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Validating Our Values

When asked by William Purkey to act as editor for the *Journal for Invitational Theory and Practice* my first reaction was “Where is my good friend Bill Stafford going?” I called Bill and found that the summer lures of the Jersey shore, fishing, crabbing, and the delights of being a grandfather were making increasing demands on his time. On top of that, Bill has a new house in Pennsylvania and a new crop of back road restaurants in the quaint and quiet villages to be explored and celebrated. As Bill was willing to succumb to the bliss of the rewards from a very successful career, I consented to a short stint in his shoes. Bill’s service as editor of the journal has been as gracious as it has been invaluable. I can only hope to extend his conscientious and caring leadership.

This issue of the journal contains four articles that, in their own way, deal with the issues of exploring and validating those core cherished beliefs that we call values. I had been a teacher for about 15 years by the time I first heard about Invitational Education. During that time I had moved from the “do it or else” authoritarian view toward a gentler view of students where their needs took a primary role over my needs as a teacher. I still wanted to fulfill my nominal role and teach the “3 R’s” but also to help children grow, mature, and discover the joy in also fulfilling their responsibilities as emerging adults and contributing citizens. Invitational Education espoused a number of theories that matched my new set of professional values. As a result, I didn’t need an empirical validation of many of the basic tenets of invitational theory. Rather, a careful examination of my own personal experiences and how children performed was adequate verification that these new attitudes were obtaining the results the children, their parents, and I desired.

We are, however, in a new era of school reform and demands for external accountability. It is no longer adequate in my professional role that I remain convinced. Like so many others in the Alliance for Invitational Education I must now look for evidence, other than personal con-

viction, in order to influence the decisions and actions of others. The four articles included in this issue contribute to the objectification as well as our understanding of Invitational Education.

Janet Rakes contributes the article “Research? Why? For Whom?” demonstrating how research is typically ignored by counseling practitioners. She describes a process by which counselors primarily rely on other practitioners for their information leading to improvement in their practice. Rakes explores why this occurs and makes suggestions regarding ways researchers and universities can assist practitioners in obtaining and employing current research.

Kate Asbill and Maria Luisa Gonzales, in “Invitational Leadership: Teacher Perception of Inviting Principal Practices,” explore the use of invitational practices and their effects on the school environment as viewed by teachers. Showing that invitational practices fit nicely into a shifting administrative paradigm away from power-based “top-down” practices toward collaborative decision-making styles, they explore the use of inviting practices and job satisfaction. With the impending teacher shortage and the well established pattern of young teachers leaving the profession for other areas, management strategies that enhance teacher satisfaction are critically needed in today’s turbulent school environment.

Patsy Paxton, Pip Bruce Ferguson, Stephen Bright, and Jenny Newby-Fraser contribute “Teaching Invitational Theory within the context of a New Zealand Polytechnic” by examining the use of invitation practices as a primary theory for understanding and implementing the delivery of educational programs in the polytechnic. Through the use of case study they effectively demonstrate the internal consistency of invitation education, its intuitive logic, and its emphasis on positive human interaction makes invitational theory a successful approach to assisting new instructors in developing appropriate teaching practices, but also in unifying diverse cultural approaches to learning and teaching.

The final article is a complex examination of the questions regarding the development of inviting practices and the natural maturational processes of individuals. Salene Cowher examines the “Levels of Ego De-

velopment and Attitudes toward Women in Authoritative Positions among Adolescent Males...” to see if inviting attitudes exist and if those attitudes are related to maturation and/or self actualization. While this study leaves many questions open, it convincingly demonstrates that inviting practices are unlikely to occur naturally in sufficient quantity and quality to provide career advancement and supporting work environments for women in authoritative occupational roles.

After assembling this collection my wife and I spent a day reading, proofing, and discussing the articles. That evening over dinner, we found that we had reason for optimism about the future and also a cautionary tale or two to help us realize how critical invitational theory will be to the development of a world where human dignity and the worth of all people characterize our basic human interactions. I hope this issue will contribute to your development in the same way.

Phillip S. Riner
Editor

Research? Why? For Whom? Inviting University Alumni to Help Bridge the Gap between Research and Practice

Janet Rakes

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Studies indicate that mental health research publications are infrequently read by counseling practitioners because most believe that published research is not relevant to practice. Though they perceive a need for research studies, practitioners rarely undertake their own studies. The purpose of this article is to help close the gap between the university research community and practitioners by proposing the development of a faculty/alumni research alliance program based on invitational theory.

"The time is ripe for us to examine very seriously the gap between research and practice and take bold steps to close this gap" (Goldfried & Wolfe, 1996, p. 1012).

In the fall of 1995, I began my Master's program in counseling at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I learned something during my first class that significantly altered my thinking regarding the effectiveness and purpose of university research. In this class, "The Counselor as Scientist-Practitioner", I had expected to learn how to evaluate and utilize research studies so that I could continuously develop as a counseling practitioner after my graduation. I did learn how to evaluate counseling research. I also learned that, "Although psychotherapy researchers presumably are engaging in activities that can have implications for practice, it is fairly well accepted that researchers typically write for other researchers; the implications for clinical practice, more often than not, are an afterthought" (Goldfried & Wolfe, 1996, p. 1008). In addition, not only did I learn that counseling research is inundated with suggestions that practitioners derive little benefit from published research (Hinkle, 1992), very few counseling practitioners perform re-

search themselves, the modal number of published publications for clinicians being zero (Morrow-Bradley & Elliott, 1986).

I left my "Counselor as Scientist-Practitioner" class haunted by several questions: Why are counseling researchers and practitioners estranged from one another in a profession devoted to improving the quality of human communication and relationships? How can we, as counselors, have confidence that our interventions are current and effective if we are rarely influenced by research studies and almost never conduct studies that evaluate our own techniques? Can the counseling community effectively bridge this gap between researchers and practitioners, or is it inevitable due to the inherent differences in our approach to our work? And, if we continue to accept the gap as inevitable, how can we continue to justify the funding of counseling research studies that seldom benefit practitioners and their clients? What will be the long term consequences regarding the reputation and development of the counseling profession? Is there anything practical that can be done to remedy this situation?

During the first semester of my Master's program at UNCG I also took a class entitled "Helping Relationships" taught by Dr. William Purkey. He introduced me to invitational theory and encouraged me to discover ways of putting this theory into practice. He taught that, "A basic ingredient of invitational theory is a recognition of the interdependence of human beings. This interdependence is based on mutual trust...established by recognizing the rights and self-directing powers of others" (Purkey, 1992, p. 111). Further, he explained to us that,

An indispensable element in any democratic encounter is shared responsibility based on mutual respect. This respect is manifested in the caring and appropriate behavior exhibited by people, as well as by the places, policies, programs, and processes they create and maintain. It is also manifested by establishing positions of equality and shared power.... The final assumption of invitational theory is that the realization of human potential can best be accomplished by places, policies, processes, and programs intentionally designed to invite development... (Purkey, 1992, p. 112).

