and finance, insurance, and real estate have experienced a 40% expansion since 1970 (Ball, 1986).

The advantage that the industry mix provides to this area is expected to hold long-term. Wage and salary jobs are expected to increase more than 24%. Strong growth is projected in the manufacturing sector, with substantial gains in chemicals, fabricated metals, and furniture. Advances of more than 30% in services, wholesale trade, and retail trade are projected to lead the expansion in private nonmanufacturing (Ball, 1986).

Reflecting the strong industry growth trends, occupational employment in the Kent County area is projected to increase more than twice as fast as the rest of the state. Above-average rates are expected for groups of sales, service, professional, and clerical workers. Managerial, craft, operative, and laborer occupations will experience a below-average expansion rate but will remain quite strong compared to the rest of the state between 1980 and 1990. The
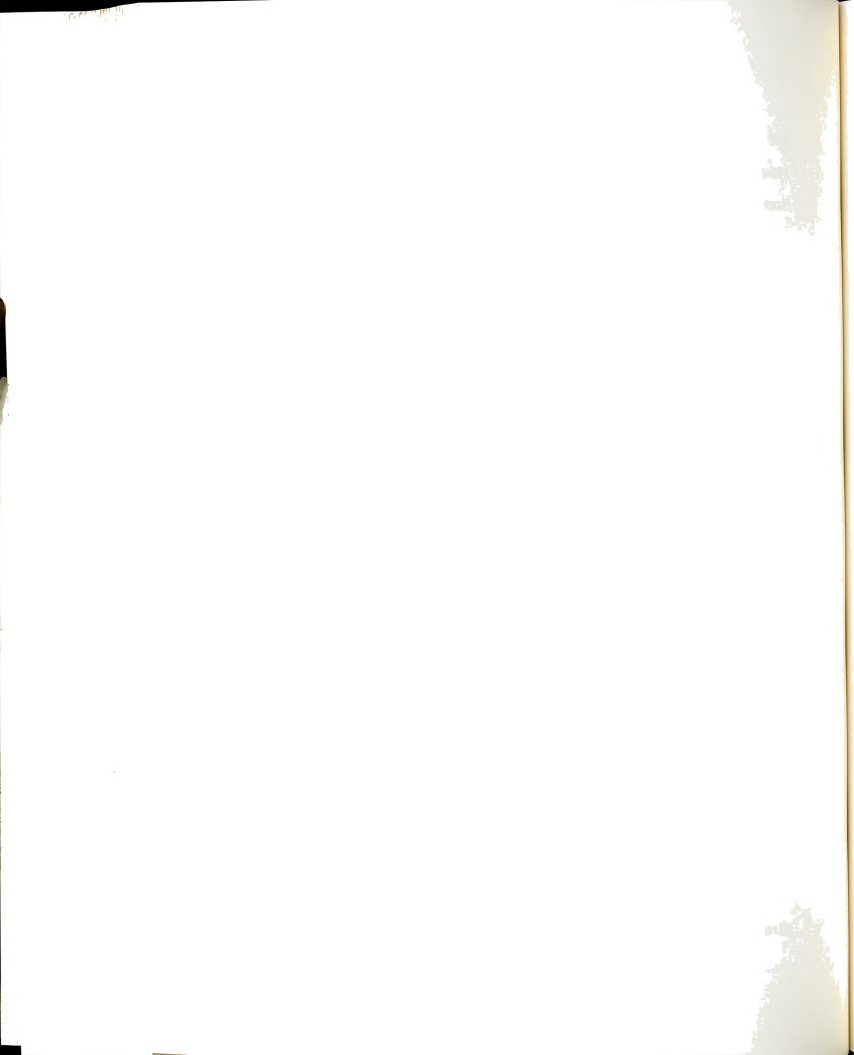
Grand Rapids area recorded a 38% increase in jobs between 1970 and 1983, a growth rate comparable to those of some of the fastest-growing Sunbelt states (Rohan, 1984).

Population One--Management-Development Directors
Development of the Instrument

After investigating a number of ways to collect the initial data, the researcher decided to use an unstructured interview survey for the following reasons. Interview surveys typically attain a higher response rate than mail surveys, the interviewer can probe for answers and minimize the "no answer" responses, questionnaire items are less confusing, and material can be clarified to obtain relevant responses. After establishing rapport and trust, data that subjects might not give on a questionnaire can be obtained (Babbie, 1973; Gay, 1976).

The primary function of the interview guide (Appendix A) was to identify the competencies addressed in management-development programs and the willingness of management-development directors to enter into a partnership effort in the development of school administrators.

The general categories of identified competencies included

1. The ability to plan and organize work
2. The ability to work with and lead others
3. The ability to analyze problems and make decisions
4. The ability to communicate orally and in writing
5. The ability to perceive the needs and concerns of others
6. The ability to perform under pressure

These abilities were identified by the Assessment Center Project of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). A second category, "Other," was added by this researcher.

The NASSP's Assessment Center was initiated in 1975 to help identify and develop potentially strong building administrators and was provided design assistance by a special committee of the American Psychological Association (Hersey, 1982). Among those who assisted with the project were industrial psychologists, Thomas Jewswald from R. R. Donnelly and Sons and Joel L. Moses of American Telephone and Telegraph. The 12 dimensions that constitute the competencies reflected in the six categorical abilities needed by successful school administrators are also listed in the 33 managerial dimensions that are common in assessment centers in industry and organizations (Thornton & Byham, 1982).

The validation study of the NASSP Assessment Center Project (Schmitt, Noe, Meritty, Fitzgerald, & Jorgensen, 1982) determined that the Assessment Center process is a valid predictor of the job success of administrative personnel in an educational setting. Research in industry and government continues to show the validity, reliability, and utility of the Assessment Center process (Cascio & Silbey, 1979; Thornton & Byham, 1983).

The following questions were asked to determine respondents' willingness to enter into a partnership effort that would assist with the development of school administrators:
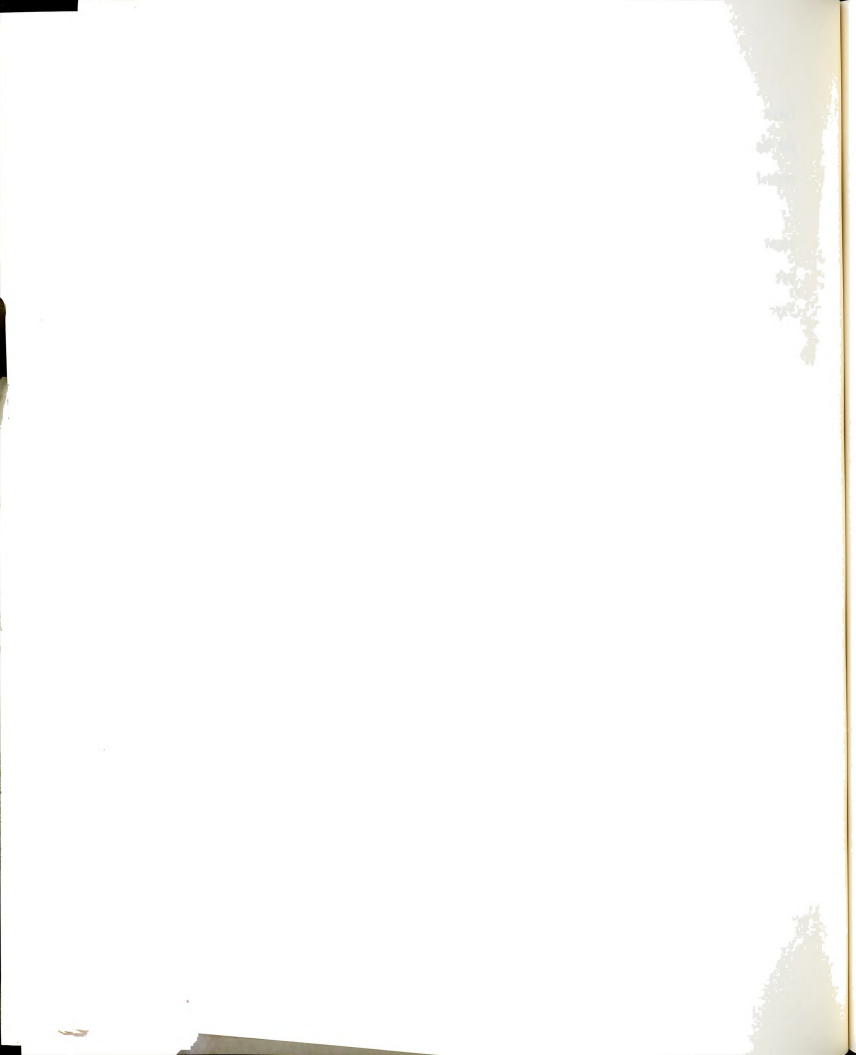
1. Are there any conditions under which you would be willing to enter into a partnership effort in the development of school administrators?

2. Are there any benefits this corporation would derive from a management-development partnership with public education? Please describe.

The demographic questions were asked to obtain information about the number of employees, the number of years a management-development program had been available in the corporation, the title of the interviewee and the length of time in this position, and the relationship of the program to the corporation.

The instrument was submitted to a panel of experts to determine face validity. The panel comprised a university professor, a social science researcher, two directors of human resource units in large corporations, and a training and development specialist in a small business. This panel found the inventory to be face valid.

Sampling Procedure

Criteria for a corporation to be included in this study were developed by a panel of experts, including the director of human resources of a major industry, the director of education and training for a major automotive industry, a university professor, a member of the Michigan Department of Education, and a marketing director for a small management consulting firm. These criteria were: (a) location in Michigan for a minimum of three years, (b) a minimum of 1,000 employees, (c) an equal opportunity employer, (d) an identified
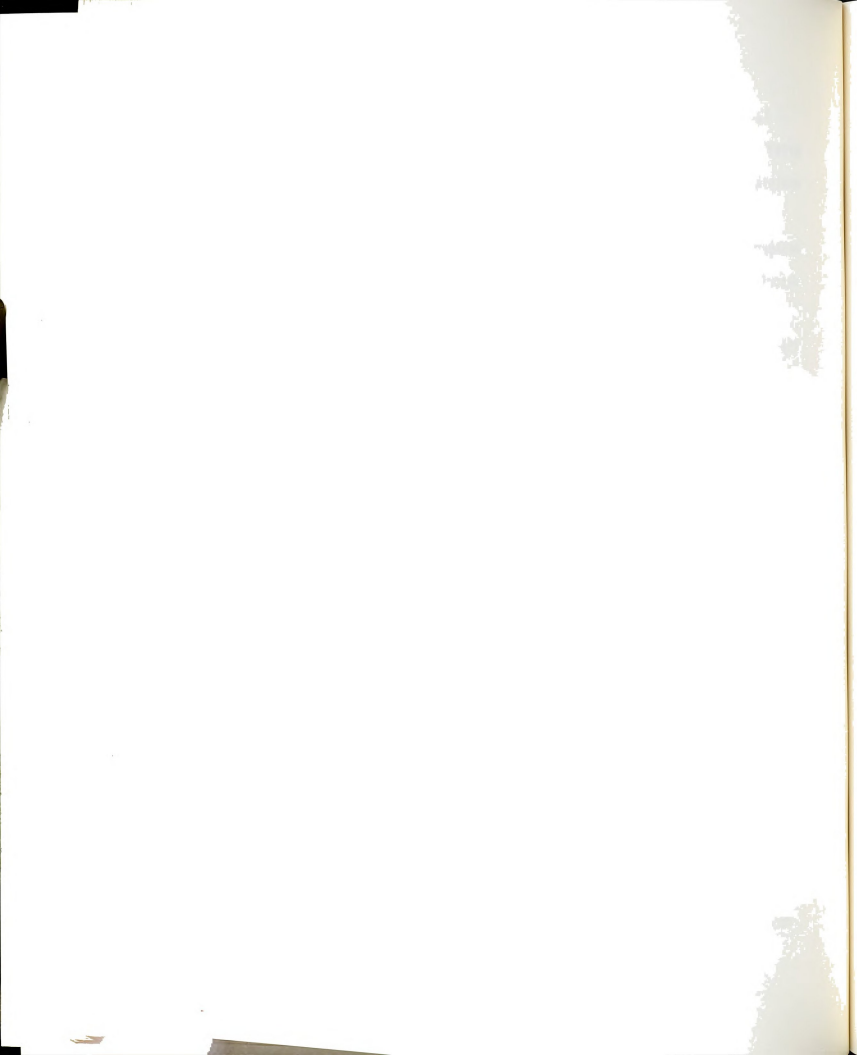
director of management education and development who had been in that position for at least two years, (e) a management-development program in effect for at least three years, (f) scheduled training for managers that occurs in Michigan, (g) visibility in the field as determined by members of the West Michigan Association for Training and Development, and (h) willingness to participate in the study.

Each corporation was to represent one of five of the nine major industry classifications in the Standard Industrial Classification Manual (1972)--manufacturing; wholesale; services; retail; and finance, insurance, and real estate--based on the leading employment patterns and the amount of money spent on employee training (Carnevale, 1986).

The County Business Patterns (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1980) listed the leading employment patterns in Michigan and Kent County as follows:

		Kent County	Michigan
1.	Manufacturing	37%	34%
2.	Service	23%	24%
3.	Retail	20%	21%
4.	Wholesale	8%	6%
5.	Finance, insurance, real estate	5	6

Characteristics of Population One

Seventeen businesses in the Kent County area met the criterion of a minimum of 1,000 employees (nine manufacturing and eight nonmanufacturing) and represented the five chosen industrial classifications (Regional Manufacturers Directory, 1985). Only 8 of the 17 met all of the established criteria. Visibility in the field
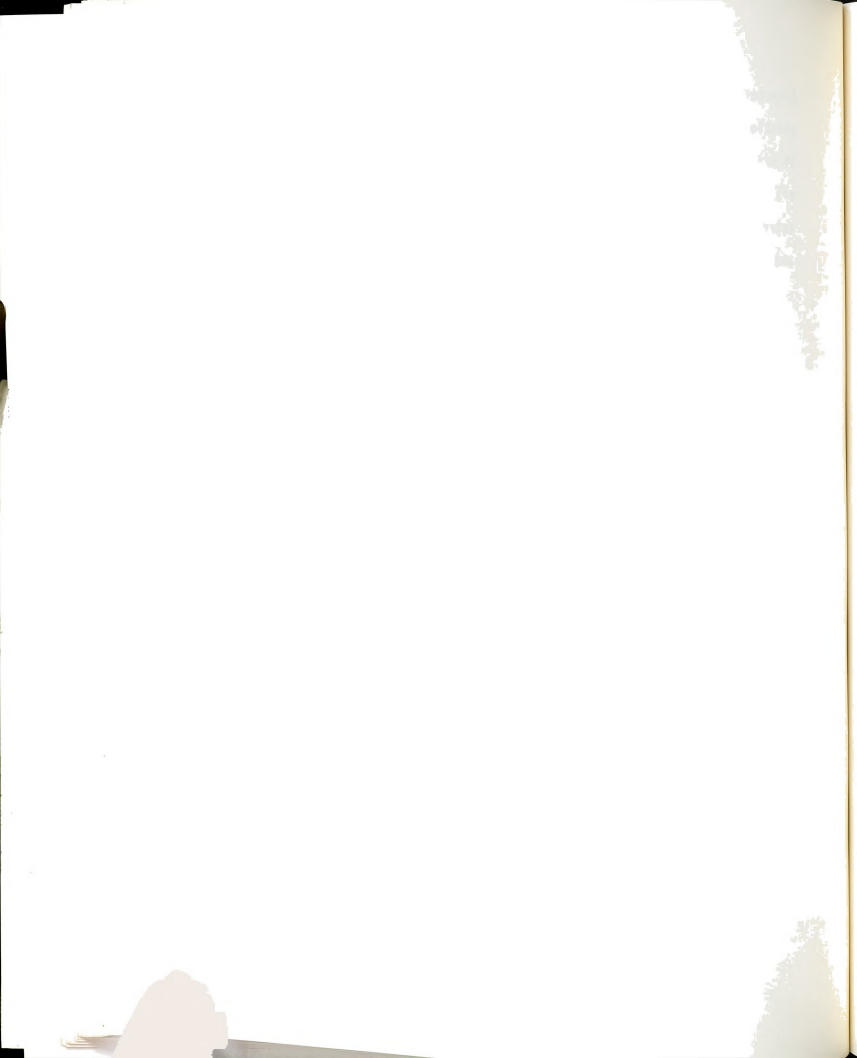
led to the selection of two more corporations that, on further investigation, did meet all of the criteria. Ten corporations were chosen for this study.

Manufacturing firms. Five of the industries selected were manufacturing firms. Michigan has one of the largest manufacturing workforces in the nation; 34% of the workforce is employed in manufacturing. Thirty-seven percent of the workforce in Kent County is employed by manufacturing firms (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1980). Although by 1995 the national rate of industrial employment will decrease to 19% (Pearson, 1987), Michigan is expected to remain at approximately 31% (Hodkinson, 1987). There are two critical components to Michigan's economy: (a) the economic base that produces goods and services exported from the state and brings new money into the state and (b) the local market economy that simply recirculates money within the state. Local market activities compete with one another for the income ultimately brought into Michigan by the industries in the economic base. The ultimate sources of jobs in Michigan are those in the state's economic base (Ross, 1984).

Description of Corporation A--manufacturing: Corporation A employs 120,000 people all over the world, with headquarters in Pennsylvania and a business unit located in Kent County. A management-development program has been in place 40 to 50 years. The interviewee's title was Manager of Employee Relations. This person had been the director of management-development programs for 12 years.

In 1986, Corporation A marked 100 years of product excellence and achievement, with sales and earnings at an all-time high. The business units focus on several strategic markets, diverse areas in which this corporation has earned a strong position by its proven technological abilities. The principal markets involve:

Electronics: Corporation A is an innovator in both the commercial and defense electronics markets and is committed to achieving the highest standards of quality through the creative intelligence of specialized personnel and advanced manufacturing technology. Technological advances in printed circuit boards, computer networks for monitoring and controlling process systems, and radar systems for the nation's air traffic control network are hallmarks of this corporation.

Electrical energy market: Corporation A has been in the forefront of this market, providing utilities and other customers with a full spectrum of products and services to generate, control, measure, and direct the flow of electricity.

Construction market: Products include an array of electrical apparatus that makes this corporation one of the most experienced electrical-equipment suppliers serving the construction market.

Broadcasting market: Satellite communications centers are the natural outgrowth of the corporation's record of firsts, including the first commercially licensed radio station, radio newsrooms, live concerts, AM stereo, world series broadcasts, and FM broadcasts of NFL football.
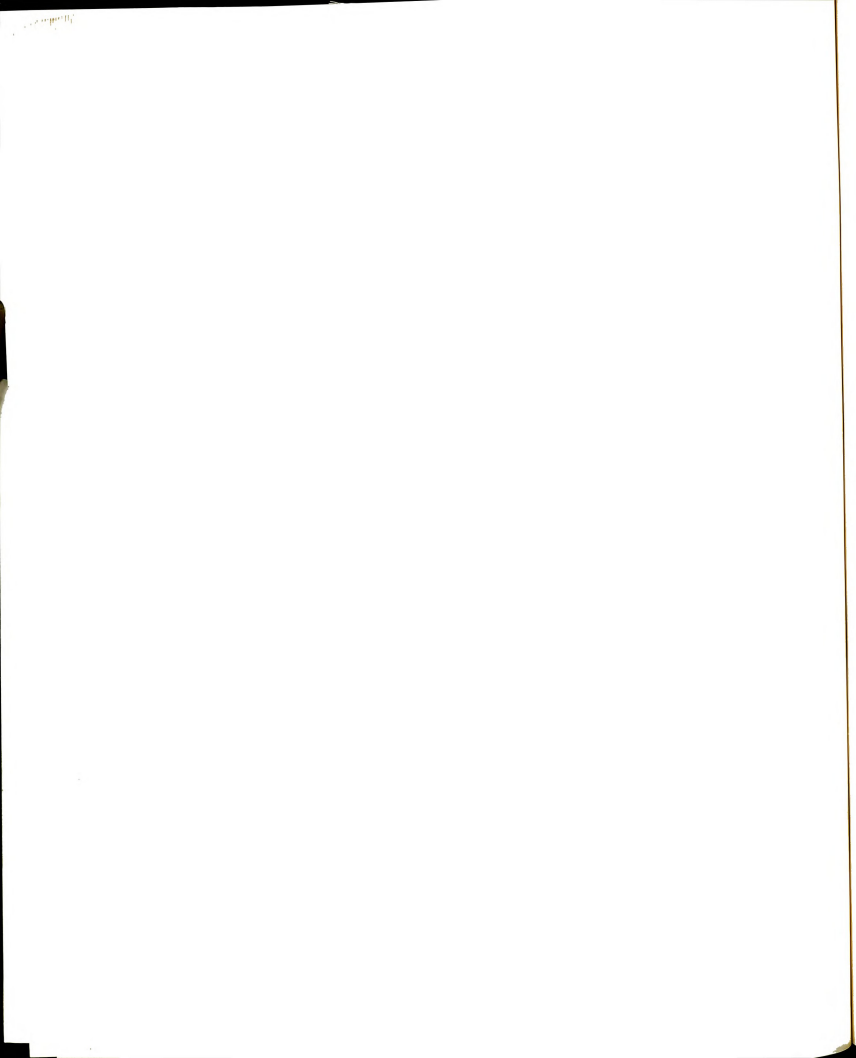
Finance market: Corporation A has a commercial-services group encompassing asset-based financing services and includes the fixed-asset financing, leasing, corporate finance, inventory financing, and receivables financing, as well as a capital financing group composed of real-estate-related financing and investor-note portfolios. Description of Corporation B--manufacturing: In 1986, Corporation B celebrated its twenty-seventh year in business. Beginning in 1959 with one product and the business headquartered in the owners' homes, this corporation is still headquartered in Kent County. It has 7,000 employees and six million square feet worldwide in five regional centers. Three hundred products and 2,000 catalog items are sold in 44 countries and territories. What was once a one-product business developed into a line of products spanning eight businesses, including home care, health and fitness, commercial, personal care, home-tech, catalog, services, and education businesses.