The theory strongly appealed to me and did not seem at all congruent with how university counseling research is presently conducted. I began reading more about the gap between research and practice. My studies led me to an idea that might invite a successful dialogue between researchers and practitioners.

How Extensive is the Gap?

"There are more than 400 different psychotherapies for the treatment of psychological disorders and problems. Unfortunately, there is no scientific evidence to support the efficacy of most of these therapies" (Perez, 1999, p. 205). Morrow-Bradley & Elliott (1986), found from their survey of members and fellows of the American Psychological Association, that on average, only 37% of research articles that were read and 57% of the research conferences that were attended were considered useful. When those who reported no consumption of research were added to derive the mean percentage of use for all responders, only 28% found research articles and 35% found research conferences to be beneficial to their practices (Morrow-Bradley & Elliott, 1986). Although clinicians indicated that they did not often consume or participate in research studies, they did indicate that they wanted to make more use of research in their practices (Morrow-Bradley & Elliott, 1986).

Why Don't Research and Practice Mix?

Many practitioners report finding the questions addressed in research to be irrelevant to their needs (Morrow-Bradley & Elliott, 1986). Furthermore, most people who become counselors often do not conduct research themselves because they tend to be people-oriented and action-oriented, do not find the activities involved in research congenial, and are not comfortable with statistics courses (Goldman, 1978). Also, counselors often work in busy settings where there is little time, money, assistance, or support for conducting research, and studies that are regarded as good quality often involve complicated techniques and procedures (Goldman, 1978). In addition, most clinicians would have a difficult time gaining access to a large enough number of subjects to do

large group-comparison research (Grubb, 1986) that is so highly valued by the research establishment.

If Research Is Not Influencing Practice, Then What Is?

Most practitioners report learning their therapeutic techniques from watching their teachers and then altering those procedures based on their own trial-and-error experience. Also, they are influenced by workshops, conversations with colleagues, and the literature describing clinical innovations (Barlow, Hayes, & Nelson, 1984). If conversations with colleagues are one of the most useful sources of information for practicing clinicians, "It is unclear what the long range consequences might be of psychologists relying on each other for information, when seemingly few of them read the research literature on a frequent basis" (Cohen, 1979, p. 784). Cohen concludes that attempts to increase clinicians' use of research should probably focus on communication channels that involve interpersonal contact.

How Can We Close the Gap?

"People cannot accept invitations they have never received. Teachers who are dependably inviting check to see that their invitations are received and acknowledged" (Purkey & Novak, 1996, p.75).

After reviewing research literature that addressed the gap between research and practice and learning that interpersonal contact might be an important key to bridging the gap, I considered how university counseling faculty typically attempt to communicate with their former students, and how they might alter their approach as a first step toward significantly impacting their alumni's counseling practices. Presently, the majority of university alumni are treated as passive research consumers. After graduation, most professors rarely inquire about their former students' research interests or invite them to participate in the planning and implementation of research studies.

An Invitation to Alumni

Inviting messages are intended to inform people that they are able, valuable, and responsible; that they have opportunities to participate in their own development; and that they are cordially summoned to take advantage of these opportunities" (Purkey & Novak, 1996, p.10).

A convenient means that faculty have for re-establishing two-way communication and obtaining feedback from their alumni is to send them an annual survey designed to track their alumni's career development, research consumption, and their willingness to participate in research projects. Asking alumni questions such as, "What impact have research articles had on your practice? What research questions would you like to see addressed in the research literature?" and "Would you like to participate in a research project with a professor?" would communicate to alumni that their former professors respect their opinions, value them as consultants, and continue to care about their professional development. The answers to questions like these could aid faculty researchers in obtaining information for the development of research projects which practitioners would find more relevant. (For a sample survey, please see Appendix A).

In order to increase alumni enthusiasm for involvement in the research process, to encourage a high rate of survey return, and to receive more in depth feedback, faculty could hold an annual alumni reunion to discuss survey results. A reception, allowing faculty to introduce alumni to current students, followed by small group discussions led by faculty members specializing in particular research areas, could further increase the likelihood of collaboration between students, faculty, and alumni regarding future research endeavors. To introduce graduating students to the idea of a research partnership, a letter describing the purpose of the partnership along with a survey assessing students' interests in participating could be distributed before graduation.

To further encourage communication and the development of professional partnerships between counseling students and alumni, faculty advisors also might wish to establish a notebook or file containing their alumni's surveys that they could share with their current students. On a form located in the back of the notebook or file, students could record their reasons for accessing the surveys and state whether or not they found them beneficial.

The distribution of surveys and the planning of an alumni reunion involve an expenditure of time that many faculty members may be unable to give. Inviting members of student counseling organizations to assume leadership roles regarding the distribution and collection of surveys, the tabulation of survey results, and the planning and implementation of reunions could save valuable faculty time. It also could increase student interest in forming partnerships with alumni which could aid students in the development of their own research projects and assist them in networking with alumni who could help them locate employment after graduation. When faculty call students and alumni together to work for the common benefit of their profession, students and alumni can take ownership for their learning and "the collaborative, cooperative nature of the teaching/learning process is emphasized in the 'doing with' nature of inviting" (Purkey & Novak, 1996, p. 3).

Expected Invitational Research Partnership Benefits

A research partnership built upon the tenets of invitational theory can benefit the counseling profession in several ways. First, researchers consulting with and involving alumni in university sponsored research projects allows practicing alumni the opportunity to have a voice in the type of research studies conducted, increasing the likelihood that research will become more meaningful to them, and that research articles will be read and utilized. Second, faculty and students who wish to conduct research in clinical settings can gain access to a large pool of willing practitioners by consulting the research partnership files maintained by faculty advisors. Third, mental health practitioners can obtain the support and guidance necessary to conduct research projects in their

work settings and publish their findings, and university faculty can receive continuous and more in-depth feedback from alumni which faculty may find helpful when updating their curriculums. Also, faculty and students can contact alumni who are interested in speaking to university classes and to student organizations about their clinical experiences and therapeutic techniques. Students who desire shadowing experiences in clinical settings and who need assistance and advice concerning the obtainment of employment will be able to more easily communicate with practicing clinicians who can assist them. Finally, the university faculty will be better able to track and conduct longitudinal studies of the career development of their graduates and can obtain information from alumni that will be helpful in providing better career planning for future graduates.

Conclusion

Studies confirm that counseling researchers continue to expend their time and resources conducting research designed to improve the mental health practice when their work is often not utilized by those they seek to benefit. Practitioners feel a need for research studies to improve their practices, yet rarely conduct studies of their own techniques, leaving them uncertain as to their true effectiveness in helping clients. "It is clearly not an egalitarian partnership, but rather one in which each views the other with a certain amount of disdain. To a very great extent, each has difficulty in understanding the needs and concerns of the other, and each rarely validates the legitimacy of the other's activities" (Goldfried & Wolfe, 1996, p. 1008). Perhaps this division between researchers and practitioners can be diminished if university faculty who are committed to the democratic principles of invitational theory were to begin reaching out to their former students by sponsoring faculty/alumni research alliance programs. These alliances could not only facilitate the integration of research into practice, but also could involve practitioners in the training, mentoring, and the career development of counseling students. Alumni, faculty, and students could then begin to perceive graduation not as the symbolic end of their relationship to one another, but the beginning of a mutually beneficial alliance and could model the spirit of collaboration and the art of communication the mental health community seeks to facilitate in others.

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Invitational Leadership: Teacher Perceptions of Inviting Principal Practices

Kate Asbill
Maria Luisa Gonzalez

The quality of adult relationships within a school has more to do with the quality and character of the school and with the accomplishments of students than any other factor. (Barth, 1990, p.163)

This study focused on invitational practices of principals and the correlation between a principal's inviting behaviors and teachers' perceptions. It was hypothesized that there was a positive correlation between a principal's actions and teacher affective outcomes such as feelings of trust, respect, job satisfaction, and perceived principal effectiveness. The principal-teacher relationship was studied in an effort to elucidate the importance of positive human interaction in educational settings.

A thorough review of the literature on the subject of Invitational Education from 1970 through 1991 revealed that little had been written on the application of Invitational Theory to administrative practices. Although Purkey and Warters (1986), Common (1983, 1984, 1985), Chambers (1983), and Cogar (1987) addressed the subject and offered suggestions for the application of Invitational Theory to the administration of schools, Invitational Leadership was not a primary focus of the founders and followers of Invitational Education.

Dr. William Purkey introduced the concept of Invitational Education in the early 1970s and the theory was more fully described in the first edition of the book *Inviting School Success* (Purkey and Novak) in 1978. Invitational Education is a theory of practice that is a viable process for improving schools. Numerous books, articles, and dissertations have been written that have expanded and explained Invitational Theory.

In 1991, the term “Invitational Leadership” was coined by the Alliance for Invitational Education, and an international conference was held with the same theme. Invitational Leadership is a form of leadership based on the theory of Invitational Education that is designed to intentionally create collaborative, cooperative school cultures with a focus on human relationships and human growth and development.

After 1991, numerous articles and chapters appeared on the topic of Invitational Leadership (Novak, 1992; Paxton, 1992; Strahan & Purkey, 1992; Purkey, 1992; Fink, 1992). However, little empirical research was conducted to specifically assess the effects of Invitational Leadership in schools. Effective schools research had shown that a principal can have more of an impact on school change than any other one factor (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979a; Kelly, 1981; Lezotte et al, 1980; Sergiovanni, 1987). There existed a need to study the impact of principals and their use of invitational practices.

The application of Invitational Education theory to leadership is consistent with much that has recently been written throughout leadership literature in both business and education. This provided further reason for pursuing a study of this nature.

Current trends in leadership literature reflect a paradigm shift from old bureaucratic managerial styles that are power-based with top-down control to a different leadership style that respects human dignity and promotes collaboration in the decision-making process. Invitational Leadership is consistent with this current trend toward a less hierarchical, more collaborative management style. Although Invitational Leadership has much in common with these leadership models, there are certain aspects that make this theory unique. This reason supported the rationale to study how the application of Invitational Education theory can enhance leadership practices of principals.

Statement of the Problem

The major problem was the paucity of information in the literature related to the application of Invitational Theory to leadership, and little empirical research on the use of inviting practices by building principals. This study tested some basic assumptions of Invitational Theory as applied to the elementary principalship. There was a need for empirical data to establish the validity of this theory.

Purpose of the Study

According to Purkey, Invitational Education is unlike any other model reported in professional literature because it provides an overarching framework and guiding theory for a variety of educational approaches that fit with its four basic assumptions of trust, respect, optimism, and intentionality (Purkey, 1992). Human interaction that promotes positive relationships and develops human potential is the underlying theme (Amos, 1985).

The application of this theory to the daily practice of principals can have a significant impact on the school setting and on those who work and study there. Research indicates that the principal is in a position to powerfully impact the school setting in a positive or negative way each day (Austin, 1979; Mojkowski, 1991). Studies have shown that most of the principal's day is spent interacting with others (Sayles, 1979; Stogdill, 1974). Principals affect the education process through their actions, interactions, reactions, and inactions. If a constant intentional effort is made by those in leadership positions to follow the tenets of Invitational Education as they relate to others, it could be postulated that schools could become more responsive and productive places.

Although research had been conducted on the effects of inviting practices in classrooms and schools, a study was needed to specifically examine inviting practices by elementary principals based on teacher perceptions. The purpose of this study was to highlight the importance of personally and professionally inviting principal practices in the elemen-

tary school. The following questions, related to inviting practices by principals were answered:

1. Is there a positive relationship between professionally inviting principal practices and teacher job satisfaction?
2. Is there a positive relationship between personally inviting principal practices and teacher job satisfaction?
3. Is there a positive relationship between the principal's Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) (Purkey, 1982) and teacher perceptions of principal effectiveness?
4. Is there a correlation between the principal's Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) and teacher perceptions of the principal as an agent of transformation in their school?
5. Is there a significant difference between the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of male and female principals as perceived by teachers?
6. Is there a significant difference between the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of principals of schools that have been selected for the Inviting School Honor Roll and principals of schools not involved in the Invitational Education process?

Methodology

This section will describe the methodology that guided the study. It will outline details about the study that include instrument development, the research design, and the analyses for each research hypothesis.

Instrument. For the purpose of this study, a leadership survey was developed by the researcher and validated with input from a panel of experts. This Likert-type instrument was derived from a review of leadership literature and Invitational Education theory. The questionnaire was an adaptation of the Invitational Teaching Survey (ITS) developed by Amos, Purkey, and Tobias (1985). Items from the ITS were modified and additional items were added to reflect an assessment of an elementary school principal's Invitational Quotient (I.Q.).