The network-marketing concept boasts one million distributors who can provide their customers with many products, including laundry detergent, clothing, cosmetics, VCR's, health products, legal network, travel services, automobiles, telephone services, satellite dishes, encyclopedias, telephone service, and many other products and services too numerous to mention. All of this may be charged by the approved customer to a revolving charge account supported through the financial services offered. A million-dollar research and development center insures the corporation standards supported by the satisfaction guarantee. Corporation B has also initiated contract

packaging with other manufacturing firms in the United States and Canada.

The interviewee has been the Manager of Human Resource Development for ten years. The corporation has had a management-development program in place for 15 years.

Description of Corporation C--manufacturing: Corporation C, founded in 1954, produces sophisticated aircraft systems, including flight-control systems, weapon-management systems, flight-management systems, navigation systems, and flight data recorders; general aviation aircraft; and remotely piloted vehicles. The company also manufactures automotive products for original-equipment manufacturers, primarily seating and air-suspension systems, and for the replacement market, including windshields.

In addition, Corporation C produces material-handling systems for manufacturing and distribution facilities, boats and handguns for the recreational market, and furniture components. There are 29,000 employees corporation-wide, 2,200 of them in the Grand Rapids area.

In 1986, Corporation C disposed of six businesses as they withdrew from the heating and air-conditioning, pre-engineered, metal building, machine tool, expendable cutting tool, and data terminal markets. This resulted in a 25% reduction in the company.

Although the aerospace industry remains depressed, Corpora-tion C has maintained its leadership role in a variety of aerospace disciplines, especially in the retrofit avionics market for military aircraft. Rapid technological change and the high cost of new

aircraft have made this market highly attractive to governments throughout the world.

Expansion of its role in two segments of the automotive industry--seating products and auto glass--has resulted in Corporation C's becoming the largest independent supplier of seat frames and fully trimmed seats to General Motors and Ford. The program is designed for the delivery of seats only a few hours before they are to be installed (Just-in-Time).

Description of Corporation D--manufacturing: Corporation D is a major automotive manufacturer, controlling 40% of the total combined United States car and truck sales in 1985. The company reported a gain of 12% in the market of foreign countries. This giant corporation employs 891,000 employees throughout the world.

The leaders of Corporation D report the strategies for the future of the corporation include maintaining leadership in the automotive market, remaining a significant force in related key industries, continuing as a high-technology enterprise, and recording a profit. To support these strategies, in the past two years the corporation has purchased the world's largest and most technically advanced computer-service company, the expert in developing software that controls automated manufacturing systems. In addition, Corporation D purchased the company considered the expert in the integration of satellite communications, in microelectronics, and in systems engineering. These acquisitions add a dimension of diversification to this corporation, but the key is the additional systems integration to remain competitive in the world market.

The interviewee was the Superintendent of Education and Training for a plant located in Kent County, but he provides information for both this plant and corporation-wide management development. This particular facility employs 2,000 people.

Description of Corporation E--manufacturing: Following the hardwood forests westward as they were cut down in the East, the United States furniture industry moved from New England to Grand Rapids, Michigan, approximately 100 years ago. For 50 years, every quality furniture maker was located in that city. However, residential-furniture factories have for the most part moved to North Carolina. Still headquartered in Grand Rapids is Corporation E, the nation's leading manufacturer of office furniture (Michaels, 1985).

Corporation E began in 1912 in Grand Rapids, Michigan, as a manufacturer of fireproof steel safes. That first year they employed 15 people, and sales totaled $13,000. Today, Corporation E employs 13,000 people at 20 sites in nine countries around the world. Sales in 1984 exceeded $1 billion. This corporation has led the $6.5 billion office furniture industry since 1968. From 1974 to 1984, it grew at an average annual rate of 17.5%, compared to 14.4% for the industry as a whole; it maintains a solid 20% market share. Around the turn of the century, before the company was started, office workers constituted 18% of the workforce in the United States. In 1986, office workers constituted 55% of the workforce, and that figure is projected to be 60% by 1990.

In addition to the steel desks and filing cabinets that were its early major projects, this corporation manufactures wood desks and accessories, systems furniture, seating, and office lighting products. It also develops computer software programs that aid in the planning and management of office environments. They back their products with a strong research and development effort that, over the years, has included the first acoustics and lighting laboratories in the industry, the first national opinion research on office workers' attitudes and productivity (through Louis Harris & Associates), and an innovative software program for designing and visualizing office lighting. Their title now includes "The Office Environment Company."

As the authors of The Hundred Best Companies to Work for in America (Levering et al., 1985) pointed out,

> [Corporation E] maintains that growth rate and leadership position by consistently turning out products of the highest quality and by employing a dedicated team of people to design, manufacture, and sell those products. [Corporation E] works hard to keep an experienced and motivated staff: 88 percent of the people who worked for the company in 1975 were still with them ten years later.

Twenty percent of job openings at Corporation E are allocated to minority groups, but the other 80% go to people recommended by current employees. So many workers recommend children, relatives, and friends for jobs that today only employees with at least 18 years of seniority are allowed to sponsor new employees. Many "new" employees are the second or third generation to work at Corporation E.

The corporation takes great pride in the fact that since the founding of the company in 1912, there has not been a work stoppage

due to labor problems. There has never been a union at Corporation E. Yet the average factory worker's compensation in 1984 was $31,000, 20% higher than the regional mean and better even than the auto-industry average in its best times. Half of the wages come from bonuses and incentives (Berman, 1985).

Discipline and efficiency are trademarks of this company. A solid 96.5% of all shipments that leave the factory are received on schedule even though 12,000 different products are produced--the largest line in the industry. Michaels (1985) wrote:

> If ever a company marched to its own drummer, this one does--and in perfect step. . . . It pays wages and benefits considerably above average, demands discipline both from its employees and its dealers, remains relentlessly private and undiversified and almost never borrows money. In an age when management by quarterly results is all too common, here is a company that seems to see its business as an organic whole rather than as the sum of a column of numbers. . . . [This company] gives readers a rare glimpse into a company that ought to be--but isn't--studied carefully in our august management schools.

The interviewee was the Director of Human Resources and had held this position for six years. The corporation has had a management-development program for more than ten years.

Nonmanufacturing firms. While manufacturing firms across the nation have seen a decline in the number of jobs available, the non-manufacturing services have become the fastest-growing segment of the American economy. Jobs in nonmanufacturing are expected to climb to approximately 80% of the workforce by 1995 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1980).

In 1980, 66% of the workers in Michigan and 63% of the workers in Kent County were employed in nonmanufacturing jobs (U.S.

Department of Commerce, 1980). The nonmanufacturing categories represented in this study are service; retail; wholesale; and finance, insurance, and real estate. In 1980, workers in these categories represented 57% of the workers in Michigan and 56% of the workers in Kent County (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1980).

Most of the service industries did not meet the criteria for the number of employees. Although the four area hospitals were contacted, none was available to participate. The service industry selected for this research was a member of a fast-food chain. As many as two-thirds of the high school juniors and seniors in the United States hold part-time jobs, and most of these are in the fast-food industry. For many students, a job in fast foods is their introduction to the job market (Etzioni, 1986).

Two corporations are represented in the finance, insurance, and real estate category.

Description of Corporation F--service: Corporation F is a franchise of a national fast-food chain that has 4,000 restaurants in the United States and approximately 700 restaurants in 26 other countries around the world. Total sales worldwide are in excess of $4.5 billion.

The local owner launched the first restaurant in 1967. Corporation F employs 1,200 people at 23 restaurants in Grand Rapids, Wyoming, Grand Haven, Holland, Kentwood, Greenville, Traverse City, Petoskey, and Gaylord. The most recent addition is a spacious 162-seat restaurant in downtown Grand Rapids.
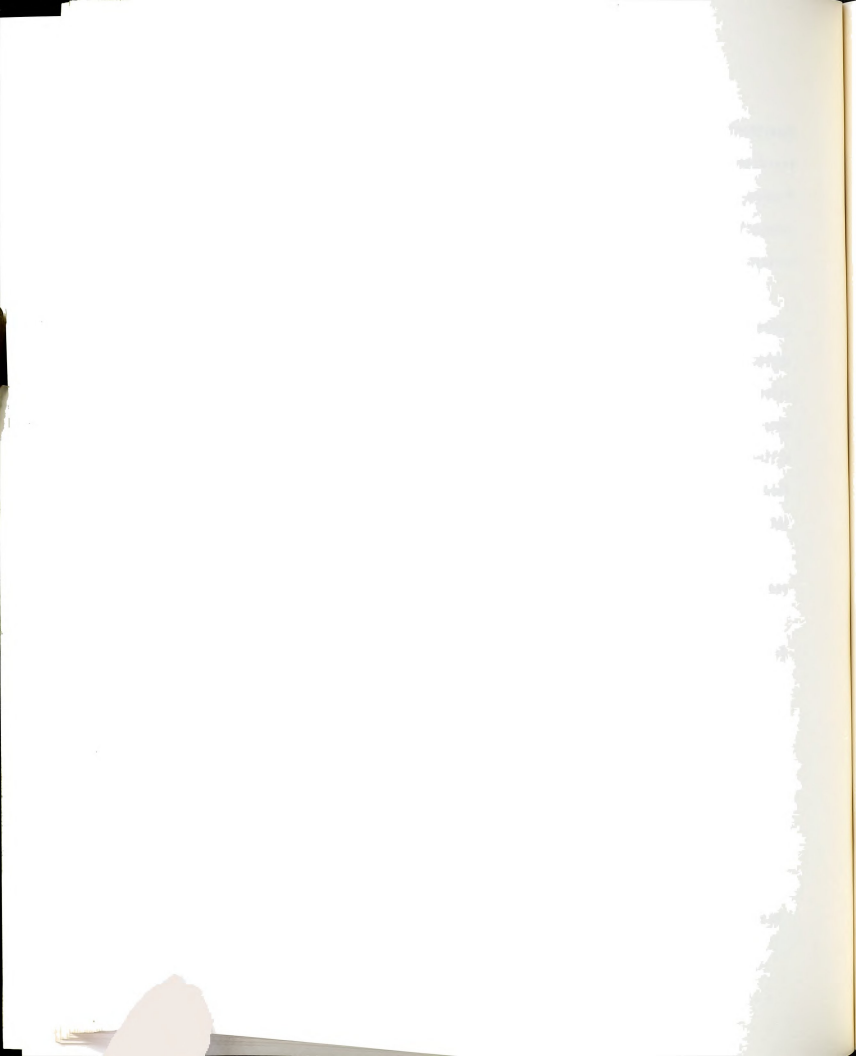
The annual shopping list for this corporation includes 1,750,000 pounds of hamburger,100,000 pounds of chicken, 150,000 pounds of lettuce, 1,750,000 pounds of potatoes, and 10,000,000 buns. Approximately six million beverages are dispensed yearly.

Corporation F provides child-care service to employees who need it. An educational benefit worth up to $2,500 per employee for college tuition and expenses is an outright gift for education and need not be repaid.

In providing service to the community, Corporation F donated more than $42,000 in food and soft drinks to support school, civic, and charitable groups. The owner of this corporation demonstrated a continued commitment to the community by donating a parcel of land valued at $400,000 to a local college to provide needed student parking.

The interviewee had the title of Senior District Manager and had held that position for five years. The corporation has had a management-development program for 15 years.

Description of Corporation G--retail: Corporation G began in 1934 with a single family owned store in Greenville, Michigan. Still "family owned," the corporation has grown to include 74 stores in Michigan, Ohio, and Kentucky, employing 28,000 associates.

Reflecting this rapid growth, the transportation fleet numbers 84 tractors and 454 trailers, with drivers traveling more than 6,800,000 miles. While the first store was 1,470 square feet, most stores today range from 60,000 to 248,000 square feet. Distribution

center complexes are located in Michigan at Grand Rapids and Lansing, as well as in Cincinnati, Ohio.

Since 1975, nearly 5,000 items have been researched and developed by the Private Label/Quality Assurance Department. Services within the stores have multiplied to keep pace with an ever-changing, increasingly complex society. Pharmacies, full-service meat counters, one-hour photo labs, and bulk foods have been added to please shoppers. Licensed operations now include foot clinics, dental clinics, insurance offices, travel agencies, shoe repairs, and tax services.

The interviewee had the title of Manager of Employee Training and had held that job for four years. The corporation has had a management-development program for 52 years.

<u>Description of Corporation H--wholesale</u>: Corporation H was organized in Michigan in 1917 at a meeting of 100 independent food retailers. Faced with growing competition from national chain stores, the local grocers agreed to a cooperative purchasing plan. By pooling resources, the independent grocers could buy commodities for less, then pass the lower prices along to the customer.

In 1950, the corporation established its first wholly owned subsidiary--a cash-and-carry operation designed to serve the needs of small retailers whose volume does not warrant buying in large quantities.

Beginning with only a boxcar of sugar, the company's products now include 6,000 grocery items, meat, frozen foods, dairy products, produce, health and beauty aids, hosiery, clothing, housewares, toys,

towels and sheets, sewing needs, automotive equipment, electrical supplies, hardware, tools, paint, stationery, and school supplies.

Corporation H has warehouses that serve all of Michigan and northern Ohio. The corporation employs 1,800 people but considers 25,000 employees in 475 member supermarkets part of the corporate team. In 1975 the corporate members were rated first in Michigan retail food sales.

The interviewee held the title of Director of Human Resource Services and had been in that position for nine years. The corporation has had a management-development program for 25 years.

Description of Corporation I--finance. Corporation I is a bank holding company with principal markets in Michigan. Grand Rapids is the largest market for its financial services. The corporation holds all of the outstanding stock of 19 banks and two nonbanking subsidiaries. This corporation and its subsidiaries are engaged in the business of commercial banking and other closely related activities. The services offered cover all phases of commercial banking and fiduciary services, including personal and commercial checking accounts, savings and time deposit accounts, automated transaction machine services, personal and business loans, equipment leasing, bank credit cards, money transfer services, safe deposit facilities, cash management and computer services, real estate financing, corporate and personal trust services, international banking, investment services, and securities brokerage services. The principal source of revenue is interest and fees on loans, with Grand
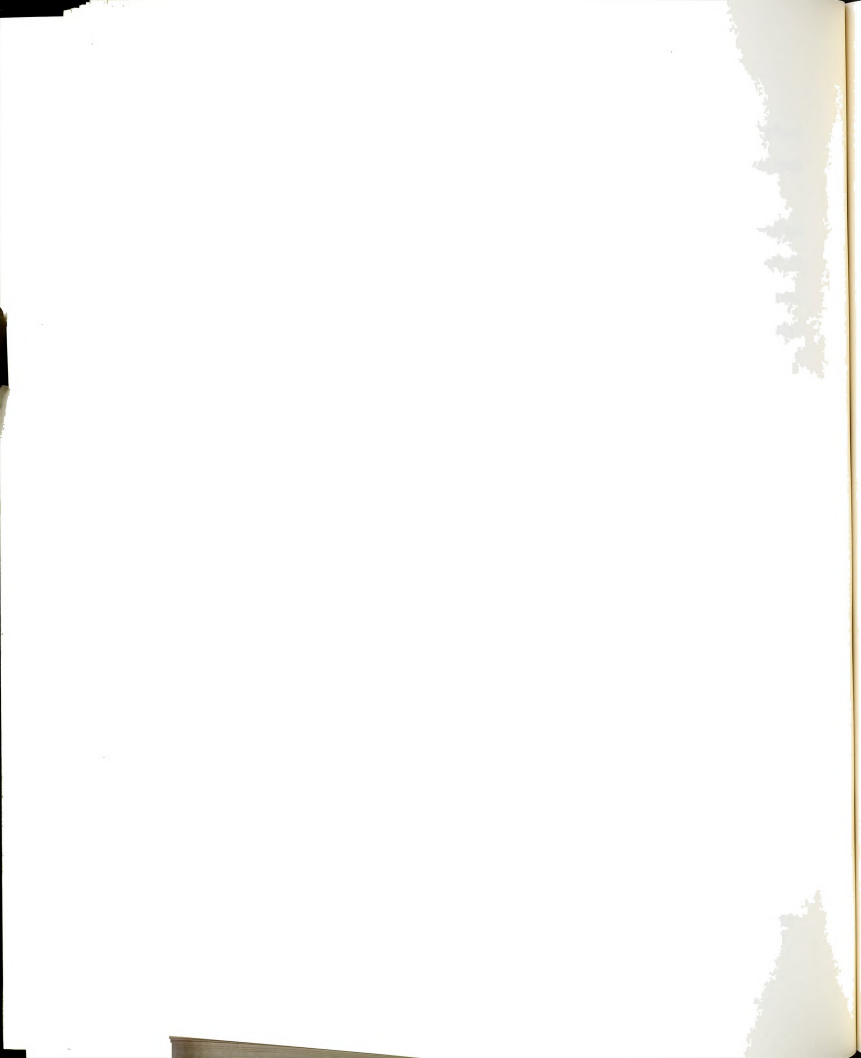
Rapids accounting for 56.2% of total deposits and 44.8% of total loans. The corporation and its subsidiaries serve their markets through 152 offices located in and within 25 miles of these communities.

State legislation permitting regional interstate banking was passed in 1985. Effective January 1, 1986, Michigan bank holding companies are permitted to acquire banks in Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin if these states have enacted reciprocal legislation. The legislation also permits the consolidation of banks in Michigan on a statewide basis, which will contribute to expansion.

The United States Banker (July 1986) ranked the top 100 bank holding companies. They were divided into two categories: money center banks, with 10 banks, and regional banks, with the other 90. Corporation I was ranked the number-one regional bank in overall performance, with an asset rank of 92 of the total 100.

This corporation employs approximately 3,000 employees and remains visible in the field for its corporate citizenship. The interviewee was the Vice-President of Training and Development and had been in that position for three years. The corporation has had a management-development program for 25 years.

Description of Corporation J--insurance: Corporation J is a holding company for a group of corporations that provide insurance products and services to those who own, buy, sell, manufacture, and finance mobile homes, recreational vehicles, automobiles, and homes.
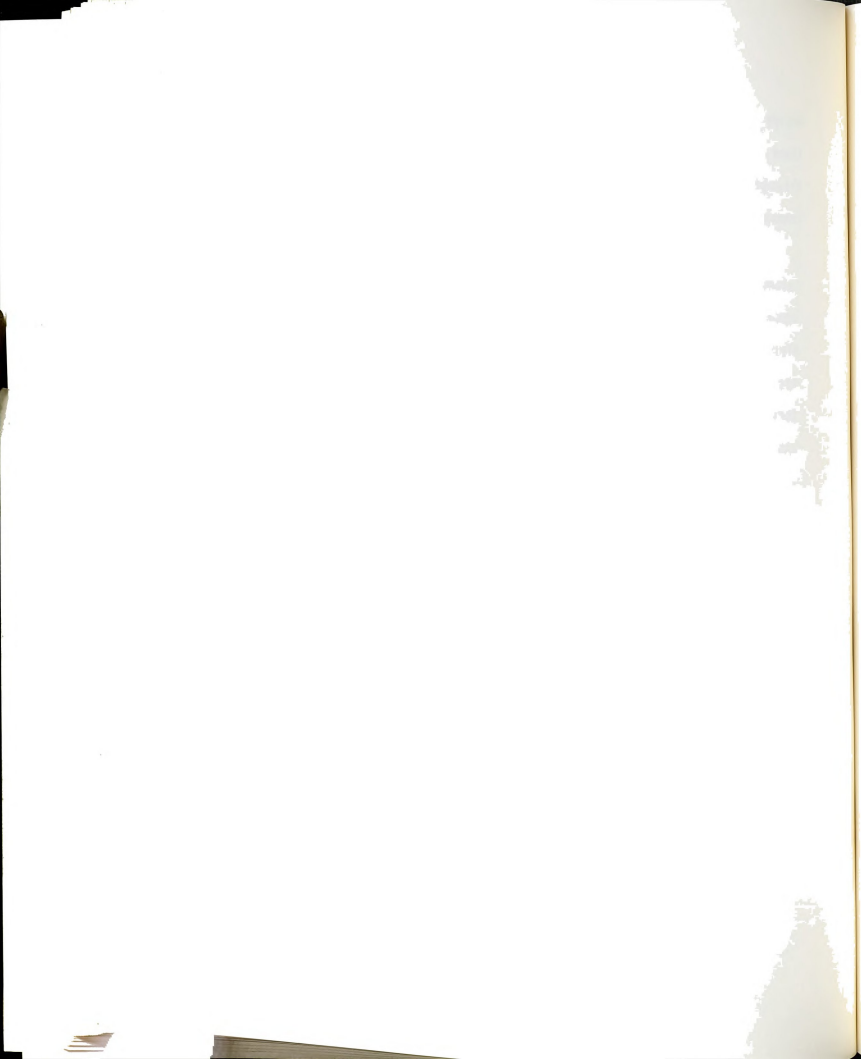
Since it was founded in 1952, the corporation has seen steady growth, establishing a tradition of leadership and innovation in the insurance industry. The corporation's operations are conducted through the following business segments: property and casualty insurance, life insurance, private mortgage insurance, and other operations including financing for purchasers of mobile homes. The principal markets served are the mobile home and recreational vehicle markets, except for private mortgage insurance, which serves the residential mortgage market. Sales of property and casualty and life insurance are made through dealer-agents, at the point of sale of mobile homes, recreational vehicles, and automobiles, through independent agents, and financial institutions. Private mortgage insurance is sold by the corporation to mortgage lenders.

The interviewee held the title of Assistant Vice-President for Training and Development and had held that position for 13 years. The corporation has had a management-development program for 16 years.

Collection of Data

The researcher served as the only interviewer for Population One. An appointment was made with each of the interviewees. Each was interviewed at his worksite. The interview guide (Appendix A) served as the interview instrument. A tape recorder, as well as paper and pen, was used to record the information. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. Only one interview was canceled and
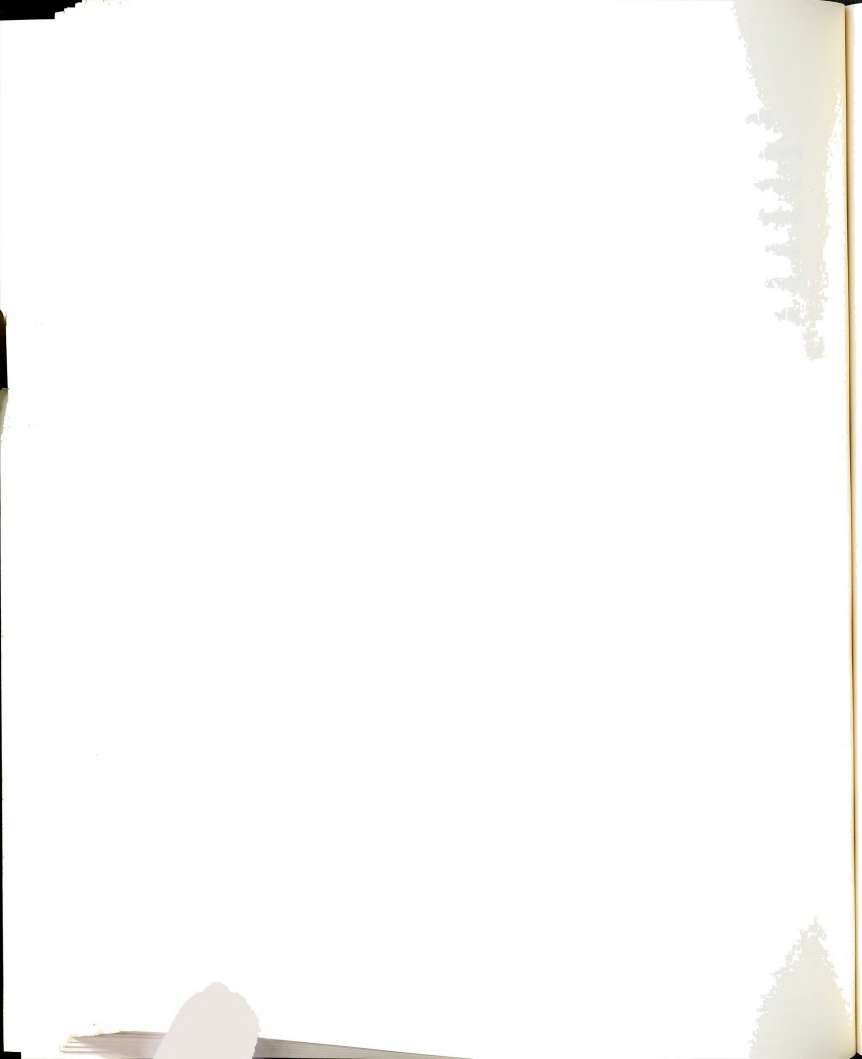
needed to be rescheduled. Data appearing in the preceding description of the sample were provided by each corporation.

Treatment of the Data

The competencies in the ten management-development programs were identified and grouped into the seven categories by each interviewee. The competencies in each category were analyzed for similarities and consolidated into 63 competencies:

ABILITY TO PLAN AND ORGANIZE WORK

Set goals
Identify critical elements and objectives
Establish change and transition strategies
Accomplish tasks effectively
Delegate tasks/responsibilities
Plan effective meetings
Manage time effectively

ABILITY TO WORK WITH AND LEAD OTHERS

Identify appropriate leadership style
Appraise staff performance
Improve staff performance
Mentor staff
Implement disciplinary action
Identify appropriate leadership behavior
Build teams for working together
Utilize power and influence
Improve relationships with peers
Improve relationships with bosses
Improve relationships with subordinates
Implement labor agreements
Develop a career plan
Build trust with staff
Recruit and select new employees
Motivate staff

ABILITY TO ANALYZE PROBLEMS AND MAKE DECISIONS

Write accurate problem statements
Analyze data
Analyze performance problems
Problem-solve as a group
Problem-solve individually
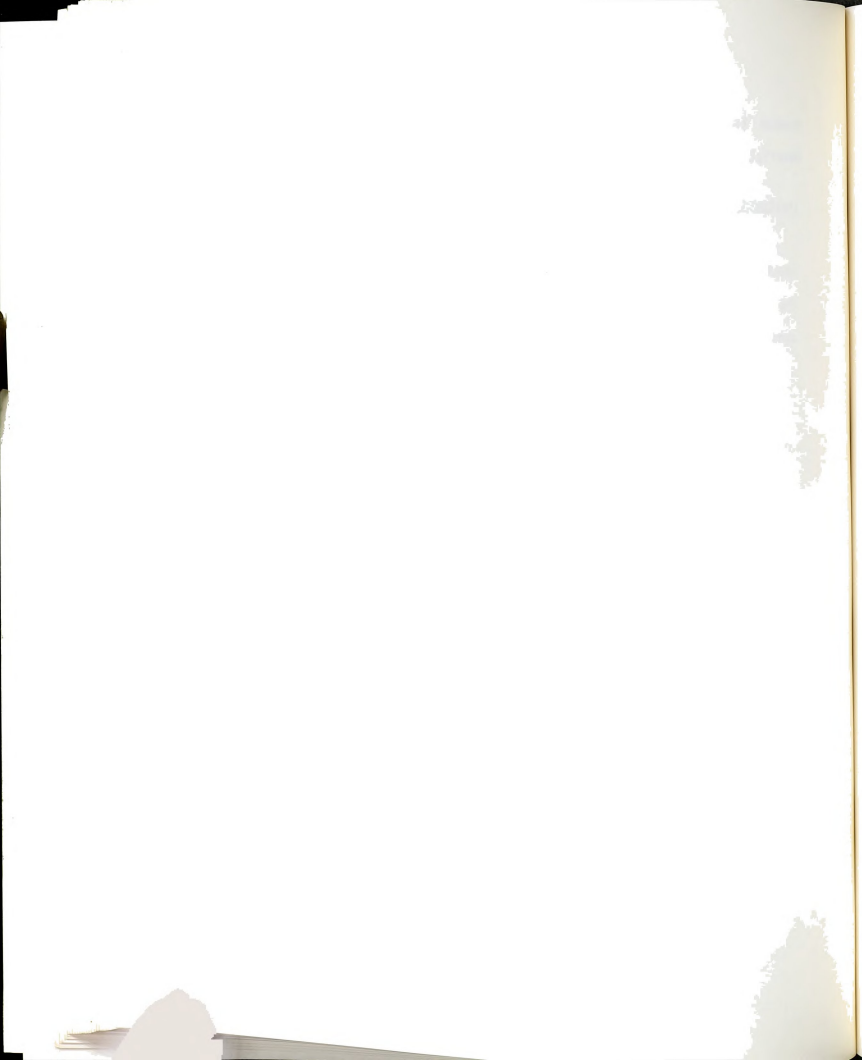
Make appropriate decisions
Monitor results
Anticipate problems
Analyze job skills

ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE ORALLY AND IN WRITING

Improve interpersonal skills
Conduct effective meetings
Be assertive
Present ideas skillfully for the appropriate audience
Conduct effective interviews
Speak skillfully on the telephone
Communicate effectively in writing
Eliminate barriers to communicate

ABILITY TO PERCEIVE THE NEEDS AND CONCERNS OF OTHERS

Conduct a needs analysis
Recognize, reward, and support appropriate behavior
Enhance self-esteem
Increase acceptance for change
Establish quality and productivity improvement circles

ABILITY TO PERFORM UNDER PRESSURE

Confront effectively
Negotiate successfully
Eliminate self-defeating behaviors
Minimize relationship tension
Manage stress effectively
Handle grievances

OTHER (NOT IDENTIFIED IN THE ABOVE SIX ABILITY CATEGORIES)

Develop a budget
Speed read
Develop new manager orientation
Apply computer technology
Understand data-processing
Maintain facilities and equipment
Construct a plan for retirement
Implement policies
Locate appropriate educational research
Interpret educational research
Select and apply appropriate instructional design model
Select and apply appropriate instructional design
  applications

The demographic information collected from the ten corporations is reported in the following paragraphs.

Nine management-development programs were corporation-wide, and four were mandatory for managerial employees. Seven corporations tied the management-development program to the performance appraisal, and eight had a formal career-development plan for their employees; the management-development program was part of that plan. When asked what percentage of management-training programs were conducted in-house, the responses were: 95%--2, 90%--3, 85%--1, 75%--1, 50%--1, 15%--1, most--1.

Each interviewee was asked the conditions for entering into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators; all responses were recorded. The conditions were: a definite timetable, clear directions and move quickly, outcome based, had to fit the corporate philosophy, not detract from the target group of corporate employees, access to the students and educators, clear mission, mutual planning, located conveniently, blessing from superiors to participate, clear understanding of the time and money needed, entertain anything.

When asked what would be the benefits to the corporation, the responses were: a contribution to the schools, a better appreciation of education, public relations, may be able to adapt some methods for internal use, more knowledge about the educational sector, a need to understand the schools, want to influence the goals of education, gain a better knowledge about teaching skills, share facilities, develop in school employees an awareness of the labor market,
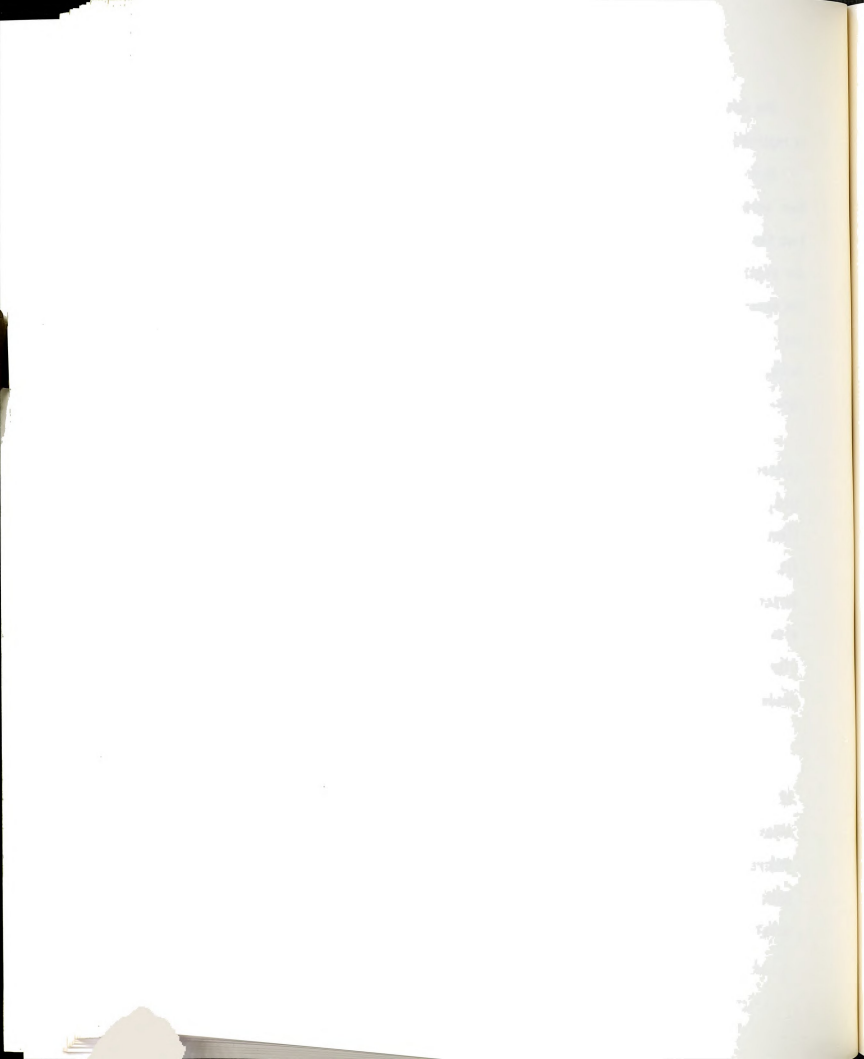
demonstrate good citizenship, exposure to students, understanding of the issues facing education, help students and staff have a better knowledge of career opportunities, influence curriculum, social responsibility, and help produce a better product.

Population Two--Elementary Principals, Secondary Principals, and Superintendents

Development of the Instrument

The researcher investigated a number of ways to collect the data. She decided to use a mailed, self-administered questionnaire because (a) the expense of printing and distributing questionnaires to large numbers of people is considerably less than that of interviewing similar numbers, (b) data can be collected from a large sample in a short period of time, (c) a larger geographic area can be covered, and (d) the questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously and provide data that can be easily tabulated, analyzed, and interpreted (Babbie, 1973; Berdie, 1974; Gay, 1976).

The survey instrument (Appendix E) was designed to gather information on the importance of competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs as competencies also important for school building administrators. The instrument was also designed to gather data on the importance of selected conditions for the participation in a management-development partnership effort.

The 63 competencies identified by directors of management-development programs of ten corporations were included and

categorized into the six NASSP Assessment Center Project ability categories:

1. The ability to plan and organize work
2. The ability to work with and lead others
3. The ability to analyze problems and make decisions
4. The ability to communicate orally and in writing
5. The ability to perceive the needs and concerns of others
6. The ability to perform under pressure

The researcher then added a seventh category, "Other," to reflect those competencies that were not included in the preceding six ability categories.

The questionnaire for Population Two included eight conditions for participating in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of each condition. These eight conditions had been suggested by a five-person panel of experts that included a university professor in educational administration, the director of a human resources division of a large corporation, the superintendent of a local school district; an elementary school principal, and a secondary school principal. The conditions included in the inventory were Items 64 through 71 and were as follows:

64. Mutual planning of the goals and objectives
65. Location of the training
66. Participants from both business and education
67. Presenters from both business and education
68. Cost
69. Academic credit
70. Outcome based
71. Other conditions (please specify)

The last two questions in the inventory were:

72. If the above conditions were met, would you be willing to be involved in a management-development partnership with the private sector?

73. Please rate the importance of a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs as a resource for the development of school building administrators.

The demographic data portion of the questionnaire asked for (a) job title, (b) number of years in present position, (c) number of years in current district, (d) total years as a school building principal, (e) age, and (f) gender. Information on school district size and location was gathered by the researcher and was not sought in the inventory.

The instrument was submitted to a panel of experts to determine its face validity. The panel comprised two university professors, the superintendent of a local school district, an elementary school principal, a secondary school principal, and an expert in evaluation and measurement. This panel found the inventory to be valid.

The instrument was pilot tested by giving it to ten persons in positions similar to those of the study participants. These individuals were asked for their comments on the questionnaire, as well as the cover letter and endorsement letters, to insure that there were no difficulties in interpretation due to wording or format. All ten persons reported having no difficulty with the instrument.

Sampling Procedures:
Characteristics of Population Two

The population for this study was approximately 1,800 elementary principals, 1,000 secondary principals, and 500 superintendents in public schools in Michigan. A stratified sampling of geographic location and size that was developed through a joint effort of the Michigan Department of Education and the Social Research Center of the University of Michigan was used to determine the local school districts for the sample of elementary and secondary school principals. Both organizations do extensive survey research and have proven this process to be valid and reliable. The researcher added three districts in the Upper Peninsula to the sample.

Elementary and secondary school principals from the previously identified 67 school districts constituted the potential population for principals. A random selection of 200 elementary school principals and 199 secondary principals from this stratified sample pool became the population of principals for this study.

One hundred fifty-one superintendents were included in the study. A stratified selection process based on geographic location and size was used in selecting the superintendents. The previously described sampling procedure used in selecting principals produced the names of only 67 superintendents, so the sample was increased using the same methods and procedures, which stressed the importance of geographic location and district size.

Determination of district size for the sample. The variable of size was based on the class size of school districts, which is

determined by the Michigan School Code of 1976 as prepared by the Legislative Service Bureau in June 1984. The School Code categorizes class sizes as follows:

    Class 1--at least 120,000 students
    Class 2--at least 30,000 students but fewer than 120,000
    Class 3--at least 2,400 students but fewer than 30,000
    Class 4--at least 75 students but fewer than 2,400
    Class 5--under 75 students

There is only one school district in Class 1, representing 12% of the students in Michigan. Three districts are in Class 2 and represent 6% of the students. Class 3 has 24% of the districts and represents 63% of the students. Class 4 has 75% of the school districts and represents only 26% of the students.

For the purposes of this research, the following three categories were formed: Category 2 included Classes 1 and 2, Category 3 included Class 3, and Category 4 included Classes 4 and 5. The sample population was as follows: Category 2 had 50 elementary principals, 50 secondary principals, and 4 superintendents. Category 3 had 100 elementary principals, 99 secondary principals, and 73 superintendents. Category 4 had 50 elementary principals, 50 secondary principals, and 74 superintendents.

Determination of geographic location for the sample. The geographic boundaries for this study were based on the information reported to the Michigan Department of Education by Hodgkinson in 1987. His study reflected that 80% of the population in Michigan live in the urban corridor bounded by Newaygo in the northwest, the Flint area in the northeast, Benton Harbor in the southwest, and Detroit in the Southeast. Using the geographic indicators of

Hodgkinson's report, the study population was divided into three areas: (a) northern, (b) western, and (c) eastern. Appendix F contains a detailed map.

Data Collection

The questionnaire (Appendix B) with a cover letter (Appendix C), two endorsement letters (Appendices D and E), and a stamped and addressed return envelope was mailed on March 3, 1987. The questionnaires were coded to allow for a follow-up mailing. After three weeks (March 24, 1987), the initial mailing had yielded 281 responses, for a response rate of 50%. Because the response from size category 2 was only 40 individuals or 14% of the total respondents, a second mailing was sent to secondary principals in one of those districts. No additional responses were received. The initial 281 respondents became the sample for the analysis of data.

Treatment of the Data

Dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables in this study were (a) the 63 competencies (arranged in seven categories) identified in the ten private-sector management-development programs, (b) the eight questions concerning conditions for a partnership effort, and (c) the two questions concerning willingness to participate in and importance of a partnership effort. The independent variables were the eight demographic items.