The survey is a 45-item scale designed to assess teacher perceptions of personal and professional practices of elementary principals. Although this instrument was designed to be “The Invitational Leadership Survey” and was used to calculate the Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) of educational leaders, it was simply called, Leadership Survey” for the purpose of this study. This was done in order to eliminate bias that might have surfaced when surveying teachers from schools familiar with Invitational Education.

After the assessment was completed, Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha was used to determine the level of reliability of the instrument. This coefficient gave an estimate of the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Items 1-37 on the survey, which were used to determine the I.Q. score, were found to have a .97 level of reliability, indicating a high degree of internal consistency for this instrument.

Research Design

To achieve the stated purposes, data were collected from two groups of respondents concerning their perceptions of their principal. Teachers from two groups of schools were invited to participate in the study. Group A teachers were selected from schools that had been chosen by the Alliance for Invitational Education as exemplars of inviting schools. Elementary schools were selected from the Inviting School Honor Roll list. This award, which is given by the Alliance for Invitational Education, provides a mode of recognition to promote, propagate, and recognize inviting practices in schools throughout the world.

In order for a school to qualify for inclusion in Group A of this study, it was necessary for the current principal to have been serving as principal when the Inviting School honor was bestowed.

Group B teachers were chosen from schools that had not received the Inviting School distinction. School personnel directories from state departments of education and the U.S. Department of Education were used to randomly select matching schools in the same general vicinity as Group A schools.

Forty-six schools met the criteria for inclusion, and therefore, forty-six matching schools were also selected, making a total of 92 schools being surveyed. Three randomly selected teachers from each building were asked to complete a survey.

In order to obtain a high survey return rate, the researcher utilized the Total Design Method (TDM) for survey research. This method, created by Dillman (1978) provided a step-by-step process for conducting the study.

Sixty-one percent (61%) of the two hundred seventy-six (276) questionnaires were returned. After removing the surveys that did not meet the stated criteria, there were one hundred fifty three (153) usable surveys utilized for statistical analysis. Twenty-four (24) Inviting Schools and thirty-three (33) matching schools were included in the sample. There were 76 surveys indicating that a female principal was rated by the respondent and, coincidentally, the same number indicating that a male principal was rated. One survey did not indicate gender. A total of 16 states were represented in the results. Written comments, which provided additional information, were included on 86% of the surveys.

The statistical analyses of Hypotheses 1-4 were calculated using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation. This procedure was utilized to investigate the linear relationship between inviting principal practices and teacher affective outcomes and perceptions. The statistical analyses of Hypotheses 5-6 were calculated using a t-test for uncorrelated means. This procedure was utilized to determine if there were significant differences between the means of the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of two different designated groups of elementary principals.

Results

Research Hypothesis 1

For the population of elementary principals, there is a positive correlation between professionally inviting principal practices and teacher job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient for Hypothesis 1 was .72 ($p = .0001$), indicating a strong positive relationship and suggesting that as teachers rated principals higher on professionally inviting behaviors, they also rated themselves and others as more satisfied with their jobs and their principals.

Research Hypothesis 2

For the population of elementary principals, there is a positive correlation between personally inviting principal practices and teacher job satisfaction. A correlation coefficient of .66 ($p = .0001$), was found for Hypothesis 2, showing a high positive relationship, and indicating that as teachers ranked themselves higher on personally inviting behaviors, they also ranked themselves and others as more satisfied with their jobs and their principal.

Research Hypothesis 3

For the population of elementary principals, there is a positive correlation between the principal's Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) and teacher perceptions of principal effectiveness. The analysis for Hypothesis 3 demonstrated that the total score of items 1-37, which gave the Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) score on the Leadership Survey, was highly correlated with the total score of teacher perceptions of principal effectiveness (Items 38-40). The correlation coefficient was .70 ($p = .0001$) for I.Q. and the total effectiveness score. This was a strong positive correlation, suggesting that as teachers rated their principals higher on inviting behaviors, they also rated the principal as more effective.

Research Hypothesis 4

For the population of elementary principals, there is a positive correlation between the principal's Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) and teacher perceptions of the principal as an agent of transforming the school. The

correlation analysis of Hypothesis 4 showed that the total of items 1-37, which reflected the Invitational Quotient, and item 41 that assessed teacher opinion of the principal as an agent in positively transforming the school indicated a strong positive relationship. The correlation coefficient was .72 ($p = .0001$). This high correlation indicated that as teachers rated their principals higher on behaving in personally and professionally inviting ways, they also rated the principal as an agent of positive change in the school.

Research Hypothesis 5

For the population of elementary principals, there is a significant difference between the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of male and female principals as perceived by teachers. A t-test for uncorrelated means was used to determine if a significant difference existed between the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of male and female principals. Depicted in Table 1, a statistically significant difference was not found between the two groups. For Hypothesis 5 the variances were found to be unequal ($F = 1.79$, $df = 75, 75$, $p = .01$). Therefore, the t-test was used which was suggested by Cochran and Cox, using the degrees of freedom formula suggested by Satterwaite (Hinkel et al., 1988). The t-test resulted in a value of .76, $df = 138, 8$, and $p = .45$. Therefore, the research hypothesis was rejected. This indicated that the null hypothesis was retained at the .05 level of significance. In this study, there was no significant difference between the average Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of male and female principals as perceived by teachers responding to the questionnaire.

Table 1
 Statistical Analysis of Hypothesis 5 :
 Invitational Quotients of Males vs. Females

Group	N	Mean	SD
Male	76	4.4	.52
Female	76	4.3	.69

Inferential Statistics	
t score	.76
df	138,8
p	.45

Research Hypothesis 6

It was projected that for the population of elementary principals, principals that have been selected for the Inviting School Honor Roll will have a higher Invitational Quotient (I.Q.) than principals of schools not selected. A t test for uncorrelated means was used to determine if a significant difference existed between the Invitational Quotients (I.Q.s) of principals in these two groups. The probability of .01 is less than the .05 alpha level, indicating that a statistically significant difference existed between the two groups of schools. The mean I.Q. for the Inviting Schools was higher than the mean I.Q. for the matching schools. (See Table 2). Principals of schools that had been selected for the Inviting School Honor Roll were rated higher by teachers on the Invitational Quotient than were principals of matching schools.

Table 2

Statistical Analysis of Hypothesis 6:
Invitational Quotients of Inviting School Principals vs.
Matching School Principals

Group	N	Mean	SD
Inviting	68	4.5	.45
Matching	85	4.2	.70
Inferential Statistics			
t score	2.63		
df	144,7		
p	.01*		

* p < .05

The empirical results of Hypothesis 1-6 indicated that the use of inviting practices by principals had a high correlation with teacher job satisfaction and teacher perception of principal effectiveness and teacher perception of the principal as an agent of transformation. No difference was found between the rating of male and female principals on inviting practices. Principals of Inviting Schools were found to have more inviting practices than those of matching schools. Written comments by teachers concerning the leadership behaviors and effectiveness of their principals supported the statistical findings on the survey.