Analysis procedures. For Research Question 1 (Are the competencies identified in private-sector management-development

programs considered important competencies for school building administration by principals and superintendents?), the following procedures were used: A mean was tabulated for each frequency to determine its overall importance in school building administration. The competencies were then rank ordered for the three respondent groups: superintendents, elementary principals, and secondary principals.

Because the competencies were categorized into seven scales, a reliability analysis was conducted for the items in those categories. Reliability is a measurement concept that represents the consistency with which an instrument measures the same performance or behavior (Jaeger, 1983). The Cronbach alpha procedure was used as it is applicable for an attitude instrument in which an item requires a response on a five-point scale (Jaeger, 1983).

To address the subsets of Question 1, which concerned the demographic items of school district size, job title, age, gender, location, years in position, years in district, and years as a principal, frequency and percentage tables were created. "Correlational research involves collecting data in order to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables" (Gay, 1976, p. 142).

Two variables are related if knowing the value of one variable tells something about the value of the other variable. The researcher applied the Pearson correlation coefficient measure, the most commonly used measure of correlation (Norussis, 1986). The correlation was then squared to determine what proportion of the

variability in the dependent variable was explained by the regression (Babbie, 1983).

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was applied to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between means at the .05 level of significance (Jaeger, 1983; Norussis, 1986). For those variables on which the F-ratio was determined to be significant, a multiple comparison technique was used. The Scheffe test for multiple comparisons was chosen for this research because it does not require that all comparisons be planned in advance. Regardless of the number of means compared, the Scheffe test adjusts; the alpha stays the same and does not become inflated (Gay, 1976; Winer, 1971).

Two-way ANOVA was applied to measure the degree of influence of job title and location on the dependent variables. No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level.

A two-tailed t-test was applied to compare actual mean differences with differences expected by chance, with gender, followed by a chi-square procedure with cross-tabulations.

A chi-square analysis of conditions by demographics was applied to address the second research question (If given the opportunity to participate in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector, what conditions are identified as important by principals and superintendents?) and its subsets. Chi-square is a nonparametric test of significance that is appropriate when the variables are categorical or are in the form of frequency counts occurring in at least two exclusive categories. A chi-square test
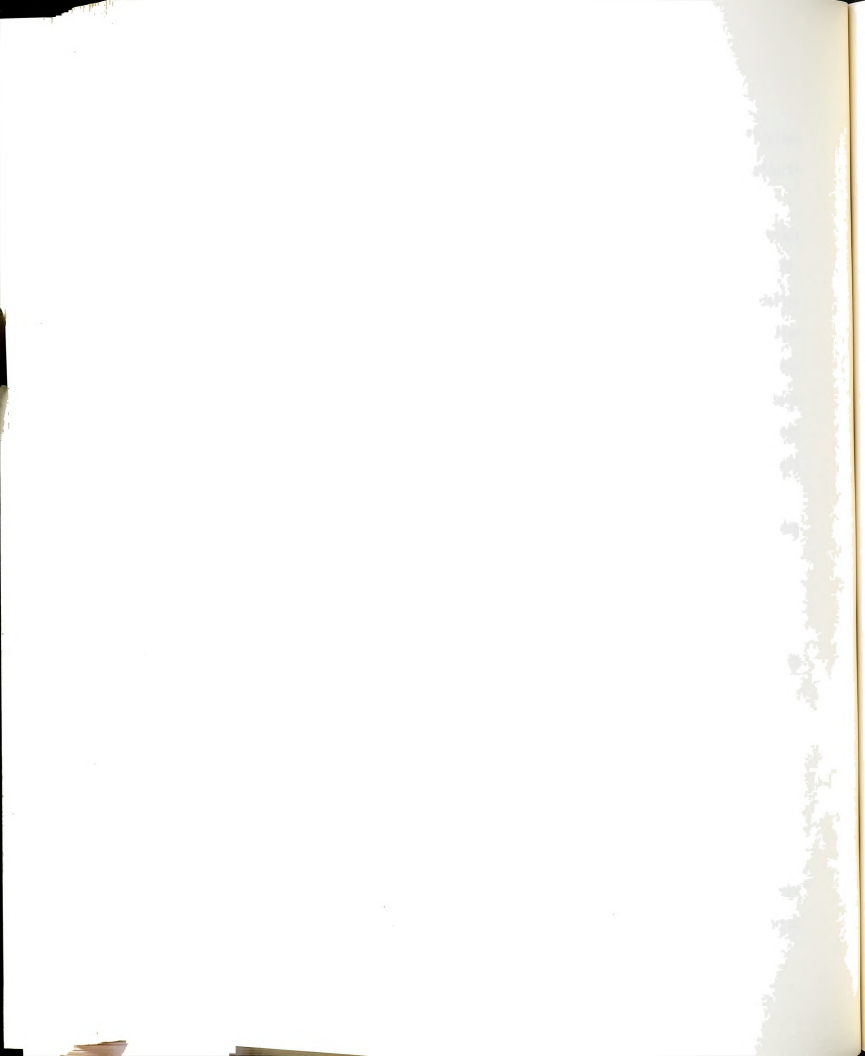
can be used to determine whether the observed frequencies are significantly different from the expected frequencies (Babbie, 1983; Gay, 1976; Jaeger, 1983).

Summary of Chapter III

The purpose of this study was to answer four major research questions:

1. Are the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs considered important competencies for school-building administration by principals and superintendents?

2. If given the opportunity to participate in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector, what conditions are identified as important by principals and superintendents?

3. Are there any conditions under which directors of private-sector management-development programs would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators?

4. Do principals and superintendents consider a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs an important resource for the development of school-building administrators?

The research is descriptive in nature. The study participants were (a) ten management-development directors of corporations located in western Michigan; and (b) a stratified sample of elementary principals, secondary principals, and superintendents in Michigan.

Kent County was chosen as the location for Population One for several reasons: Population expansion in Kent County in the last decade was 8%, almost double the statewide growth rate. The city of Grand Rapids is the second largest in the state; the greater metropolitan area has a population of 601,680. Wage and salary jobs are expected to increase by more than 24% in the next decade. Also, the area recorded a 38% increase in jobs between 1970 and 1983, a growth rate comparable to those of some of the fastest-growing Sunbelt states.

A panel of experts developed the following criteria for a business to be included in Population One: (a) location in Michigan a minimum of three years, (b) a minimum of 1,000 employees, (c) an equal opportunity employer, (d) an identified director of management development who had been in that position for at least two years, (e) a management-development program in place for at least three years, (f) training that occurs in Michigan, (g) visibility in the field, and (h) willingness to participate in the study.

Each of the ten corporations chosen was to represent one of five of the nine major industry classifications: manufacturing; wholesale; services; retail; and finance, insurance, and real estate. Because 37% of the workforce in Kent County is employed in manufacturing, five manufacturing firms were selected. As nonmanufacturing businesses represent 56% of the workforce in Kent County, five nonmanufacturing firms were also selected.

An unstructured interview was developed for Population One, and another panel of experts determined that it had face validity. The

researcher was the only interviewer for the ten corporations. Each interview lasted approximately one hour. Only one was canceled and rescheduled.

The competencies in the management-development programs were identified and grouped into seven categories by each interviewee. The competencies were then analyzed for similarities by a panel of experts and consolidated into 63 competencies. Responses to demographic items, conditions for entering into a partnership effort, and benefits to the corporation from a partnership arrangement were recorded.

Population Two comprised elementary principals, secondary principals, and superintendents. A survey instrument including the 63 competencies was developed and was judged by a panel of experts to have face validity. The instrument was pilot tested by ten persons in job situations similar to those of the study sample. All ten had no difficulties with the instrument.

A sample stratified for district size and location, composed of 200 elementary principals, 199 secondary principals, and 151 superintendents, was the population pool. The questionnaire, along with a cover letter, two endorsement letters, and a stamped return envelope, was mailed early in March 1987. This initial mailing yielded 281 responses, a return rate of 50%. An additional mailing was sent to secondary principals in a Class 2 district, but no additional responses were received.

Data-analysis procedures included frequency counts and means, rank order, Cronbach's alpha for reliability of the categories, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients, one-way and two-way ANOVA, Scheffe test for multiple comparisons, two-tailed t-test, and chi-square with cross-tabulations.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The chapter contains the results of the analyses of data collected in this study. In the belief that the study findings will be helpful to practitioners in both education and business, an attempt was made to simplify the interpretation of the data. Simplification was not meant to detract from the quality of the study, but rather to make it more meaningful and useful. Four major areas of concern were:

1. To determine if the competencies in business-management development programs were considered important competencies for school building administration by principals and superintendents.

2. To determine which conditions were considered important by principals and superintendents for willingness to enter into a management-development partnership with business.

3. To determine the conditions under which directors of management-development programs in business would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators.

4. To determine the importance of a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs as a resource for the

development of school-building administrators according to principals and superintendents.

The results are addressed for each of the four areas of concern, to answer the major research questions and their subsets.

Questionnaires Received

Questionnaires were mailed to 550 individuals in a stratified (by district size and location) sample of principals and superintendents. Of the 550 questionnaires sent, 281 were returned, for a response rate of 51%. Data from all of the questionnaires were analyzed. After the analysis began, six additional questionnaires were received; they were not included in the study.

Characteristics of the Respondents

The participants were asked to answer six demographic questions:

1. Your present job title

2. How many years have you been in in your present position?

3. How many years have you been in this district?

4. How many years total have you been or were you once a building principal?

5. What is your age?

6. What is your gender?

The researcher collected district-size data from the Michigan Department of Education and divided the sample into three geographic areas, based on demographics provided in Hodgkinson's 1987 study. Hodgkinson determined that 80% of the Michigan population live in the

southern region of the state. The responses to the demographic items are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Job Title

Ninety-eight of the respondents (35%) were elementary principals, 87 (31%) were secondary principals, and 85 (30%) were superintendents. Eleven (4%) respondents gave other job titles. The responses are categorized according to job title in Table 3.

Table 3.--Job titles of respondents.

Job Title	Sample Size	Number of Respondents	Response Rate	% of Respondent Sample
Elementary principal	200	98	49%	35%
Secondary principal	199	87	44%	31%
Superintendent	151	85	56% } 64%	30% } 34%
Other	0	11	8%	4%
Total	550	281	51%	100%

Because the questionnaires had been color coded as well as numerically coded, it was easily determined that questionnaires in which the category "Other" was indicated had been sent to superintendents and completed by members of central office staff. Thus 96 responses were received from superintendents, a response rate of 64%.
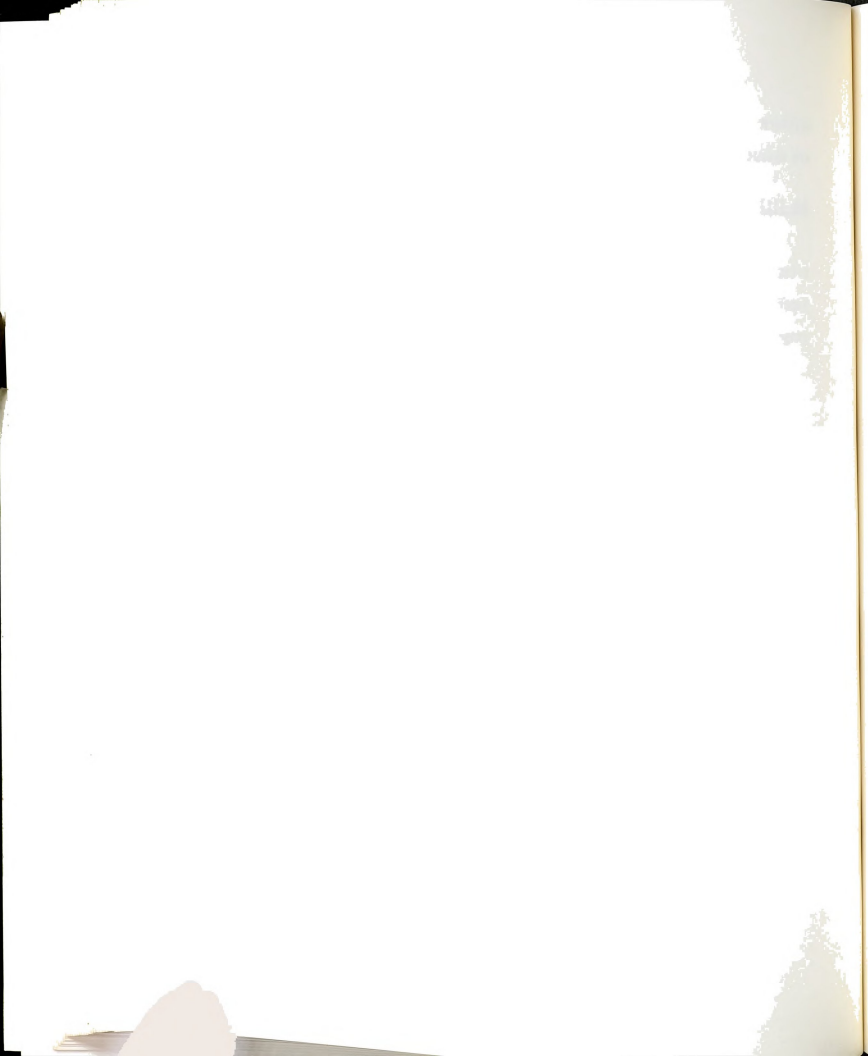
Location

Location was divided into three areas: eastern Michigan, western Michigan, and northern Michigan, which included the northern lower peninsula and the entire upper peninsula (Appendix F). Of the 281 respondents, 98 (34.9%) were located in the eastern section, 100 (35.6%) were located in the western section, and 83 (29.5%) were located in the northern section.

District Size

District size was divided into three classes representing the number of K-12 students enrolled in the district, based on the Michigan School Code of 1976. The School Code classification is as follows:

    Class 1--at least 120,000 students
    Class 2--at least 30,000 but fewer than 120,000 students
    Class 3--at least 2,400 but fewer than 30,000 students
    Class 4--at least 75 but fewer than 2,400 students
    Class 5--under 75 students

As explained in Chapter III, for the purposes of this study, Classes 1 and 2 were combined and assigned the designation of Class 2, Class 3 remained the same, and Classes 4 and 5 were combined and assigned the designation of Class 4. Of the responses received, 40 (14.2%) were from Class 2, 131 (46.6%) were from Class 3, and 110 (39.1%) were from Class 4.

Number of Years in Present Position

The number of years in present position ranged from less than one year to 28 years. The mode or most frequently occurring response was one year, with a frequency of 37. The median was five years,
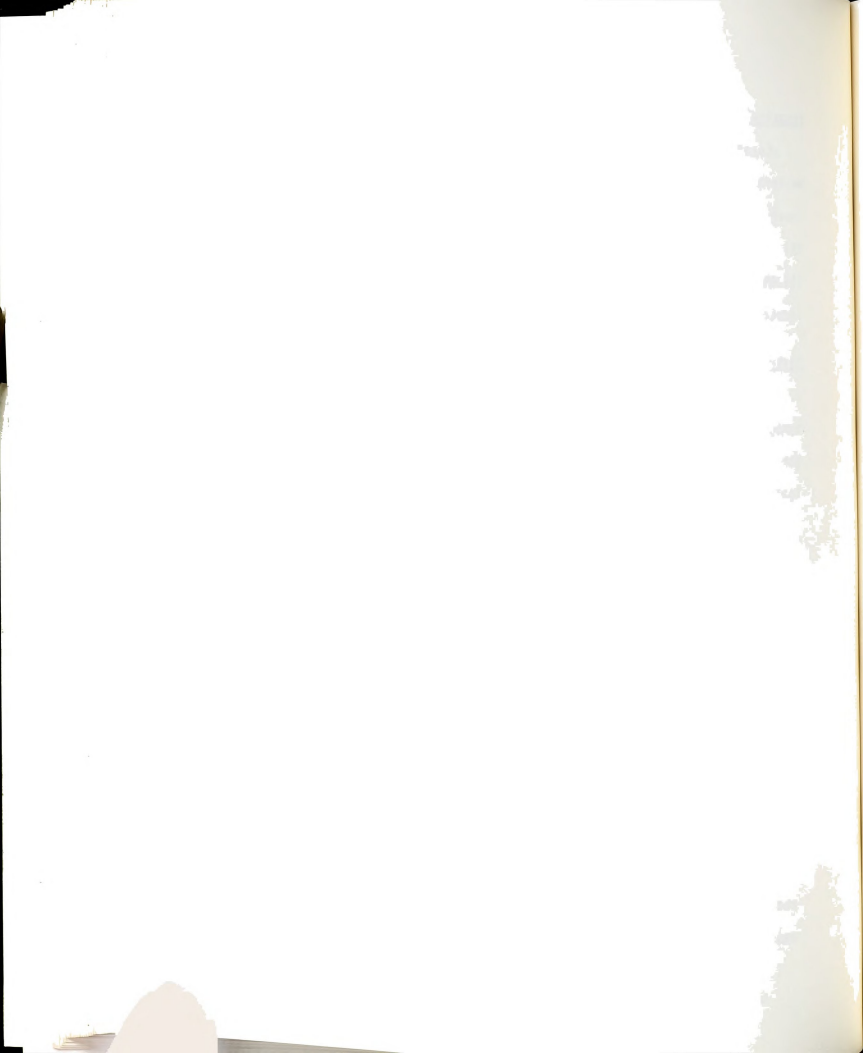
which means that one-half of the respondents had had five years or less in their present positions. The intervals established for this variable were:

INTERVAL	PERCENT
0- 2 years	23.1%
3- 5 years	27.1%
6-11 years	24.5%
12-28 years	25.3%

Number of Years in This District

The number of years in the district ranged from less than one year to 39 years, with the mode of 18 respondents answering one year. Sixteen respondents answered 20 years. The intervals created for this category were:

INTERVAL	PERCENT
0- 7 years	23.9%
8-16 years	27.2%
17-24 years	24.6%
25-39 years	24.3%

Number of Years as a
Building Principal

The number of years as a building principal ranged from less than one year to 30 years. The mode was two, with a mean of eight years. The interval scale devised for this category was:

INTERVAL	PERCENT
0- 3	22.5%
4- 8	27.5%
9-15	25.7%
16-30	24.3%
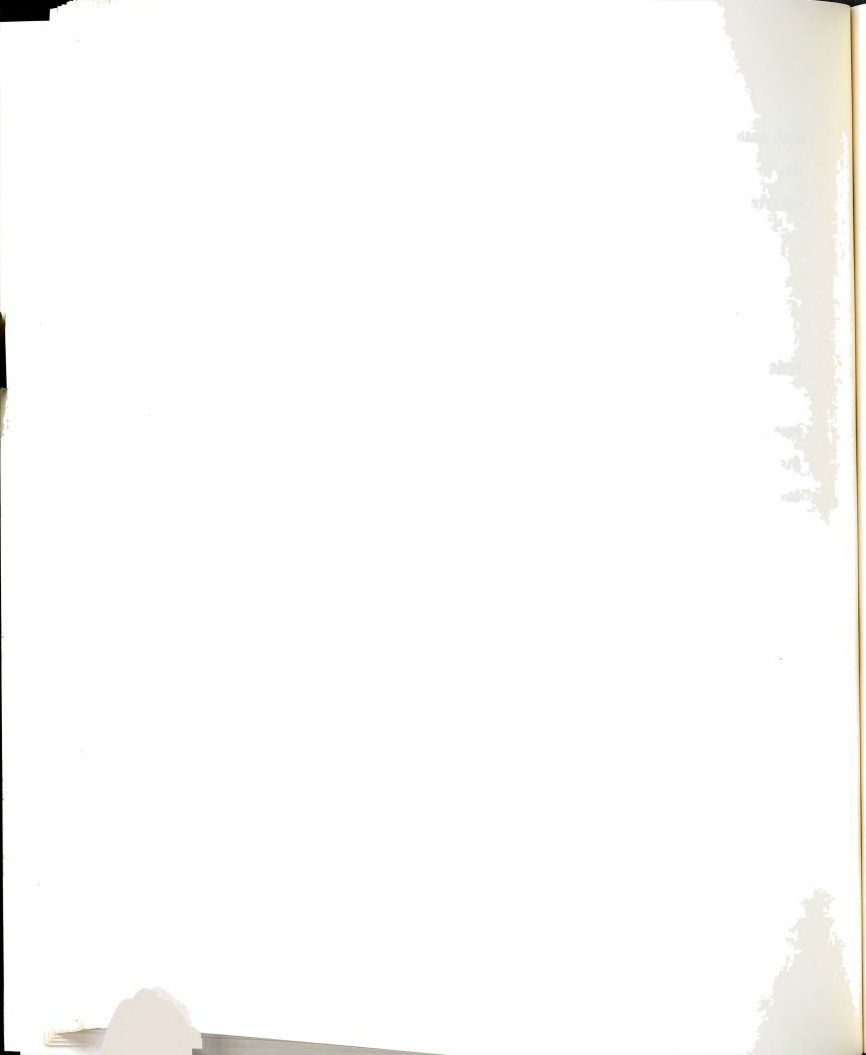
Age

The ages of the respondents ranged from 32 years to 65 years, with a 33-year spread. The mode was 40 years (17 respondents), followed by 16 respondents for both 43 and 55 years. The mean was 48 years. The intervals created for this category were:

INTERVAL	PERCENT
32-41	23.8%
42.48	27.4%
49-53	23.5%
54-65	25.6%

Gender

Forty-one (14.6%) of the respondents were female, and 240 (85.4%) were male.

Research Question 1: Ratings of Competencies

The researcher's intention was to determine whether the management-development competencies identified were considered important for school-building administration. The rating choices were as follows:

5 = extremely important
4 = very important
3 = important
2 = somewhat important
1 = not important

A mean was tabulated for each frequency to determine its overall importance in school-building administration. The criterion for the competency to be considered "important for school building administration" was a rating of 5 (extremely important), 4 (very important), or 3 (important). A rating of 2 (somewhat important) or

1 (not important) was not included in the tabulation of the mean to reach a conclusion regarding overall importance of the competency. The same procedure was used to rank the conditions for a partnership with business. The total percentage of respondents for each competency is listed in Appendix G. Also in Appendix G is a breakdown of the percentages for each of the five possible ratings for each competency.

Fifty-six (89%) of the competencies were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by at least 80% of the respondents. Fifty-one of the 63 competencies (81%) were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by at least 90% of the respondents, and only 7 (11%) of the 63 competencies were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by less than 80% of the respondents.

The competencies were then rank ordered for each of the three respondent categories: superintendents, elementary principals, and secondary principals. The rankings are shown in Table 4.

Reliability

A reliability analysis for the items in the seven categories was performed. The categories used to group the competencies were described in Chapter III as the abilities identified by the NASSP for competence in school-building administration. The categories are:

1. Ability to plan and organize work
2. Ability to work with and lead others
3. Ability to analyze problems and make decisions
4. Ability to communicate orally and in writing
5. Ability to perceive the needs and concerns of others
6. Ability to perform under pressure

The researcher added a seventh category, "Other," for purposes of this study.
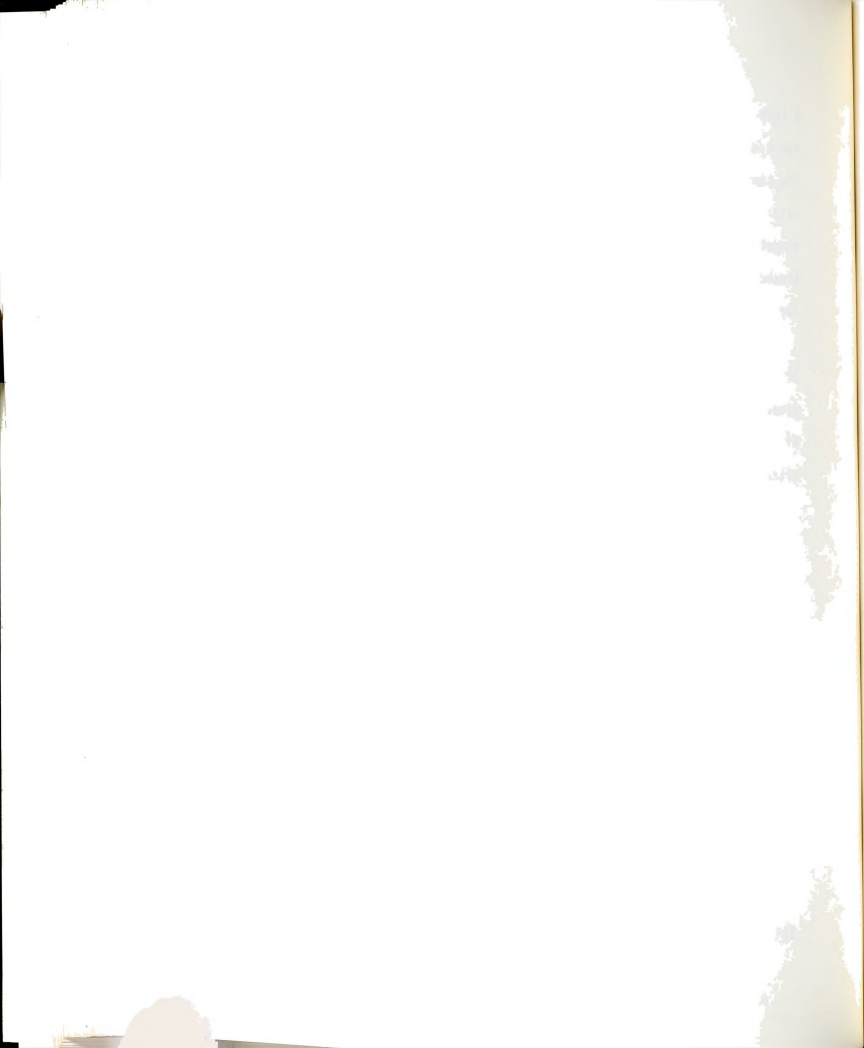
Table 4.--Rankings of competencies by three respondent groups.

Competency	Superin-tendents	Elementary Principals	Secondary Principals
21. Build trust with staff	1	1	1
23. Motivate staff	2	4	2
29. Make appropriate decisions	3	2	4
10. Improve staff performance	4	3	3
1. Set goals	5	7	8
7. Manage time effectively	6	5	5
4. Accomplish tasks effectively	7	8	7
2. Identify critical elements and objectives	8	12	13
9. Appraise staff performance	9	6	9
31. Anticipate problems	10	11	11
40. Eliminate barriers to communication	11	13	12
14. Build teams for working together	12	17	20
5. Delegate tasks/respon-sibilities	13	23	17
42. Recognize, reward, and support appropriate behavior	14	14	6
39. Communicate effectively in writing	15	16	15
46. Confront effectively	16	19	19
22. Recruit and select new employees	17	22	10

Table 4.--Continued.

Competency	Superin-tendents	Elementary Principals	Secondary Principals
50. Manage stress effectively	18	9	14
30. Monitor results	19	26	28
48. Eliminate self-defeating behaviors	20	18	27
36. Present ideas skillfully for the appropriate audience	21	10	16
59. Implement policies	22	27	23
33. Improve interpersonal skills	23	24	25
3. Establish change and transition strategies	24	34	29
47. Negotiate successfully	25	36	31
6. Plan effective meetings	26	15	24
44. Increase acceptance for change	27	29	35
26. Analyze performance problems	28	31	32
43. Enhance self-esteem	29	30	18
18. Improve relationships with subordinates	30	35	30
49. Minimize relationship tension	31	21	22
34. Conduct effective meetings	32	20	26
27. Problem-solve as a group	33	28	38
37. Conduct effective interviews	34	33	21
19. Implement labor agreements	35	51	49
25. Analyze data	36	41	34

Table 4.--Continued.

Competency	Superin-tendents	Elementary Principals	Secondary Principals
28. Problem-solve individually	37	25	33
13. Identify appropriate leader-ship behavior	38	37	44
8. Identify appropriate leader-ship style	39	32	35
52. Develop a budget	40	49	45
16. Improve relationships with peers	41	45	46
11. Mentor staff	42	40	39
32. Analyze job skills	43	46	40
63. Select and apply appropriate instructional design appli-cations	44	43	52
12. Implement disciplinary action	45	39	42
51. Handle grievances	46	47	48
62. Select and apply appropriate instructional design appli-cations	47	44	50
24. Write accurate problem-statements	48	52	47
38. Speak skillfully on the telephone	49	38	37
17. Improve relationships with bosses	50	50	53
35. Be assertive	51	42	41

Table 4.--Continued.

Competency	Superin-tendents	Elementary Principals	Secondary Principals
57. Maintain facilities and equipment	52	48	43
61. Interpret educational research	53	53	51
60. Locate appropriate educational research	54	55	56
41. Conduct a needs analysis	55	54	54
15. Utilize power and influence	56	57	58
55. Apply computer technology	57	58	57
45. Establish quality and productivity improvement circles	58	56	55
20. Develop a career plan	59	59	60
56. Understand data-processing	60	63	59
54. Develop new manager orientation	61	61	61
53. Speed-read	62	62	63
58. Construct a plan for retirement	63	60	62

Reliability is a measurement concept that represents the consistency with which an instrument measures the same performance or behavior (Jaeger, 1983). Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the internal-consistency reliability of the competencies in each category. The Cronbach procedure uses measurement data collected on a single occasion and is similar to the alpha method of the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 but does not have to be scored with either zero or one. This addition makes the Cronbach alpha applicable for attitude instruments in which each item requires a response on a five-point scale (Jaeger, 1983). Reliability is expressed numerically, usually as a coefficient, with a high coefficient indicating high reliability. If a test were perfectly reliable, the coefficient would be 1.00. Perfectly reliable measurement instruments are impossible to find, but some standardized achievement tests have reliabilities around 0.95 (Gay, 1976; Jaeger, 1983). Results of the reliability analysis on the items of the seven categories are shown in Table 5.

Table 5.--Reliability ratings for ability categories.

Category	Standardized Item Alpha
Ability to plan and organize work	.7565
Ability to work with and lead others	.8665
Ability to analyze problems and make decisions	.8469
Ability to communicate orally and in writing	.8266
Ability to perceive the needs of others	.7366
Ability to perform under pressure	.8282
Other	.8665

Given that the standardized item alpha for each category was an acceptable level, the scales were considered reliable and became the dependent variables. Competencies then were no longer looked at individually for the remainder of the analyses but were considered as a member of the assigned scale. The dependent variables were:

Ability to plan and organize work
Ability to work with and lead others
Ability to analyze problems and make decisions
Ability to communicate orally and in writing
Ability to perceive the needs of others
Ability to perform under pressure
Other

The independent variables addressed the subset question, "What if any differences are a result of . . .

location
size of school district
job title
years in the district
years in present job
total years as a building principal
age
gender"

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, the most commonly used measure of correlation (Norussis, 1986), was used to determine whether a relationship existed between two variables. The Pearson technique measures only the strength of a linear relationship. Having determined the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the value of each correlation coefficient was squared to determine what proportion of the variability in the dependent variable is explained by the regression (Babbie, 1983). A correlation less than .30 is considered small

(Norussis, 1986). The largest coefficient in this study was .2291; therefore, no correlation was found to be statistically significant.

One-way ANOVA was applied to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the dependent and independent variables at the alpha = .05 significance level. The results of the ANOVA are as follows (also see Table 7):

1. Job title--No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level for any category.

2. Years in present position--No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level for any category.

3. Years in the district--A statistically significant difference was found for the category of Other (F = .0215, df = 3, p < .05).

4. Total years as a building principal--A statistically significant difference was found for the categories of Ability to work with and lead others (F = .0234, df = 3, p < .05), Ability to perform under pressure (F = .0234, df = 3, p < .05), and Other (F = .0131, df = 3, p < .05).

5. Age--A statistically significant difference was found for the categories of Ability to work with and lead others (F = .0104, df = 3, p < .05); Ability to analyze problems and make decisions (F = .0268, df = 3, p < .05), and Other (F = .0012, df = 3, p < .05).

6. Gender--A statistically significant difference was reported for the categories of Ability to plan and organize work (F = .0047, df = 1, p < .05); Ability to analyze problems and make decisions (F = .0482, df = 1, p < .05); Ability to communicate orally and in writing

(F = .0263, df = 1, p < .05); and Ability to perceive the needs and concerns of others (F = .0318, df = 1, p < .05).

7. Location--A statistically significant difference was found for the category of Other (F = .0304, df = 2, p < .05).

8. Size--A statistically significant difference was reported for the categories of Ability to plan and organize work (F = .0270, df = 2, p < .05) and Ability to communicate orally and in writing (F = .0486, df = 2, p < .05).

For the variable of gender, a two-tailed t-test was used to compare actual mean differences with differences expected by chance. The results of the t-test are shown in Table 6.

Table 6.--Results of the t-test for gender.

Gender	Category	Mean	t-Value	df	2-Tailed Prob.
F M	Plan and organize	4.4077 4.2005	2.85	278	0.005
F M	Analyze and decide	4.0944 3.9298	1.98	277	0.048
F M	Communicate	4.1463 3.9630	2.23	277	0.026
F M	Perceive needs and concerns	3.9561 3.7495	2.16	277	0.032

For those variables, except gender, for which the F-ratio was found to be significant at the .05 level, a multiple comparison

technique was used. The Scheffe test for multiple comparisons was chosen for this research. Regardless of the number of means compared, the Scheffe test adjusts, with the alpha staying the same and not becoming inflated (Gay, 1976; Winer, 1971). The results of the Scheffe test for multiple comparisons are presented in Table 7.

A two-way ANOVA was used to measure the degree of influence of job title and location on the dependent variables. No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level.

Research Question 2: Conditions

The second major concern in this study was to determine which conditions were considered important for a willingness to enter into a management-development partnership with business. The dependent variables of conditions are:

    Mutual planning of the goals and objectives
    Location of the training
    Participants from both business and education
    Presenters from both business and education
    Cost
    Academic credit
    Outcome-based

A chi-square analysis of the dependent variables (conditions) and the independent variables (demographic characteristics of respondents) was used for Conditions and its subsets. Chi-square is a nonparametric test of significance that is appropriate when the variables are categorical or are in the form of frequency counts occurring in at least two exclusive categories. A chi-square test can be used to determine whether the observed frequencies are significantly different from the expected frequencies (Babbie, 1983;

Table 7.--Multiple comparisons of variables.

Demographics	ABILITY TO:						
	Plan and Organize Work	Work With and Lead Others	Analyze Problems and Make Decisions	Communicate Orally and in Writing	Perceive Needs and Concerns of Others	Perform Under Pressure	Other
Job title			NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE				
Years in present position			NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE				
Years in the district							Group 3=3.2170* Group 2=3.2573 Group 1=3.3165 Group 4=3.5022*
Total years as building principal		Group 1=3.7841* Group 3=3.8601 Group 2=3.8799 Group 4=4.0230*				Group 1=3.8495* Group 2=3.9101 Group 3=4.0286 Group 4=4.1389*	Group 1=3.2089* Group 2=3.2495 Group 3=3.3179 Group 4=3.5145*
Age		Group 1=3.8040* Group 2=3.8219 Group 3=3.9042 Group 4=4.0320*	Group 1=3.8332* Group 3=3.9333 Group 2=3.9538 Group 4=4.0831*				Group 1=3.1773* Group 2=3.2409* Group 3=3.3254 Group 4=3.5400*
Location				Group 4=3.9047* Group 2=3.9969 Group 3=4.0604*			Group 2=3.2431* Group 3=3.2695 Group 1=3.4467*
Size	Group 4=4.1435* Group 2=4.2762 Group 3=4.2896*						

*Significant at the .05 level.

Gay, 1976; Jaeger, 1983). A cross-classification table was constructed for each variable to clarify any differences that may have occurred. The results for each of the conditions are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Mutual planning of the goals and objectives was rated important by 97% of the respondents. Statistically significant (.05 level) differences were found for this condition as a function of both age (X^2 = 22.579, df = 9, F = .0072) and location (X^2 = 18.533, df = 6, F = .0050). The cross-tabulation results for mutual planning by age and by location are shown in Tables 8 and 9, respectively.

Table 8.--Cross-tabulation results: mutual planning by age.

| Rating | Age | | | |
	32-41	42-48	49-53	54-65
Important	22.4%	0	17.2%	12.5%
Very important	41.8	46.8	45.3	37.5
Extremely important	32.8	50.6	37.5	45.8
Total	97.0	97.4	100.0	95.8

Table 9.--Cross-tabulation results: mutual planning by location.

Rating	Location		
	Eastern	Western	Northern
Important	.10	.07	.22
Very important	.35	.54	.39
Extremely important	.53	.35	.39
Total	.98	.96	1.00

Location of the training was rated important by 77% of the respondents. A statistically significant (.05 level) difference was found for this condition as a function of total years as a building principal (X^2 = 22.778, df = 12, F = .0297). (See Table 10.)

Table 10.--Cross-tabulation results: location of training by number of years as building principal.

Years as a Building Principal	Percentage of Responses[a]
0- 3 years	74%
4- 8 years	72%
9-15 years	87%
16-30 years	16%

[a]5 = extremely important
4 = very important
3 = important

Participants from both business and education was rated important by 95% of the respondents. No statistically significant

difference was found for this condition as a function of any demographic variable.

Presenters from both business and education was rated important by 94% of the respondents. No statistically significant difference was found for this condition as a function of any demographic variable.

Cost was rated important by 94% of the respondents. No statistically significant difference was found for this condition as a function of any demographic variable.

Academic credit was rated important by 50% of the respondents. A statistically significant (.05 level) difference was found for this condition as a function of years in the district (X^2 = 27.135, df = 12, F = .0074) and district size (X^2 = 18.226, df = 8, F = .0196). (See Tables 11 and 12.)

Table 11.--Cross-tabulation results: Academic credit by years in the district.

Years in District	Percentage of Responses[a]
0- 7 years	61%
8-16 years	38%
17-24 years	51%
25-39 years	52%

[a]5 = extremely important
4 = very important
3 = important

Table 12.--Cross-tabulation results: academic credit by district
        size.

District Size	Percentage of Responses[a]
2	65%
3	41%
4	55%

[a]5 = extremely important
  4 = very important
  3 = important

Outcome-based was rated important by 89% of the respondents. A statistically significant (.05 level) difference was found for this condition as a function of age (X = 21.433, df = 12, F = .0444) (see Table 13) and of location (X^2 = 27.714, df = 8, F = .0005). In the eastern region, 40% of the respondents rated outcome-based extremely important, whereas only 14% of the respondents in the western and northern regions rated it extremely important.

Table 13.--Cross-tabulation results: outcome-based by age.

Age	Percentage of Responses[a]
32-41 years	84%
42-48 years	95%
49-53 years	95%
54-65 years	91%

[a]5 = extremely important
  4 = very important
  3 = important

The order of importance of the six conditions is shown in Table 14.

Table 14.--Ratings of conditions.

Condition	Percentage of Responses[a]
Mutual planning of goals and objectives	97%
Participants from business and education	95%
Presenters from business and education	94%
Outcome-based	89%
Cost	84%
Location	77%
Academic credit	50%

[a]5 = extremely important
4 = very important
3 = important

Concerning willingness to be involved in a management-development partnership effort, the responses were as follows: Yes--72%, Uncertain--23%, No--6%.

Research Question 3

The directors of the ten corporations listed the following conditions under which they would be willing to enter into a partner-ship effort to assist in the development of school administrators

(all responses were recorded by the frequency from highest to lowest). (See Table 15.)

Table 15.--Partnership conditions cited by corporation respondents.

Condition	Frequency of Response
A timetable	10
Clear mission	10
Mutual planning	10
Outcome-based	8
Access to students and educators	8
Clear directions	6
Clear understanding of the time and money needed	6
Agreement with corporate philosophy	5
Not detract from corporation employees	2
Blessing from superiors	2
Convenient location	1
Entertain anything	1
Speedy	1

Research Question 4

When asked to rate the importance of a partnership effort as a resource for the development of school-building administrators, 90% of the respondents rated this important; no statistically significant difference was found by demographic variables.

Summary of Chapter IV

Chapter IV presented an analysis and discussion of the data that were collected to answer the four research questions and their subsets. The demographic data collected on the respondents included size of the district, location of the district, job title, years in

present position, years in present district, total years as a building principal, age, and gender.

The respondent group included 98 elementary principals, 87 secondary principals, 85 superintendents, and 11 categorized as "other." Ninety-eight respondents were located in the eastern section of the state, 100 in the western section, and 83 in the northern section. District size was divided into three classifications; forty respondents were in Class 2, 131 in Class 3, and 110 in Class 4.

Years in the present position ranged from less than one year to 28 years. The quartile intervals were 0-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-11 years, and 12-28 years. Years in the district ranged from less than one year to 39 years; the mode of 18 respondents answered one year, followed by a frequency of 16 respondents answering 20 years. The quartiles for this category were 0-7 years, 8-16 years, 17-24 years, and 25-39 years.

Years as a building principal ranged from less than one year to 30 years, with a mode of two and a mean of eight. The quartiles were 0-3 years, 4-8 years, 9-15 years, and 16-30 years. Respondents' ages ranged from 32 to 65 years. The mean was 48 years. The quartiles established were 32-41 years, 42-48 years, 49-53 years, and 54-65 years. Forty-one respondents were female, and 240 were male.