Summary

One objective of this study was to test some basic assumptions of Invitational Education as applied to the principal-teacher relationship in elementary schools. This study attempted to add to the knowledge base concerning the relationship between principals and teachers.

This was a study of teacher perceptions of principal practices. It was appropriate that teacher perceptions be used for this study of Invitational Education theory because this theory had its grounding in a foundation of perceptual psychology. The perceptual tradition is a belief that people

behave according to how they see themselves and the situation that they are in (Combs et al, 1978). There is an emphasis on understanding behavior as a product of the unique way that people view the world at the moment of behaving (Purkey, 1992). A study of teacher perceptions of principal practices was valuable because teacher perceptions of principals can have an effect on teacher thinking and behavior.

Invitational Education and Invitational Leadership are espoused by the Alliance for Invitational Education as a means for transforming classrooms and climates in schools. This research was undertaken to study that theory. This theory of practice is believed to be a process for improving schools.

Data from the study indicated that personally and professionally inviting behaviors of elementary principals were correlated with teacher satisfaction. The maintenance of high staff satisfaction and morale has long been an important objective for educators. Employee satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that reflects positive or negative feelings about particular persons or situation. High satisfaction on the part of school personnel is viewed as a desirable goal for school organizations.

The findings of this study illuminated the importance of the daily actions and interactions of the principal in relation to the teachers. Principals that behaved in a dependable inviting manner were more likely to have a satisfied staff.

The recommendation of the researcher, based on the results of this study is that the principles of Invitational Education be taught in leadership preparation programs and universities. The influence of the principal in the educational setting has been shown through the review of the literature and a difference has been found in schools where principals practice the theory of Invitational Leadership. If principals are taught the theory of Invitational Education and *intentionally* practice it in their personal and professional lives, schools can become the most inviting places in town for teachers, students, and all who enter them.

When principals consciously choose to behave in a dependably inviting manner, positive principal-teacher relationships will be created, teacher job satisfaction will increase, school climate will be enhanced, school effectiveness will be augmented, and total school settings will be positively transformed.

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Teaching Invitational Theory within the Context of a New Zealand Polytechnic

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Relevant examples of practice and case studies are used to clarify and explicate the theoretical framework and to illustrate the success of Invitational Theory as one of the theories taught in The Waikato Polytechnic's Diploma of Adult Learning and Teaching. The paper concludes by pointing out a number of challenges Invitational Theory poses for adult educators in general and New Zealand Polytechnic lecturers in particular.

The Waikato Polytechnic, situated in Hamilton, is the fourth largest polytechnic in New Zealand. Due to mergers about to take place, it will soon become the second largest in New Zealand with almost 8,000 equivalent fulltime students. It has a staff of over 1,500 including part-time teaching and support staff.

Polytechnics form part of the tertiary education sector and by their nature and purpose focus on delivering quality vocational and technical training and education to a wide-ranging population. The age level of students varies from 18 year-old school-leavers to mature adult students returning to study or embarking on study for the first time. In terms of the Education Act of 1989, polytechnics can offer the full range of programs from low level certificates up to Bachelors and postgraduate

qualifications. The Waikato Polytechnic has the largest percentage of Maoriⁱ students than any other polytechnic in New Zealand and in terms of its charter is bound to give consideration to the partnership intent of the Treaty of Waitangiⁱⁱ.

Case Studies from the Teaching of Invitational Theory at The Waikato Polytechnic

Since 1995 invitational theory has formed an integral part of the education theory module of the Diploma of Adult Learning and Teaching (DipAlt) which is offered to lecturers of The Waikato Polytechnic as part of their professional staff development. Educational theory is taught as a compulsory course (usually the first formal one undertaken) for the DipAlt. Lecturers undertaking the course have therefore normally completed a tertiary qualification in their specialized vocational or technical field before commencing DipAlt, and generally have had little exposure to formal educational theory.

The first year of the DipAlt concentrates on practical strategies and tools to assist the new polytechnic lecturer. As a result educational theory is sometimes perceived as a cognitive shock! It is here that invitational theory has been so valuable. Rather than utilizing arcane terminology which students find confusing, and concepts which possibly seem esoteric and lacking in practical application, Invitational Theory has proved to be an easily understandable and adaptable approach to facilitating quality learning situations. The reason for this is clear: the practical application of this theory is something which the lecturers find relatively easy. Listed below are some ways in which these lecturers have applied the principles of Invitational Theory within their own contexts. These examples are drawn from assignments, project work or descrip-

ⁱ Maori are the indigenous people of New Zealand. They comprise of a number of tribes (Iwi) which together total some 14% of the New Zealand population.

ⁱⁱ The Treaty of Waitangi is a declaration signed by both the Maori and the Crown in 1840 and in essence acknowledges the partnership between the indigenous Maori people and the Pakeha (people of European extraction).

tions of poster presentations completed by the two lecturers. The first comes from a lecturer in the Department of Mechanical and Construction Engineering, Markⁱⁱⁱ, who commenced the DipAlt some years after first completing his Certificate of Adult Teaching. He said in his introduction that he "came to the conclusion that there is a golden thread of truth running through all the theories. . .but no one theory holds all the answers". He chose to concentrate on Invitational Theory "because it outlines a model of positive action towards a clearly defined goal", determined by assumptions underlying the invitational model. He commented that he "found this the most inspiring of the educational theories. It gives meaning and direction to many of the things that I am trying to achieve in my role as a lecturer".

In applying Invitational Theory to his teaching, this lecturer focused initially on the 'people' aspect of the five 'P's of invitational theory. He argued that a cohesive, co-operative team of staff at The Waikato Polytechnic was essential in order to develop a campus that was inviting to students. Applying the theory to his students, Mark stated that "a priority as a lecturer must be to acknowledge and affirm the uniqueness of every person in your class and create a learning atmosphere that is seen by each of them as inviting." He rebuts claims that fairness means treating every student as the same, and argues rather that "equality is not about sameness, it is a celebration of uniqueness." To be truly invitational, then, one must try to understand and to provide appropriate learning opportunities for *each* student. He suggested that lecturers apply the theory to students by genuinely appreciating them as people of value, who are able, valuable and responsible. Mark went on to suggest ways in which the physical environment of The Waikato Polytechnic could be adjusted to be seen and to be experienced as more inviting to students. One way that this could be done would be to provide an escort service for students who needed to get to their cars after a late lecture at night. Moving from the physical aspect to the processes of the institution, he suggested the use of accelerated learning techniques to provide appropriate teaching and learning strategies to suit the learning styles of each student. He listed ways in which lecturers can challenge and extend the premises

ⁱⁱⁱ All named DipAlt participants' work quoted with permission.

which underpin students' learning approaches, critiques the current emphasis on unit standards^{iv} if the underlying connection between these disparate 'blocks' of learning is not made clear to students, and suggested ways in which the institution's policies could both invite and disinvite students.