The researcher's intention was to determine if the management-development competencies identified in businesses were considered important for school-building administration. The rating choices were:

5 = extremely important
4 = very important
3 = important
2 = somewhat important
1 = not important

To be considered "important for school-building administration," a tabulation of the mean for each competency included the choices of 3, 4, and 5. Eighty-nine percent (56) of the competencies were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by at least 80% of the respondents. Eighty-one percent (51) of the competencies were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by at least 90% of the respondents. Only seven of the competencies were given a rating of 3, 4, or 5 by less than 80% of the respondents.

Rankings of the competencies were similar for superintendents and elementary and secondary principals. Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the internal consistency reliability of the competencies in each of the categories, and the seven categories were considered reliable.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient measure was used to determine if a relationship existed between the dependent variables of categories of competencies and the independent demographic variables. The correlation coefficient was squared to determine what proportion of the variability was explained by regression. The largest value of the coefficient in this study was .2291; therefore, no correlation was found.

A one-way ANOVA was applied to determine if there was a statistically significant difference between means of the dependent and independent variables at the .05 level. A statistically

significant difference was found in several categories. Gender, for instance, showed a significant difference in four categories. A two-tailed t-test was applied to compare the means. A chi-square was then used to see where the difference occurred. Females rated the competencies as more important than did the males.

The Scheffe test was used for multiple comparisons of variables for those showing a significant difference. The largest spread of a mean difference was in the demographic categories of age and "other," with Group 1's mean = 3.177 and Group 4's mean = 3.540.

A two-way ANOVA was used to measure the degree of job title and location on the dependent variables. No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level.

The second major concern in this study was to determine which conditions were considered important for a willingness to enter into a management-development partnership with business. A mean rating was tabulated for each condition. A chi-square analysis of the dependent variables (conditions) and the independent variables (demographics) was applied to determine whether any statistically significant differences could be found at the .05 level. The following results emerged: Mutual planning of goals and objectives was rated important by 97% of the respondents and showed a statistically significant difference by age and location. Location of the training was rated important by 77% of the respondents, with a statistically significant difference by total years as a building principal. Participants from both business and education was rated

as important by 95% of the respondents, with no statistically
significant difference present for demographic variables. Presenters
from both business and education was rated important by 94% of the
respondents, with no significant difference reported. Cost was rated
important by 94% of the respondents, with no statistically
significant difference found. Academic credit was rated important by
50% of the respondents, with a statistically significant difference
found for years in the district and size. Outcome-based was rated
important by 89% of the respondents, with a statistically significant
difference by age and location.

Concerning the willingness to be involved in a management-
development partnership effort, the responses were as follows: Yes--
72%, No--6%, and Uncertain--22%.

The directors of the ten corporations listed the following
conditions under which they would be wiling to enter into a
partnership effort to assist in the development of school
administrators (every response was recorded): a timetable, clear
directions, outcome-based, agreement with corporate philosophy,
speedy, not detract from corporate employees, access to students and
educators, clear mission, mutual planning, convenient location,
blessing from superiors, clear understanding of the time and money
needed, and entertain anything.

When asked to rate the importance of a partnership effort as a
resource for the development of school-building administrators, 90%

of the respondents gave a rating of 3, 4, or 5. No statistically
significant difference was found by demographic variables.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purposes of the study were (a) to assess the importance of competencies identified in management-development programs in business as competencies rated important in school-building administration and (b) to identify the important conditions for a management-development partnership effort.

Answers to the following research questions were sought:

1.   Are the competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs considered important competencies for school-building administration by principals and superintendents?

What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

a. School district size
b. Principals or superintendents
c. Age of respondents
d. Gender of respondents
e. Elementary or secondary principals
f. Geographic location of district
g. Number of years in current position
h. Number of years in present district
i. Total years as a building principal

2.   If given the opportunity to participate in a management-development partnership effort with the private sector, what conditions are identified as important by principals and superintendents?

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What, if any, differences are reported as a function of:

a. School district size
b. Principals or superintendents
c. Age of respondents
d. Gender of respondents
e. Elementary or secondary principals
f. Geographic location of district
g. Number of years in current position
h. Number of years in present district
i. Total years as a building principal

3. Are there any conditions under which directors of private-sector management-development programs would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators?

4. Do principals and superintendents consider a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs an important resource for the development of school-building administrators?

The research methodology and procedures included:

1. Developing and establishing face validation of the interview guide.

2. Establishing criteria for the sample of ten corporations to be included in Population One.

3. Interviewing management-development directors of the ten corporations chosen as Population One and listing the identified competencies in each management-development program.

4. Analyzing the identified competencies for similarities and consolidating into 63 competencies in seven categories by a panel of experts.

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5. Constructing the survey instrument designed to gather data on the importance of the competencies identified in the management-development programs of businesses as competencies also considered important for school-building administration.

6. Submitting the instrument to a panel of experts to determine face validity.

7. Pilot testing the instrument, cover letter, and two endorsement letters with ten people in job situations similar to those of the population to be sampled.

8. Selecting the sample of 200 elementary principals, 199 secondary principals, and 151 superintendents.

9. Determining the variables for size and geographic location in the sample.

10. Mailing the questionnaires (Appendix B) with a cover letter (Appendix C) and two endorsement letters (Appendices D and E) with a stamped return envelope on March 3, 1987.

11. Waiting anxiously for the data to be returned.

12. Tabulating and coding the data in preparation for statistical analyses.

13. Applying the statistical procedures of: frequency comparisons, including the mean for each competency and quartile for appropriate independent variables; Cronbach's alpha reliability ratings for the seven categories; Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and a regression analysis, a one-way ANOVA, for all eight demographic variables and categories of competencies; the Scheffe test for multiple comparisons; a two-tailed t-test for gender; a

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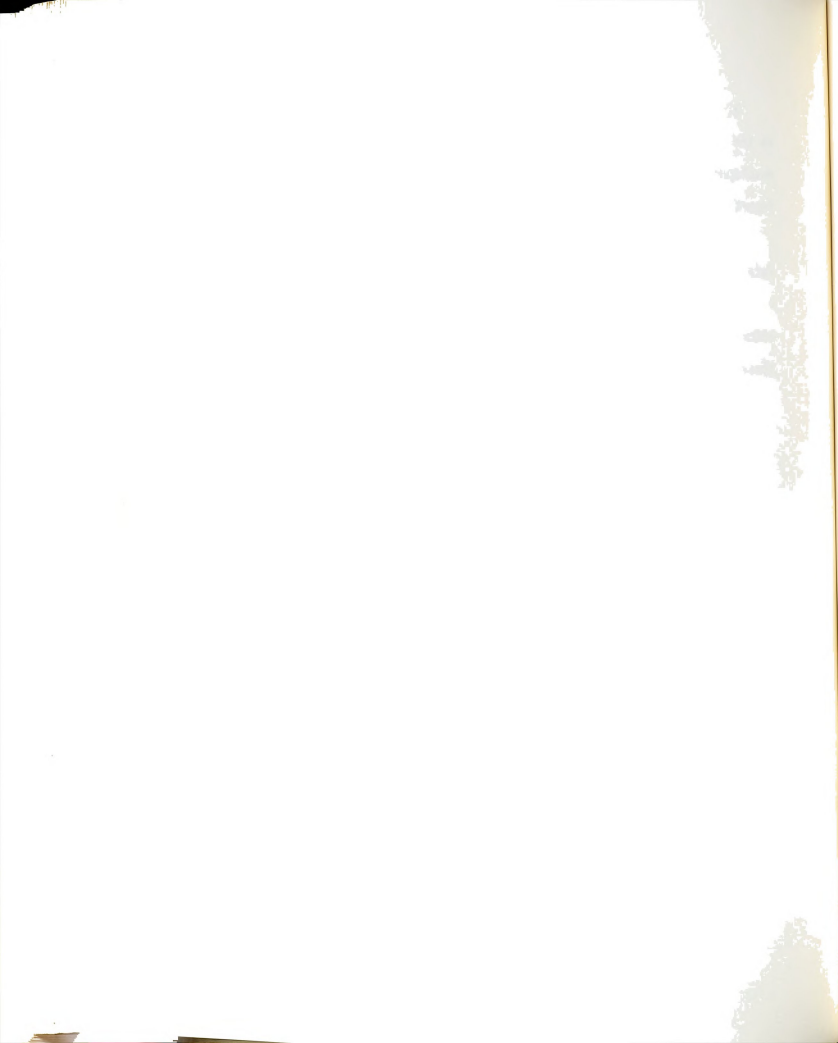
two-way ANOVA for the demographic variables of job title and location; chi-square and cross-tabulations for the dependent variables of conditions with the eight demographic variables.

14. Developing the conclusions and recommendations for this study.

Research Findings

The research findings indicated that the competencies identified in management-development programs in businesses were considered important in school-building administration. Fifty-six of the 63 competencies were rated as important by 80% of the respondents. Ratings of the competencies were similar for superintendents and elementary and secondary principals. No linear correlation was found for the variables. Gender showed the most significant difference. In more than half of the categories, females rated the competencies of more importance than did males. In the Scheffe test for multiple comparisons of variables showing a statistically significant difference, the largest spread of a mean difference was in the independent variable of age and the dependent category, other. Group 1's mean was 3.1773, and Group 4's mean was 3.5400.

No statistically significant difference was found at the .05 level for job title and location on the dependent variables.

The ratings of conditions that were important were: mutual planning of goals and objectives (97%), participants from both business and education (95%), presenters from both business and

education (94%), outcome-based (89%), cost (84%), location (77%), and credit (50%).

Seventy-two percent of the participants responded "Yes" to willingness to be involved in a management-development partnership effort. Twenty-two percent were uncertain, and 6% responded "No."

When asked to rate the importance of a partnership effort as a resource for the development of school-building administrators, 90% of the respondents rated a 3, 4, or 5, with no statistically significant difference by demographic variables.

The directors of the ten corporations listed the following conditions under which they would be willing to enter into a partnership effort to assist in the development of school administrators (frequency of responses is given in parentheses): a timetable (10), clear mission (10), mutual planning (10), outcome-based (8), access to students and educators (8), clear directions (6), clear understanding of the time and money needed (6), agreement with corporate philosophy (5), not detract from corporation employees (2), blessing from superiors (2), convenient location (1), entertain anything (1), and speedy (1).

Competencies

1. Competencies identified in private-sector management-development programs were considered important for school-building administration.

2. Superintendents and principals agreed on the importance of the competencies.
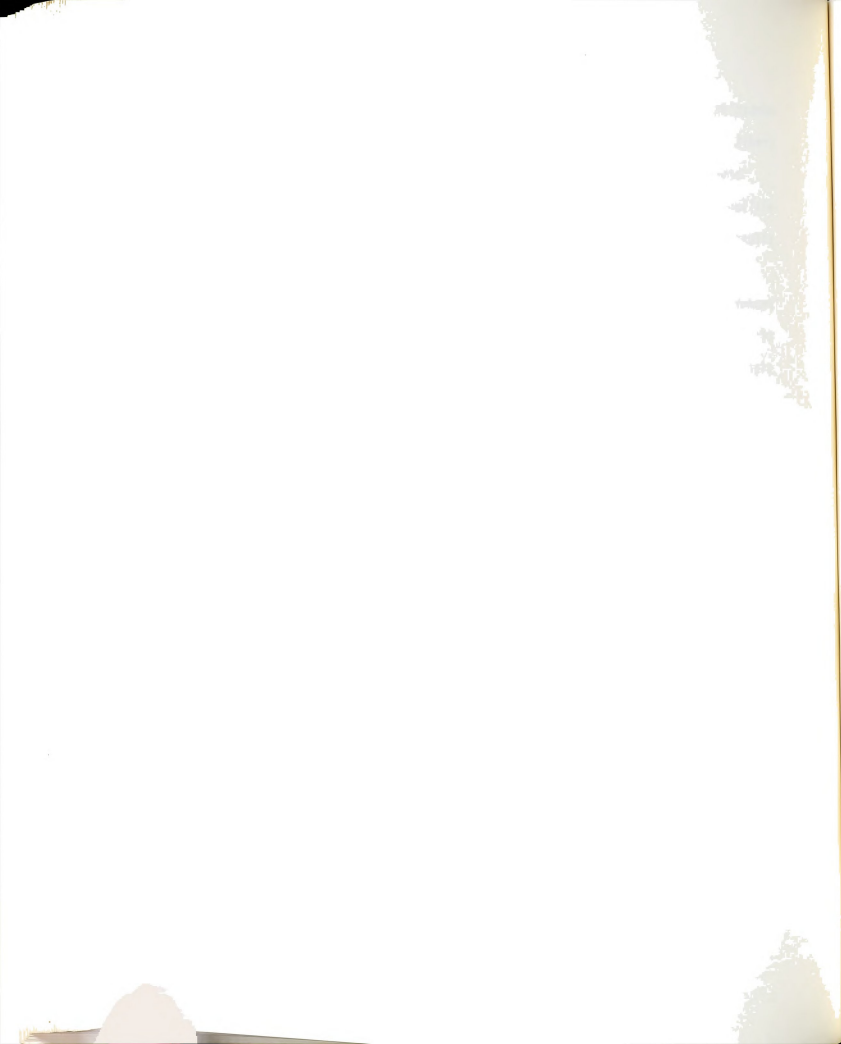
3. Ranking of the competencies was similar for superintendents, elementary principals, and secondary principals.

4. Educational leaders in all geographic locations of the state agreed on the importance of the competencies.

5. The size of the district was a factor only in that Class 3 administrators rated planning and communicating slightly higher than did those in Class 4.

6. The number of years in the district and the number of years in the present position accounted for no difference.

7. When age and total years were considered as factors, the youngest respondents and those with the fewest years as building principals considered the competencies less important than those who were the oldest and had the most years as building principals.

8. Females considered the competencies more important than did males in more than half the categories and may respond favorably to the private sector as a resource replacement for the traditional university programs now available.

Conditions for a Partnership Effort

9. Mutual planning of the goals and objectives was considered the most important condition. Respondents from the eastern region considered it extremely important, those from the western region rated it very important, and participants from the northern region had a split decision. Respondents between the ages of 42 and 48 considered this more important than did any other age group.

10. Having participants and presenters from both business and education was important to respondents, with no demographic differences.

11. The condition of outcome-based was considered least important by the youngest group.

12. Cost was a consideration, regardless of the demographics, and location of the training was unimportant to those with the most years as building principals.

13. Academic credit was important to only half of the respondents. Those with the fewest years in the district rated it more important than did the other respondents.

Willingness to Enter
Into a Partnership

14. Most respondents would be willing to enter into a partnership effort. Very few said "No," and some needed more information.

15. Directors of corporate management-development programs would be willing to enter into a partnership effort with conditions similar to those expressed as important by educators.

Importance of a Partnership Effort

16. A partnership effort as a resource for the development of school-building administrators was seen as important by nearly 90% of the administrators, with no difference by any demographic variable.

Conclusions

Based on the research findings, the researcher drew the following three conclusions:

1. A statewide effort to use private-sector management-development programs as a resource for the development of educational leaders is a possibility in Michigan. Elementary and secondary principals in all geographic areas and in all sizes of local school districts are willing to enter into a training effort with businesses. Superintendents, who often are the gatekeepers for district in-service needs, will support such an effort. Competencies considered important for managers in business are also considered important for principals throughout all identified competency areas.

2. Conditions for a successful partnership effort between business and education in the development of educational leaders will need to begin with mutual planning of program goals and objectives. This is especially necessary for educators in the eastern region of the state. Attention to the early planning of such an effort is considered to be more important to success than either the location or cost of training experiences. Participants and presenters should be from both business and education. Academic credit need not be a primary factor in a partnership training effort.

The members of the partnership representing business consider a clear mission statement and a timetable of events as necessary for participation of members of the business community.

3. The two primary target groups for a management-development partnership should include female principals and all principals with fewer than four years of administrative experience.

Females may more clearly recognize the need for the managerial aspect of the leadership role. Use of business as a resource for the development of females in educational leadership roles may conceivably lead to an increase in the number of females in higher administrative positions. Females may also respond more favorably to the private sector as a resource replacement for the traditional programs now available to them as they rated the competencies identified in the private sector as more important than did their male colleagues.

Because the youngest and least experienced educational leaders rated the identified competencies less important than did older and more experienced leaders, another initial target group may be administrators with fewer than four years of experience in the principalship. Older and more experienced administrators may have recognized the nature of the work and work setting of school managers. The longer one is in a managerial position, the reality of managerial work may be recognized as very different from the rhetoric proposed by academicians. Support from the private sector for the least experienced principals may require more initial planning, but the development of operational management skills early in a career may lead to a long-term higher level of productivity and excellence in the schools.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions presented in this study, the following recommendations are made:

Recommendations for Service

1. An alliance of private-sector businesses should provide a working framework for the establishment of a leadership-development partnership center for the continued training of leaders in both education and business.

2. Two target groups should be the initial participants for this center: (a) principals with fewer than four years of experience and (b) female principals.

3. The Michigan Department of Education should establish a priority for management-development partnership efforts and provide both expertise and funding to reflect that priority.

4. State departments of education should assume a proactive role in the coordination of educational leadership training and partnership efforts with the private sector. Combined human and financial support may produce a synergistic effect that is helpful to local school districts.

5. Boards of education should recognize the similarity of skills and job functions of managers in education to those of managers in business and adjust hiring practices to reflect these similarities.

6. State departments of education, in establishing administrative certification codes, should recognize the business community as an alternative to universities or professional organizations for the continuing development of educational leaders.

7. Leaders in business and education, in establishing management-development partnerships, should include (a) mutual

planning of goals and objectives, (b) participants and presenters from both business and education, (c) seminars and training sessions with a noncredit option, and (d) training sessions offered statewide with minimal consideration to location.

8.   University and college educational administration programs should provide an alternative to the present academic program by permitting the use of business resources for completion of certain credits toward an advanced degree.

9.   Mentors from the ranks of more experienced leaders should be sought for principals with fewer than four years of experience.

Recommendations for Further Research

10.   Replication of this research for Population One should occur with corporations throughout Michigan, as well as with smaller businesses.

11.   Further research should be conducted that focuses on the variable of gender and the importance of the private-sector competencies and partnership effort.

12.   A follow-up study should be undertaken with those who did not respond in this investigation, to see if there is a difference in responses.

13.   This study should be replicated in a state other than Michigan.

14.   This study should be replicated to see if these are skills needed by central office staff and superintendents.
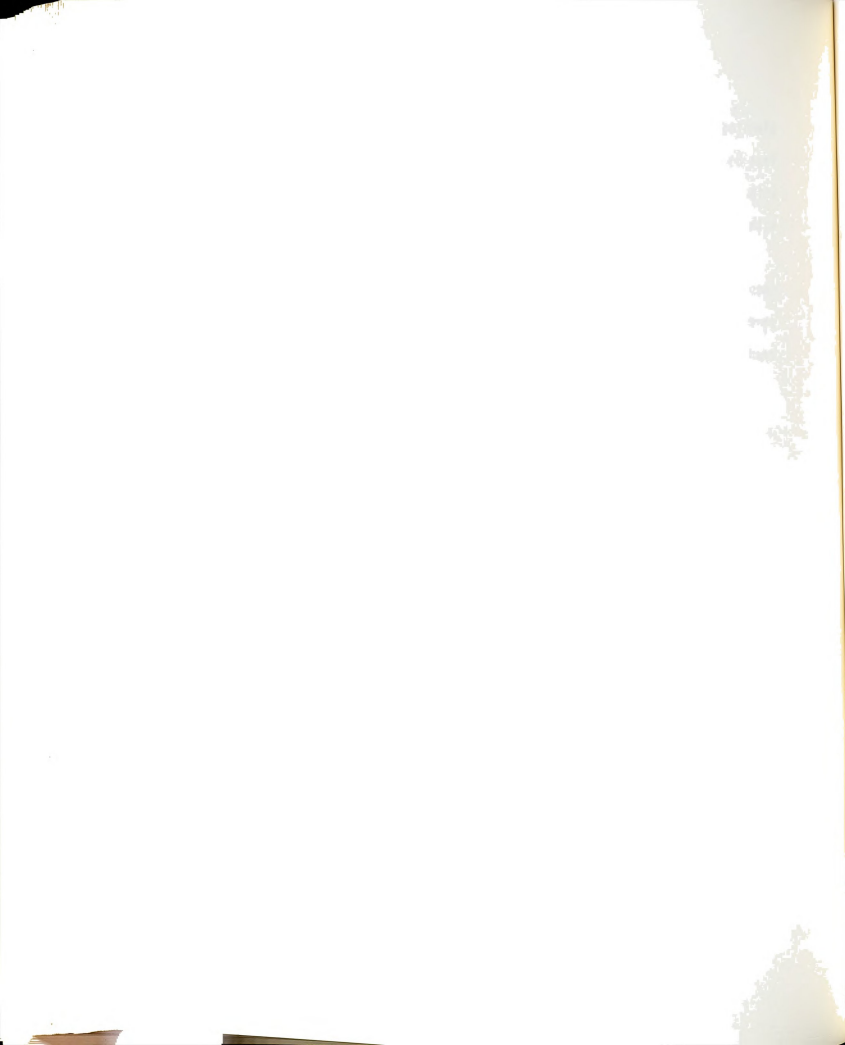
15. Members of local school district boards of education should be surveyed to compare their responses with those in this study.