In his conclusion, Mark claimed that "by creating an intentionally inviting environment throughout the institution, we can ensure that every community member feels welcome." His emphasis on the whole community is a strong feature of his essay, and atypical of the assignment work, which tended to focus on how Invitational Theory benefits students rather than necessarily the lecturers and support staff in the institution. He concluded, "An invitational institutional policy will enrich the lives of the staff and students, and allow us all to make a positive contribution to the community in which we live."

The second work which warrants mention is that of a Maori learning and communications skills lecturer. It has been very encouraging to see the extent to which Invitational Theory has been adapted by Maori lecturers in the course. While one person's assignment is referred to in this section, it should also be acknowledged that at least three other Maori lecturers have utilized Invitational Theory as either the only, or a strong contributing theory in their assignment work.

In the work presented in this paper the lecturer, Paulene^v, links Invitational Theory with what she terms 'kaupapa Maori theory'. She commenced with the statement that "until recently, academic developers have tended to separate learning theory from the study of indigenous experiences of education. However, in New Zealand an awareness of the ways Maori students express their learning priorities and their understanding of universities and polytechnics, is crucial to the learning and teaching process." In her essay she went on to explain how she integrates the key education theory of kaupapa Maori with European learning theo-

^{iv} Unit standards are registered on the New Zealand National Qualifications Framework and are assessed according to the competency based assessment paradigm.

^v All named DipAlt participants' work quoted with permission

ries. She defines kaupapa Maori as the philosophy and practice of "being and acting Maori", and expanded on this theory in the body of her assignment.

Moving on to consider some aspects of European learning theories, Paulene explained how Invitational Theory approaches the learning and teaching process with the aim to understand the many positive and negative aspects of kaupapa Maori theory. She indicated how she united the aroha (love, trust), hui (meeting), manaaki (hospitality) and tiaki (nurture) aspects of kaupapa Maori theory with the four key elements in Invitational Theory of trust, respect, optimism and intentionality. Furthermore, she extended the five P's of places, programmes, processes, people and policies to include partnership and protection under the Treaty of Waitangi. She explained that this approach should assist Maori who want success in both Maori and Pakeha^{vi} cultural frameworks.

Having considered the broad philosophical issues, Paulene then suggested specific ways in which lecturers working with Maori students can make their practice more inviting. She based these suggestions on ideas which have worked well for her in her own teaching context. She listed the articulation of specific learning goals; the provision of an explicit course structure; the expression of genuine interest in all student responses; the making of rigorous connections between teaching objectives and learning activities; the provision of appropriate teaching methods to meet students' learning needs; the development in students of different ways of learning; the provision of positive feedback for contributions and time spent; the setting up of peer learning groups as a means of student support; the development of resource files covering appropriate research and the encouragement of Maori and other lecturers to use these files; the learning of one's mihi^{vii} to facilitate connection and identification with other Maori teachers and learners.

^{vi} "Pakeha" is the Maori term for New Zealanders of European descent.

^{vii} Mihi is the Maori word for a speech to greet, admire, pay respect to or congratulate.

Conclusions and Challenges

Invitational theory has proven to be both accessible and easy to understand for staff and community participants studying educational theory at The Waikato Polytechnic. The course has provided a basis for participants to examine and evaluate their own practice in terms of the invitational approach. It has been used by Maori course participants to illuminate some of the practices of the Maori learning environment, and is now being regularly taught as part of the professional development of lecturing staff of the Waikato Polytechnic.

Because of the holistic nature of Invitational Theory, some of the challenges and questions it presents to a learning institution are:

- how inviting are the people, eg., caretaker, cafeteria staff, lecturers, secretaries, receptionists, lecturers...?
- how inviting are the policies, eg., entry, assessment, computer access, library use...?
- how inviting is each lecturer with course participants, eg., welcomes, coffee and tea, clear assessment schedules and requirements, comments to individuals in class, feedback on assignments...?

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Levels of Ego Development and Attitudes toward Women in Authoritative Positions among Adolescent Males: Inviting or Disinviting?

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Results from research conducted with 18-26 year-old male undergraduates in 1984 and 1995-1999 suggest that they were nonaccepting of women entering authoritative positions because they viewed women as biologically less capable than men. This pattern remained consistent across developmental levels and suggests that perceptions of biological differences between the genders continue to create an environment in which women are stereotyped.

Over the past 35 years, women's roles in society have changed significantly. These changes are particularly evident in the area of employment, as more women have assumed full time jobs and careers. Despite the increasing numbers of women in the work force, generally, those numbers have remained disproportionately low in upper-level administrative/managerial positions. Early research on women's assumption of administrative positions reflected markedly low numbers of women in upper-level positions, especially in higher education (Clement, 1977; Irvine & Robinson, 1982). These researchers reported that male attitudes toward women in authoritative positions contributed to a negative uninviting climate for women who aspired to higher-level positions. More recent research also reinforces the assertion that gender inequity exists in higher education (Hensel, 1991) and in upper-level management positions, generally (Mills and Mills, 1996; Purkey and Novak, 1996.)

In order to examine male attitudes toward women in authoritative positions, the author conducted an initial study in 1984 with undergraduate males, aged 18-26, to examine a possible relationship between their levels of ego development, according to Erikson, and attitudes toward women in authoritative positions (Cowher, 1984). Subsequent to that research, some of the same subjects were examined 10 years later, along with another group of males from 1995-1999 who were 18-26 years of age during those years. Specific research questions addressed by the study were as follows:

1. Are the sex-role attitudes of adolescent males toward women in authoritative positions similar across the developmental levels in

terms of three stereotypes: acceptance of women into authoritative positions; female-specific barriers which traditionally have been viewed as prohibitive of permanent, full-time employment; and traits deemed necessary for success in authoritative positions?

2. To what extent are these sex-role attitudes similar to those generally viewed as stereotypical at the various developmental levels?

For the purpose of this study, subjects defined as being in the throes of “late adolescence” (Cot & Levine, 1992; Muus, 1980) were chosen because of the age relevance to “typical” college undergraduates. Additionally, the literature suggests that this age range reflects a time period of greater developmental variation than any other (Browning, 1983; Cote & Levine, 1992; Muus, 1960).