Reflections

This study, in effect, reflects an effort of leaders in both business and education. As often occurs with research, this study began with a belief--that the management skills important for managers in business are also important for school building principals; therefore, private-sector management-development programs could be considered a resource for the development of educational leaders. The movement from a belief statement to a dissertation required the support of key individuals in education and business.

The cooperation and openness of members of the business community were crucial. The trust exhibited in sharing program curricula and corporate information was critical to the core of this study. Time was spent in developing a trusting relationship and explaining how this study might eventually be helpful to the business community.

The researcher gained a renewed respect for the necessity of establishing a historical perspective for a study. Planning for a future alliance should always include a mapping of the past to understand how one proceeded to the present. Recognizing that the present educational system was born within corporations as a response to the shift from an agrarian society to an industrial society may help to plan the role of business to support education in the shift from an industrial society to one that is information based.

In any management-development partnership effort, an awareness of previous research on the nature of managerial work in both education and business is essential to the development of operational management skills. The dichotomy between being a leader or a manager serves only the theoretician or author of a best-selling book; it does little to help in the day-to-day administration of a school building. The WHEN of exhibiting leadership or management skills should be the central issue.

The researcher observed a language barrier between education and business. The skill of speaking conversational business was helpful in this study. The words were mostly the same for business and education, but the meanings were often very different. Interpreting in either a process or outcome mode proved helpful. An "interpreter" may be a critical factor in initiating any partnership effort that truly involves both sides.

A clear definition of a partnership must reflect the interdependence of the partners with opportunities, risks, and future gains for each.

As the workforce in the United States is presently involved in a paradigm shift, school leaders need assistance in translating the needs of the future workplace into skills for future workers. Partnership efforts across the nation are growing, and the opportunity for a management-development partnership effort in Michigan appears to exist. The competencies and conditions identified in this study could be the basis for such an effort. Those involved in the mutual planning of a partnership effort will

need to think globally and not become mired in the parochialism of territorial imperatives, ego enhancement, and the buddy system. A well-planned, mutually beneficial effort may address the needed interdependence of business and education in local communities and ultimately be helpful to the entire state in regaining the competitive edge in the world economy.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW GUIDE

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Tell me about your position
      title   length of time in this position
      job description

2. How long has this corporation had a management-development program?

3. Number of employees:

      50- 99   1,000-2,499
      100-499   2,500-9,999
      500-999   10,000+

4. Describe the structure of the management-development program and its relationship to the corporation:
      a. corporate-wide
      b. mandatory
      c. performance appraisal
      d. affirmative action
      e. career development
      f. Percentage in-house

5. What competencies/skills in the management-development program address the ability to:
      a. plan and organize work
      b. work with and lead others
      c. analyze problems and make decisions
      d. communicate orally and in writing
      e. perceive the needs and concerns of others
      f. perform under pressure
      g. other

6. Are there any conditions under which you would be willing to enter into a partnership effort in the development of school administrators?

7. Are there any benefits this corporation would derive from a management-development partnership with public education? Please describe. . . .

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER

CAMILLE K. DONNELLY

854 Lakeside SE
Grand Rapids, Michigan 49506
(616) 247-8368

Dear Colleague:

In 1984, I explored through the Michigan Institute for Educational Management, a possible role of private sector assistance in the development of educational leaders. As a result the Business and Education Managers Collaborative was established as a component of the Leadership Academy.

As the originator of the Business and Education Managers Collaborative and a consultant for the partnership efforts in local school districts, I am conducting a study to determine if the competencies identified in private sector management development programs are rated as competencies needed in school building administration.

To gather information about management practices in business that may be relevant to educational institutions, I interviewed the Management Development Directors in ten major corporations in Michigan and with that information, I developed the following questionnaire.

The information from this study will be included in my dissertation as well as provide additional information for the partnership effort of the Michigan Department of Education and leadership development activities of the Leadership Academy. Whether used for future partnership effort planning or reporting in the dissertation, all information will be treated confidentially. To this end, individual respondents and organizations will not be identified; only aggregate data will be used. Coding is used only to identify nonrespondents.

If you are interested in the information collected in this study, I will be glad to send you a summary of the results. Please indicate your interest on the survey return form.

Please take a few minutes to complete and mail the enclosed survey questionnaire. Your prompt response is needed and appreciated. If you have any questions/concerns please phone me at 517-353-8900 or 616-247-8368.

Sincerely,

Camille Donnelly
Leadership Development Consultant

Enclosure

APPENDIX C

ENDORSEMENT LETTER FROM STEELCASE

To Whom It May Concern:

The purpose of this letter is to express our support for this education/business, management competency, research project. Over the last three years I have been involved in numerous business/education collaboratives and see this as one more excellent opportunity for business and education to further the cause of educational renewal through cooperative involvement.

Please join me in this effort. Take a few minutes and complete the questionnaire instrument. The results of this study potentially have a significant impact on the selection and development of our future educational leaders. Your input is needed and valued. Thank you in advance for supporting this project.

Sincerely,

Paul A. Pearson, Director
Human Resources Development

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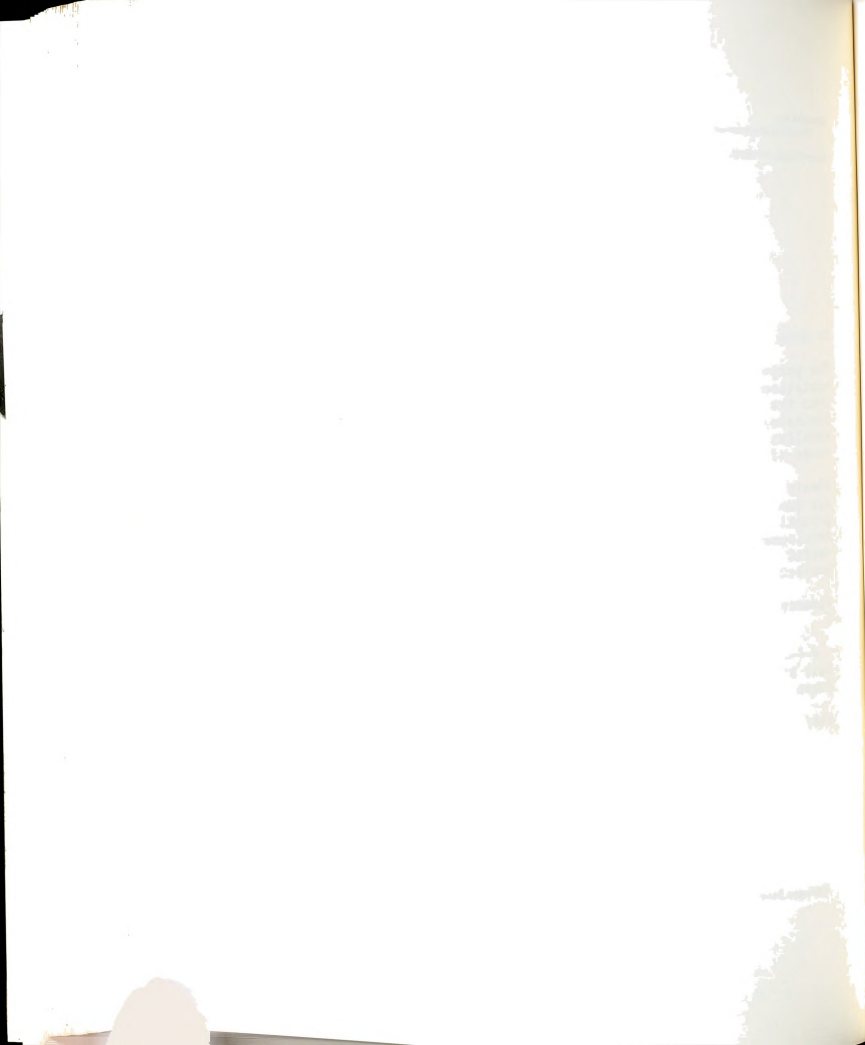
APPENDIX D

ENDORSEMENT LETTER FROM MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

STATE OF MICHIGAN

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Lansing, Michigan 48909

PHILLIP E. RUNKEL
Superintendent
of Public Instruction

MEMORANDUM

To: Selected Principals and Superintendents

From: Phillip E. Runkel

Re: Attached Competencies Inventory

In 1984-85 the Michigan Department of Education established the
Partnerships for Education Task Force. As a result of the
recommendations of that group, the Michigan Partnerships for Education
has created interest and support for the development of partnerships
with businesses across the state.

Management training has been identified as one of the first priority
activities of the partnership effort. Management studies and
management training for administrators, identified by joint study
committees of educators and business people, may result in a shared
learning to help schools prepare Michigan youth and adults for
productive roles in a rapidly changing world.

Camille Donnelly is conducting a study of management development
competencies identified in ten major corporations in Michigan. Your
assistance in rating these competencies for their importance in the
development of school building principals is essential to this study.
Although this information will be used in Ms. Donnelly's dissertation,
the information gathered will be of value to school districts in
Michigan in furthering management development partnerships with the
private sector.

It will be helpful if you will take a few minutes to complete the
survey questionnaire and return it to Ms. Donnelly as soon as possible.
Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE

INVENTORY OF COMPETENCIES IDENTIFIED IN CORPORATE MANAGEMENT
DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS AS THOSE ALSO NEEDED IN SCHOOL BUILDING
ADMINISTRATION

PURPOSE:

This inventory is a compilation of competencies
identified in Management Development Programs of ten
corporations and is designed to identify those competencies
seen as also needed in school building administration.

This inventory is also designed to determine the
conditions that principals and superintendents express
as important in a partnership training effort with private
sector management development programs.

PART I

The following items will be used as demographic data in future
planning:

1. Your present job title (Please check only one)
    a. Elementary principal   a._____
    b. Secondary principal   b._____
    c. Superintendent   c._____
    d. Other (specify)   d._____

2. How many years have you been in your present
position?   _____

3. How many years have you been in this district? _____

4. How many years total have you been or were you once a
building principal?   _____

5. What is your age?   _____

6. What is your gender?   Female_____ Male_____

PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT PAGE

PART II-------------DIRECTIONS

The following items are competencies identified by ten private-sector corporations as competencies in their management development programs. PLEASE CIRCLE THE IMPORTANCE OF EACH COMPETENCY IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF A SCHOOL BUILDING.

For example: If you think that to develop the competency to delegate effectively is VERY IMPORTANT for school building administration, you would mark:

	extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
delegate effectively	5	④	3	2	1

ABILITY TO PLAN AND ORGANIZE WORK
Develop the competency to:

1. set goals	5	4	3	2	1
2. identify critical elements and objectives	5	4	3	2	1
3. establish change and transition strategies	5	4	3	2	1
4. accomplish tasks effectively	5	4	3	2	1
5. delegate tasks/responsibilities	5	4	3	2	1
6. plan effective meetings	5	4	3	2	1
7. manage time effectively	5	4	3	2	1

ABILITY TO WORK WITH AND LEAD OTHERS
Develop the competency to:

8. identify appropriate leadership style	5	4	3	2	1
9. appraise staff performance	5	4	3	2	1
10. improve staff performance	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT PAGE

Develop the competency to:

	extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
11. mentor staff	5	4	3	2	1
12. implement disciplinary action	5	4	3	2	1
13. identify appropriate leadership behavior	5	4	3	2	1
14. build teams for working together	5	4	3	2	1
15. utilize power and influence	5	4	3	2	1
16. improve relationships with peers	5	4	3	2	1
17. improve relationships with bosses	5	4	3	2	1
18. improve relationships with subordinates	5	4	3	2	1
19. implement labor agreements	5	4	3	2	1
20. develop a career plan	5	4	3	2	1
21. build trust with staff	5	4	3	2	1
22. recruit and select new employees	5	4	3	2	1
23. motivate staff	5	4	3	2	1

ANALYZE PROBLEMS AND MAKE DECISIONS
Develop the competency to:

	extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
24. write accurate problem-statements	5	4	3	2	1
25. analyze data	5	4	3	2	1
26. analyze performance problems	5	4	3	2	1
27. problem-solve as a group	5	4	3	2	1
28. problem-solve individually	5	4	3	2	1
29. make appropriate decisions	5	4	3	2	1
30. monitor results	5	4	3	2	1
31. anticipate problems	5	4	3	2	1
32. analyze job skills	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT PAGE

ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE ORALLY AND IN WRITING
    Develop the competency to:

	extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
33. improve interpersonal skills	5	4	3	2	1
34. conduct effective meetings	5	4	3	2	1
35. be assertive	5	4	3	2	1
36. present ideas skillfully for the appropriate audience	5	4	3	2	1
37. conduct effective interviews	5	4	3	2	1
38. speak skillfully on the telephone	5	4	3	2	1
39. communicate effectively in writing	5	4	3	2	1
40. eliminate barriers to communication	5	4	3	2	1

ABILITY TO PERCEIVE THE NEEDS AND CONCERNS OF OTHERS
    Develop the competency to:

41. conduct a needs analysis	5	4	3	2	1
42. recognize, reward, and support appropriate behavior	5	4	3	2	1
43. enhance self-esteem	5	4	3	2	1
44. increase acceptance for change	5	4	3	2	1
45. establish quality and productivity improvement circles	5	4	3	2	1

ABILITY TO PERFORM UNDER PRESSURE
    Develop the competency to:

46. confront effectively	5	4	3	2	1
47. negotiate successfully	5	4	3	2	1
48. eliminate self-defeating behaviors	5	4	3	2	1
49. minimize relationship tension	5	4	3	2	1
50. manage stress effectively	5	4	3	2	1
51. handle grievances	5	4	3	2	1

PLEASE PROCEED TO THE NEXT PAGE

OTHER (NOT IDENTIFIED IN THE ABOVE SIX
    ABILITY CATEGORIES)
    Develop the competency to:

	extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
52. develop a budget	5	4	3	2	1
53. speed-read	5	4	3	2	1
54. develop new manager orientation	5	4	3	2	1
55. apply computer technology	5	4	3	2	1
56. understand data-processing	5	4	3	2	1
57. maintain facilities and equipment	5	4	3	2	1
58. construct a plan for retirement	5	4	3	2	1
59. implement policies	5	4	3	2	1
60. locate appropriate educational research	5	4	3	2	1
61. interpret educational research	5	4	3	2	1
62. select and apply appropriate instructional design models	5	4	3	2	1
63. select and apply appropriate instructional design applications	5	4	3	2	1

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PART III----------------DIRECTIONS

If given the opportunity to participate in a management
development partnership effort with the private sector, how
important is each of the following conditions. PLEASE RATE THE
IMPORTANCE OF EACH CONDITION.

		extremely important	very important	important	somewhat important	not important
64.	Mutual planning of the goals and objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
65.	Location of the training	5	4	3	2	1
66.	Participants from both business and education	5	4	3	2	1
67.	Presenters from both business and education	5	4	3	2	1
68.	Cost	5	4	3	2	1
69.	Academic credit	5	4	3	2	1
70.	Out-come based	5	4	3	2	1

71. Other conditions (please specify)_____
_____
- -

72. If the above conditions were met, would you be willing to
be involved in a management development partnership with
the private sector? YES-----NO------UNCERTAIN-------

73. Please rate the importance of a
partnership effort with private-
sector management development programs
as a resource for the development
of school building administrators   5   4   3   2   1
- -
Enclosed is a self-addressed envelope to send this completed
inventory to:
        Camille Donnelly
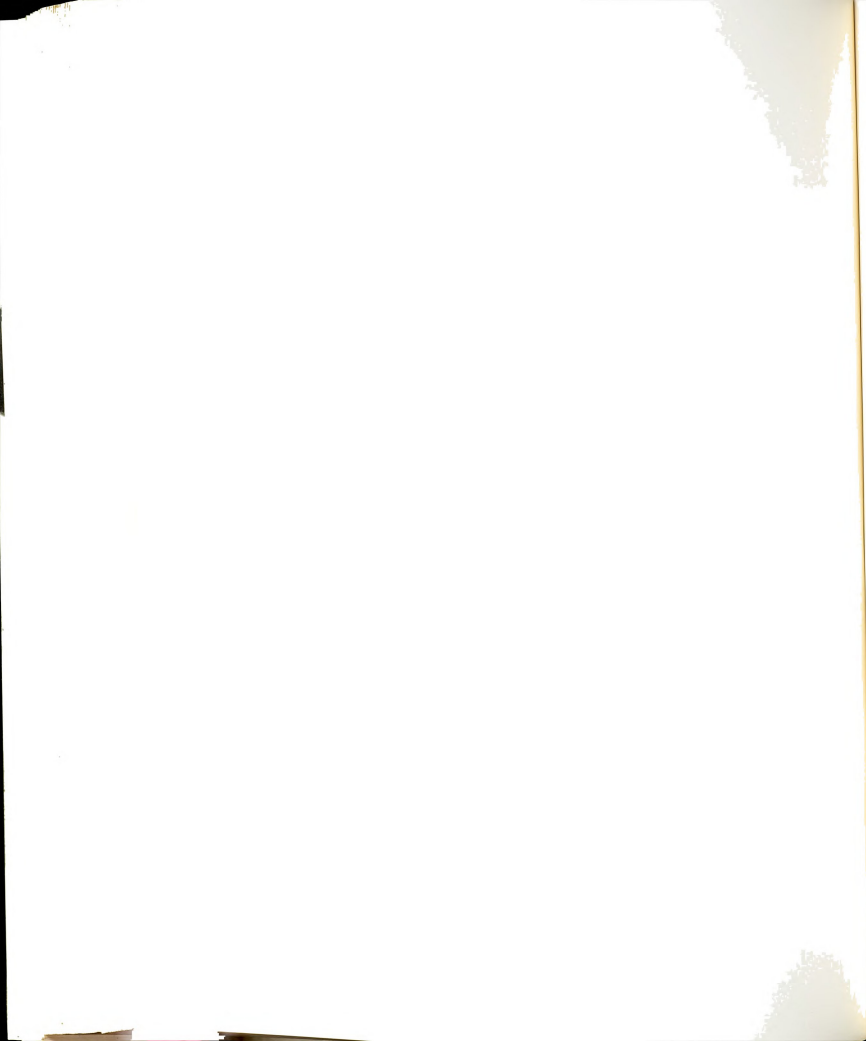   854 Lakeside, se
        Grand Rapids, Mi. 49506

If you would like a summary of the results please complete:
    NAME--
    ADDRESS---
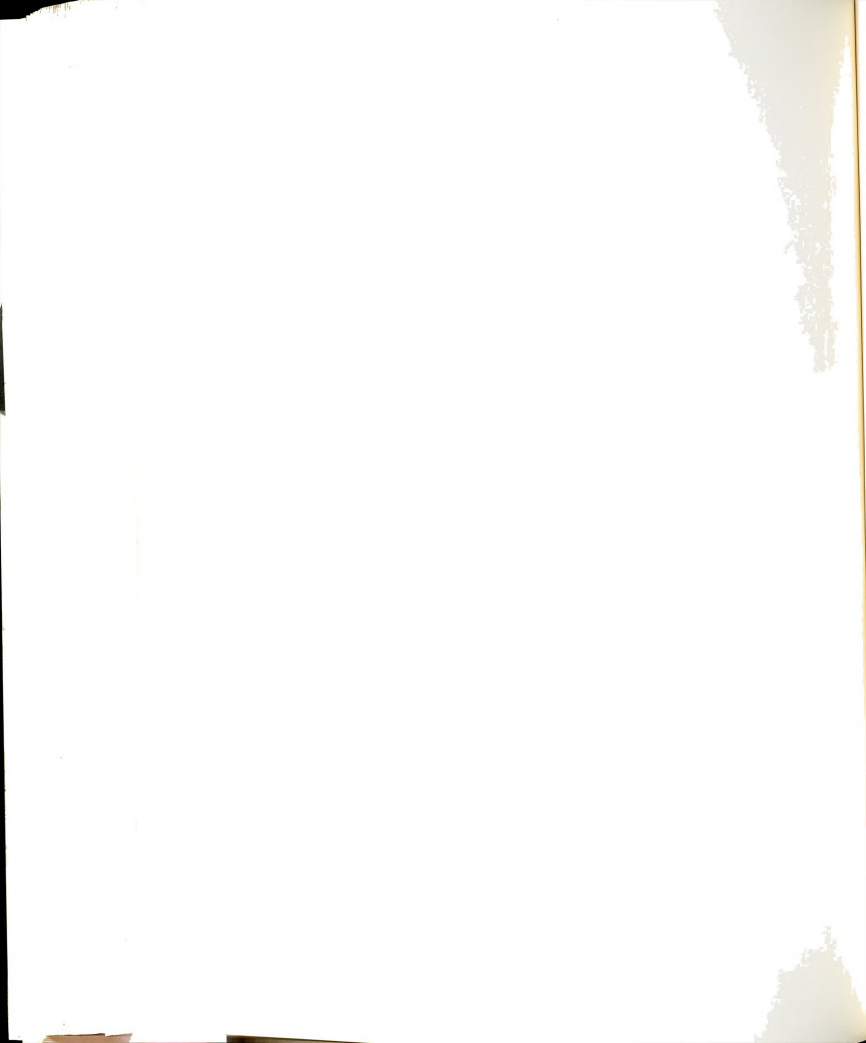   --