Theoretically, Erikson’s work underscored the importance of psychosocial development in the creation of attitudes. As Widick, Parker, and Knefelkamp (1978) indicate, “Erikson’s is undoubtedly a psychosocial view; he places the developing person in a social context, emphasizing the fact that movement through life occurs in interaction with parents, family, social institutions, and a particular culture all of which are bounded by a particular historical period” (p.1). Because adolescence is a time of great change and growth, the role that educators assume in the development of adolescent attitudes is crucial. Or, as Rice (1999) states, “. . . students in college . . . are stimulated to rethink their ideologies” (p. 186).

In Eriksonian theory, adolescence is referred to as a “stage” during which an individual is challenged to achieve an “identity”. In describing this process, Erikson (1968) defines the ‘crisis’ of identity achievement thus, “. . . ‘crisis’ no longer connotes impending catastrophe . . . It is now being accepted as designating a necessary turning point, a crucial moment, when development must move one way or another, marshaling resources of growth, recovery, and further differentiation” (p. 16). The resolution of the adolescent’s crisis occurs when an individual makes choices about his physical, mental, sexual, and occupational identities.

In order to assess the degree to which adolescents have moved toward identity achievement, James Marcia (1975) developed a model and accompanying instrument for further differentiating steps toward identity achievement. Marcia describes two extreme levels or “statuses” reflective of resolution or nonresolution during adolescence. Resolution is presumed to be the highest status and is termed, “identity achievement”; while nonresolution is presumed to reflect the lowest status and is termed, “identity diffusion”. Two middle level statuses in Marcia’s model are “identity foreclosure” and “moratorium”. Both “foreclosure” and “moratorium” may be reflective of an individual’s progress toward “identity achievement”; however, the individual in “moratorium” is probably closer to “achievement”. In theory, the foreclosed individual is committed to goals and values, an occupation, and a personal ideology; however, “the goals he works for and the values he holds were determined for him by others” (Marcia, 1975, pp. 69-84). The moratorium adolescent, on the other hand, is in the process of searching and has not embraced an identity given him by others. The moratorium individual is in “crisis”.

Initially, the author hypothesized that an identity-achieved male adolescent would be more accepting toward women assuming authoritative positions than one who was less achieved or nonresolved. The author presumed that movement toward identity achievement would correlate positively with less stereotypical attitudes toward women in authoritative positions. It was also presumed that institutions of higher learning could facilitate or enhance (invite) that attitudinal change.

Methodology

For this study, the following operational definitions were utilized:

Developmental Levels. Participants’ levels of development were measured using the “Ego Identity Incomplete Sentence Blank” (EI-ISB). Marcia (1964) designed it according to behaviors which Erikson related to the achievement of an ego identity. As a result of a private conversation with Marcia (personal conversation, March 29, 1984) regarding this instrument, it was determined that although the instrument significantly

differentiated between the levels of achievement and identity diffusion, the middle levels were much more difficult to assess. Therefore, the author divided the initial sample (1984) into levels of high (identity-achieved), middle (moratorium and foreclosed), and low (identity-diffused). Using a normal distribution of subjects and according to research results reported on identity statuses, scores were divided as follows;

Identity Achieved = top 25% (total scores of 54+)

Moratorium and Foreclosed = middle 50% (total Scores of 45-53)

Identity Diffused = bottom 25% (44 and below)

The validity of the EI-ISB has been well-established throughout earlier research on ego development (Gold, 1980; Marcia, 1964, 1966, 1975, 1976, 1980) and more recent studies (Horst, 1998; Marcia, 1989, 1991, 1994). It provides an examination of ego identity in terms of commitment, crisis, and achievement.

Attitudes toward Women in Authoritative Positions. Attitudes toward women in authoritative positions were determined using the “Woman As Managers Scale” (WAMS) developed by Peters, Terborg, and Taynor (1974). This inventory was developed to examine reactions toward women in authoritative positions. It is comprised of items drawn from major content areas that include general descriptive behaviors of women in leadership and decision-making behaviors and traits, such as assertiveness and competitiveness. Validity and reliability are well-documented in the developers’ review (Peters, Terborg, & Taynor, 1974, p. 30).

Three specific levels of stereotype/nonreceptivity are determined by the WAMS. These are (1) acceptance of women into authoritative positions, (2) female-specific barriers traditionally viewed as prohibitive of permanent, full time employment, and (3) traits deemed necessary for success in managerial (authoritative) positions.

Procedures

Both the EI-ISB and WAMS were selected for the concepts they address and the ease of administration. Both instruments were determined to be valid during the initial study in 1984, and reliability was enhanced by consistent use of the same materials throughout subsequent administrations in 1994 and from 1995-1999.

Selection of Participants. The initial study conducted in 1984 included students who were enrolled in six psychology classes at an urban community college campus in western Pennsylvania. Participation was voluntary, and the sample was chosen due to its accessibility. All subjects were males in late adolescence, defined as those between the ages of 18 and 26 years.

All students in these classes were tested in order to eliminate any possible bias. Although 110 males and females were tested, only 43 fulfilled the criteria for selection. Of this group, approximately one-fourth (10) were of African-American descent and three-fourths (33) were Caucasian. Follow-up with the same individuals ten years later elicited responses from only five (11.6%) of the original subject pool. All of those responding were Caucasian.

An examination of the data indicated that some of Erikson's theoretical assumptions might be questioned. More specifically, although there appeared to be some support for the notion that adolescent males become less disinviting as they progress developmentally, the results did not prove to be significant.

Students from four educational psychology classes at a rural/suburban university in western Pennsylvania participated in the 1995-1999 study of adolescent males, aged 18-26. Participation was voluntary, and this subject pool was utilized due to accessibility. Although 75 males and females were tested, only 35 met the criteria for selection. Of those late-adolescent males who participated, approximately one-eighth (N=4) were of African-American descent, while seven-eighths (N=31) were Caucasian. Instrumentation and scoring remained consistent for all subjects.

Data Analyses

Correlational analyses were performed on data resulting from the two testing instruments. Developmental levels (high, middle, low), as ascertained by scores on the EI-ISB, were correlated with overall scores and three specific factors on the WAMS (acceptance of women into authoritative positions; female-specific barriers traditionally viewed as prohibitive of permanent, full time employment; and traits deemed necessary for success in authoritative positions).

Additionally, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure was used to identify any significant differences among the means of scores between subjects at each developmental level in relation to the three factors measured by the WAMS, as well as within subjects in relation to the three factors on the WAMS, regardless of developmental level. Scheffe's post hoc comparisons were performed in order to determine which factors were significantly different.