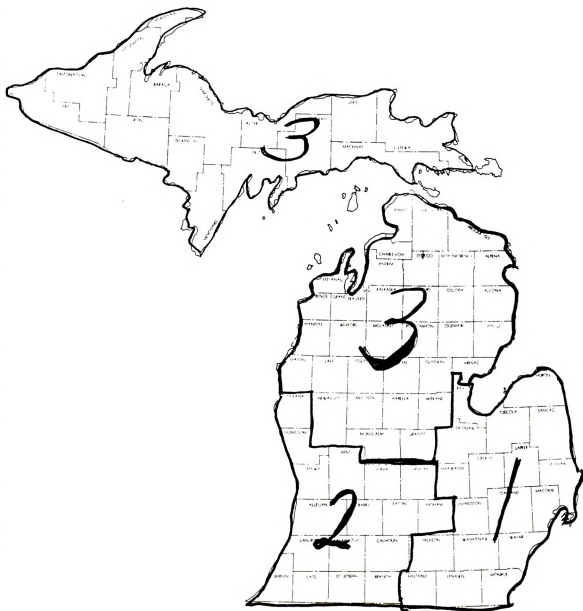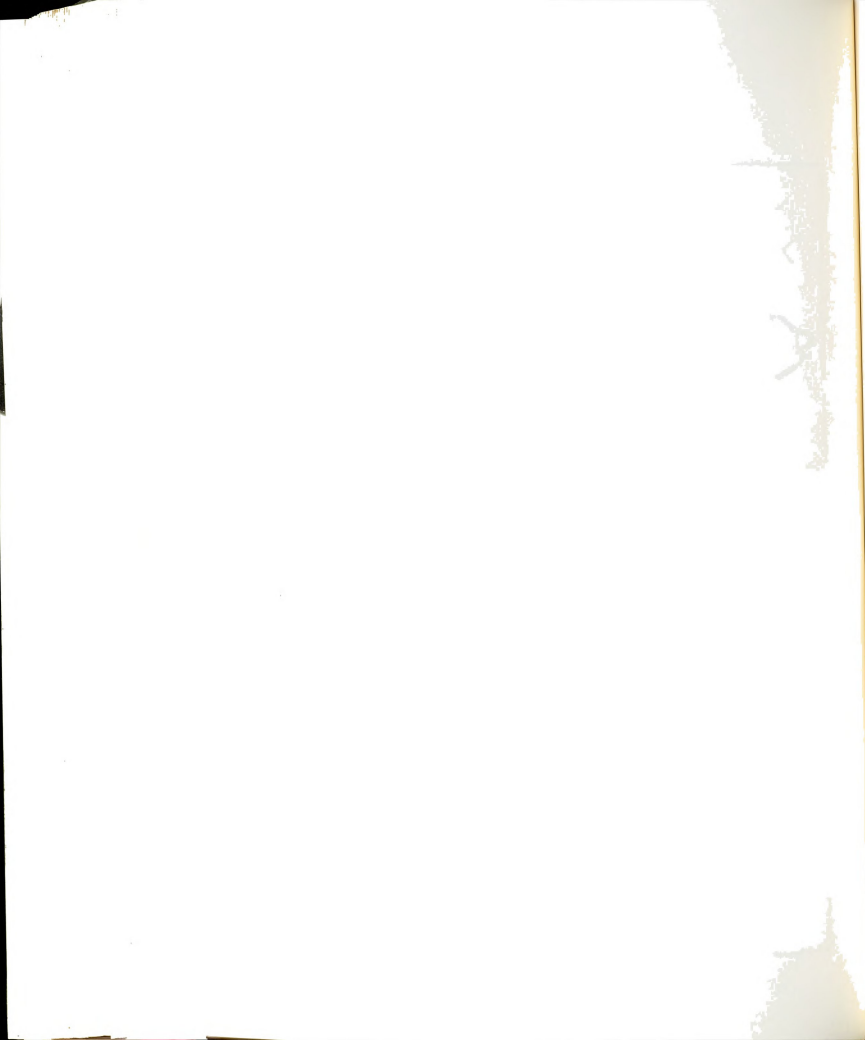THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PROMPT RESPONSE.

APPENDIX F

GEOGRAPHIC LOCATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

MAP OF MICHIGAN

Ratings of Competencies (in percent)

Competency	% Total 3,4,5	Extremely Important 5	Very Important 4	Important 3	Somewhat Important 2	Not Important 1
ABILITY TO PLAN AND ORGANIZE WORK						
Develop the competency to:						
1. set goals	100	50	42	8	0	0
2. identify critical elements and objectives	100	39	47	13	0	0
3. establish change and transition strategies	99	22	54	24	1	0
4. accomplish tasks effectively	100	46	43	11	0	0
5. delegate tasks/responsibilities	99	30	54	14	1	0
6. plan effective meetings	99	28	50	20	1	0
7. manage time effectively	100	52	36	10	0	0
ABILITY TO WORK WITH AND LEAD OTHERS						
Develop the competency to:						
8. identify appropriate leadership style	95	21	49	25	5	0
9. appraise staff performance	100	45	46	9	0	0
10. improve staff performance	100	57	38	5	0	0
11. mentor staff	94	15	47	32	0	0
12. implement disciplinary action	93	16	41	36	4	0
13. identify appropriate leadership behavior	95	16	47	32	4	0
14. build teams for working together	97	36	43	18	2	1
15. utilize power and influence	75	11	26	37	21	4
16. improve relationships with peers	91	16	39	35	8	1
17. improve relationships with bosses	90	10	36	44	8	1
18. improve relationships with subordinates	100	25	45	27	3	0
19. implement labor agreements	87	19	34	34	10	2
20. develop a career plan	72	5	25	42	21	5

Competency	% Total 3,4,5	Extremely Important 5	Very Important 4	Important 3	Somewhat Important 2	Not Important 1
22. recruit and select new employees	97	42	36	19	2	0
23. motivate staff	100	62	33	5	0	0
ANALYZE PROBLEMS AND MAKE DECISIONS						
Develop the competency to:						
24. write accurate problem statements	90	11	40	39	10	0
25. analyze data	96	18	50	28	4	0
26. analyze performance problems	100	22	50	28	0	0
27. problem solve as a group	98	22	46	30	2	0
28. problem solve individually	98	21	51	26	2	0
29. make appropriate decisions	100	60	34	6	0	0
30. monitor results	100	26	53	21	0	0
31. anticipate problems	100	43	43	14	0	0
32. analyze job skills	96	14	43	39	4	0
ABILITY TO COMMUNICATE ORALLY AND IN WRITING						
Develop the competency to:						
33. improve interpersonal skills	100	28	48	24	0	0
34. conduct effective meetings	99	23	54	22	0	0
35. be assertive	99	12	47	36	4	1
36. present ideas skillfully for the appropriate audience	100	33	54	13	0	0
37. conduct effective interviews	97	23	50	24	4	0
38. speak skillfully on the telephone	96	16	42	38	4	0
39. communicate effectively in writing	100	34	50	16	0	0
40. eliminate barriers to communication	100	41	44	15	0	0

Competency	% Total 3,4,5	Extremely Important 5	Very Important 4	Important 3	Somewhat Important 2	Not Important 1
ABILITY TO PERCEIVE THE NEEDS AND CONCERNS OF OTHERS						
Develop the competency to:						
41. conduct a needs analysis	87	10	35	42	12	1
42. recognize, reward, and support appropriate behavior	99	39	48	12	1	0
43. enhance self-esteem	96	28	49	19	4	0
44. increase acceptance for change	99	24	51	24	1	0
45. establish quality and productivity improvement circles	80	11	29	40	17	3
ABILITY TO PERFORM UNDER PRESSURE						
Develop the competency to:						
46. confront effectively	98	32	49	17	2	0
47. negotiate successfully	94	28	44	22	6	0
48. eliminate self-defeating behaviors	99	29	50	20	1	0
49. minimize relationship tension	97	27	48	22	3	0
50. manage stress effectively	99	40	41	18	1	0
51. handle grievances	88	15	40	33	12	0
OTHER (NOT IDENTIFIED IN THE ABOVE SIX ABILITY CATEGORIES)						
Develop the competency to:						
52. develop a budget	91	19	42	30	8	1
53. speed read	62	4	17	41	28	10
54. develop new manager orientation	66	4	20	42	27	7
55. apply computer technology	77	8	28	41	21	2
56. understand data processing	68	8	19	41	25	7
57. maintain facilities and equipment	89	16	36	36	10	1

Competency	% Total 3,4,5	Extremely Important 5	Very Important 4	Important 3	Somewhat Important 2	Not Important 1
59. implement policies	98	30	46	22	2	0
60. locate appropriate educational research	82	10	32	40	17	1
61. interpret educational research	85	13	35	37	15	0
62. select and apply appropriate instructional design models	90	13	43	34	10	0
63. select and apply appropriate instructional design applications	90	14	40	36	10	0

Ratings of Conditions (in percent)

Condition	Total 3,4,5	Extremely Important 5	Very Important 4	Important 3	Somewhat Important 2	Not Important 1
64. Mutual planning of the goals and objectives	98	43	43	12	2	1
65. Location of the training	77	8	26	43	19	4
66. Participants from both business and education	95	37	35	23	4	1
67. Presenters from both business and education	95	35	40	20	4	1
68. Cost	84	14	26	44	15	1
69. Academic credit	50	6	13	31	28	22
70. Outcome based	92	24	30	29	7	1
Importance of a partnership effort with private-sector management-development programs as a resource for the development of school building administrators	90	18	47	25	8	2

APPENDIX G

RATINGS OF COMPETENCIES AND CONDITIONS

APPENDIX H

PERMISSION LETTER FROM UNIVERSITY COMMITTEE ON
RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824-1046

March 3, 1987

Ms. Camille K. Donnelly
854 Lakeside SE
Grand Rapids, Michigan 49506

Dear Ms. Donnelly:

> Subject: Proposal Entitled, "Competencies Delivered in Private
> Sector Management Development Programs that are
> Competencies Needed in School Building Administration
> and the Implications for Delivery of Management
> Development Activities in a Partnership Effort Between
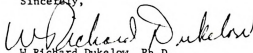> Business and Education"

UCRIHS' review of the above referenced project has now been completed. I am
pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to
be adequately protected and the Committee, therefore, approved this project
at its meeting on March 2, 1987.

You are reminded that UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year. If you
plan to continue this project beyond one year, please make provisions for
obtaining appropriate UCRIHS approval prior to March 2, 1988.

Any changes in procedures involving human subjects must be reviewed by the
UCRIHS prior to initiation of the change. UCRIHS must also be notified
promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.)
involving human subjects during the course of the work.

Thank you for bringing this project to our attention. If we can be of any
future help, please do not hesitate to let us know.

Sincerely,

W Richard Dukelow, Ph.D.
Acting Chairman, UCRIHS

jms

cc: Dr. Howard Hickey

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

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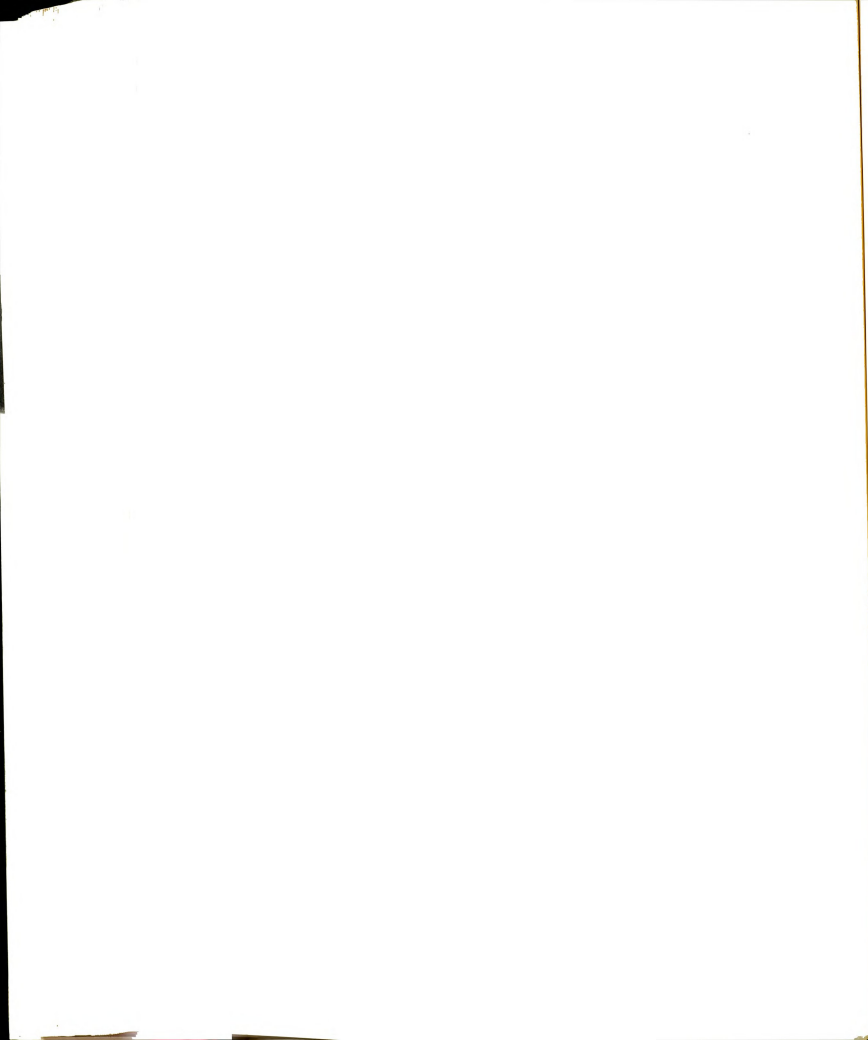
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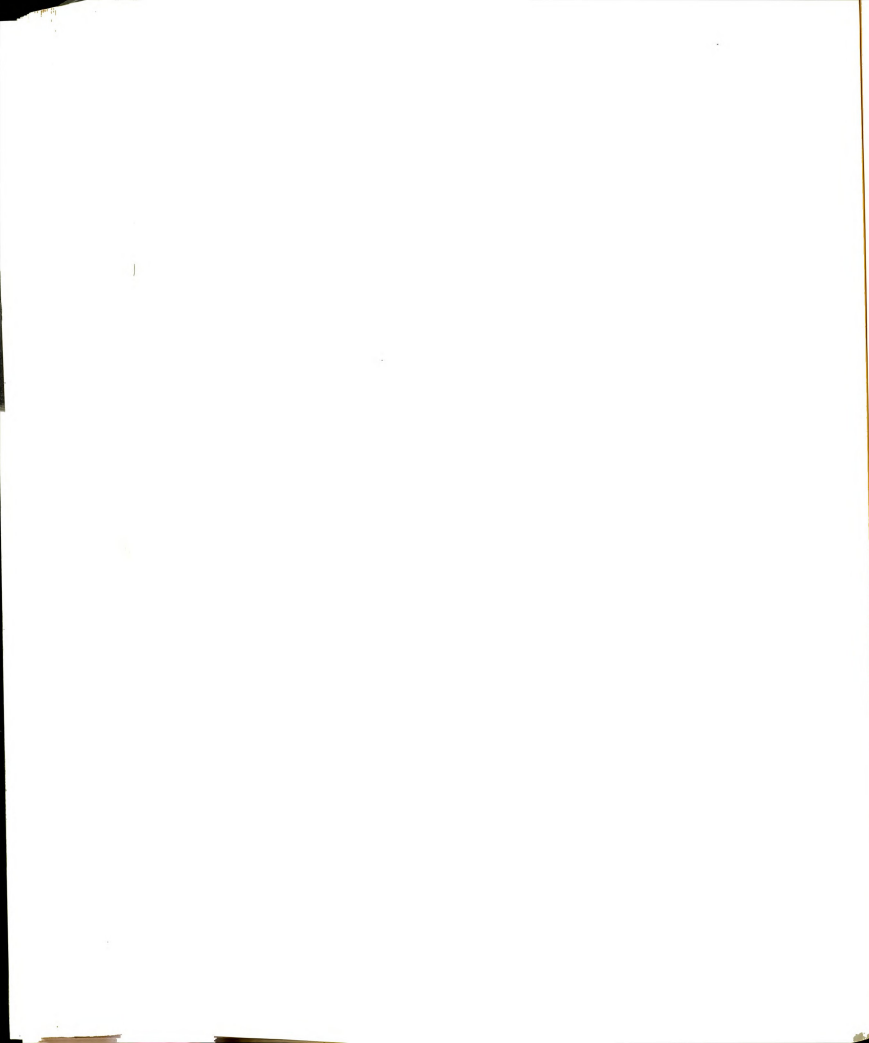
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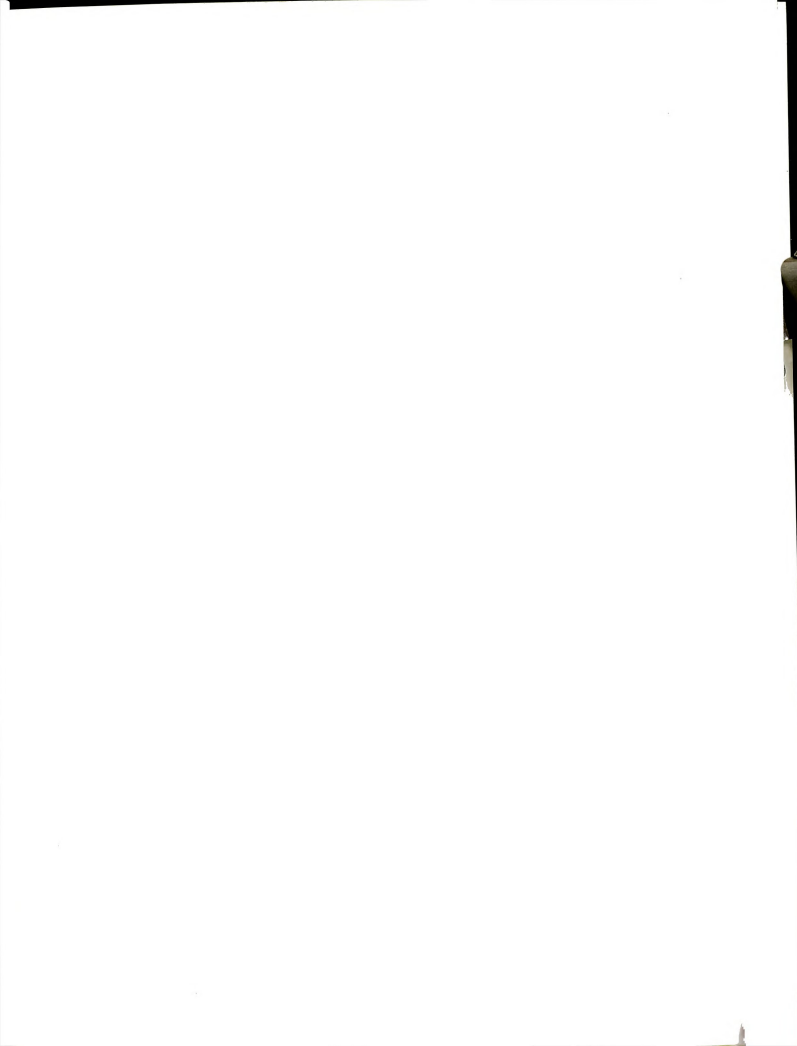
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