Results

Men Tested in 1984 (in 1984). In order to examine the relationship between ego development and attitudes toward women in authoritative positions, Pearson Product Moment correlations were computed between scores on the EI-ISB and those resulting from the WAMS. Three specific levels (factors) of stereotypes were examined, as well as overall sexism scores (Table 1). An Analysis of Variance procedure (ANOVA) was conducted in order to examine any significant differences among the mean scores of participants at each developmental level on the three factors measured by the WAMS. Scheffe's post hoc comparisons were performed when the analysis was significant in order to examine at which levels the factors differed. Means are reported in Table 2.

Mean scores (H=5.34, M=5.31, L=4.71) for students regarding the acceptance of gender differences as they progressed developmentally did not prove to be significant. The same trend appeared in the areas of Acceptance of Women into Authoritative Positions (Mean scores: H=5.79, M=5.72, L=5.27) and Female-Specific Barriers (Mean scores: H=4.70,

M=4.52, L=3.88). Again, none of the differences between students proved to be significant. (See Table 3.)

Although differences among the means between subjects did not prove to be significant, those among the means within subjects did prove to be significant. This would indicate that student mean scores on the three factors measured by the WAMS were significantly different. Scheffe's post hoc comparisons indicated that students, overall, were less accepting in the area of Female Specific Barriers (Factor 2) than they were in either of the other two categories, regardless of developmental level.

Table 1
 Correlations between Ego Development and Attitudes toward Women in Authoritative Positions

	(Factor 1) Acceptance of Women in Authoritative Positions	(Factor 2) Female-Specific Bar- riers	(Factor 3) Traits Necessary for Success	Composite
1984 Men (in 1984)	0.12 (N=42)	0.11 (N=43)	0.15 (N=43)	0.14 (N=42)
1984 Men (in 1984)	0.46 (N=5)	[-0.49] (N=5)	0.81 (N=5)	0.21 (N=5)
1995-1999 Men	0.27 (N=34)	0.39 (N=34)	0.09 (N=34)	0.31 (N=34)
1984 (in 1994) & 1995-1999 Men	0.28 (N=39)	0.23 (N=39)	0.24 (N=39)	0.34 (N=39)

Table 2
Mean Scores by Developmental Level and WAMS Factors

Level of Development and Group	(Factor 1) Acceptance of Women in Authoritative Positions	(Factor 2) Female-Specific Barriers	(Factor 3) Traits Necessary for Success
High: 1984 Men (in 1984)	5.79 (N=12)	4.70 (N=12)	5.53 (N=12)
Middle: 1984 Men (in 1984)	5.72 (N=72)	4.52 (N=20)	5.71 (N=20)
Low: 1984 Men (in 1984)	5.27 (N=10)	3.88 (N=10)	5.00 (N=10)
High: 1995-1999 Men	5.48 (N=10)	5.22 (N=10)	5.84 (N=10)
Middle: 1995-1999 Men	4.62 (N=22)	4.26 (N=22)	5.51 (N=22)
Low: 1995-1999 Men	3.50 (N=2)	3.40 (N=2)	5.50 (N=2)

Table 3
Analysis of Variance for 1984 Men (in 1984)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F-Ratio
Between	8.43	2	4.22	1.58
Within	33.78	2	16.89	25.20*

*p<.05

Men from 1984 Tested in 1994. Pearson Product Moment Correlations were computed between subjects' scores on the EI-ISB, the three factors measured by the WAMS, and overall scores from the WAMS (Table 1). Although the small sample size (N=5) should be considered, a high positive correlation (0.81) was found between all participant scores on the EI-ISB and Factor 3 (Traits Necessary for Success) on the WAMS. This would indicate that a relationship exists between participants' levels of identity achievement and perceptions of women as possessing the traits necessary for success in authoritative positions. On the other hand, the negative correlation (-0.49) found between participant scores on the EI-ISB and Factor 2 (Female-Specific Barriers) may suggest that the higher the level of development, the less accepting men become toward women in authoritative positions due to biological differences.

Two patterns emerged. First, all EI-ISB and WAMS factors were strongly correlated in a positive direction, except for one. Second, the exception to the trend among participant scores toward increasing acceptance of women into authoritative positions based on level of identity achievement was Factor 2 (Female-Specific Barriers). In this case, a strong negative correlation emerged, indicating that participants reported less acceptance of women as they (men) progressed toward identity achievement (Table 4). An Analysis of Variance using EI-ISB and WAMS factors indicated that participants scored significantly lower on Factor 2 of the WAMS (Female-Specific Barriers) than on the other two Factors (Table 5).

Subject scores from 1984 and 1994 were also compared for similarities and differences, using Pearson Product Moment Correlations conducted with their scores on the EI-ISB from 1984 and 1994 and on the WAMS from 1984 and 1994 (Table 6). Although the correlation between original participant scores from 1984 and 1994 on the EI-ISB was not significant (.03), the correlation between men's scores from 1984 and 1994 on the WAMS was significant (0.84). The positive correlation between the 1984 and 1994 WAMS scores suggests that scoring patterns did not change significantly between administrations. Although the low correlation between participants' EI-ISB scores from 1984 and 1994 might suggest that scoring patterns had changed, an Analysis of Variance procedure did not prove any significance.

Men from 1995-1999. Pearson Product Moment correlations were computed with all participant scores on the EI-ISB and WAMS. These results did not prove significantly different from zero. An Analysis of

Variance procedure was conducted on data from men in 1995-1999, with participants divided by level of ego development. Although there was a trend among subject mean scores in the direction of more acceptance of women in authoritative positions based on level of ego development (Table 2), these results did not prove significant. An Analysis of Variance procedure conducted with student means from the WAMS proved statistically significant (Table 7). Results indicated that mean scores among the groups (levels of ego development) were lower on Factor 2 (Female-Specific Barriers).

An Analysis of Variance procedure was also conducted with data from the WAMS, specifically examining the ego development levels characterized for study as “High” (Identity-Achieved) and “Middle (including Moratorium and Identity-Foreclosed). The ANOVA conducted with Middle Level students’ mean scores on the WAMS indicated that they scored lower on Female-Specific Barriers (Table 8). On the other hand, no significance was indicated by an ANOVA conducted with High Level subjects.

Finally, student scores from 1995-1999 were correlated with original subject scores in 1994. Both EI-ISB and WAMS scores were examined. Pearson Product Moment correlations of 1.0 resulted from both a comparison of the original subject EI-ISB scores in 1994 and those from the 1995-1999 group; as well as a comparison of the original subject WAMS scores in 1994 and those from the 1995-1999 group.

Table 4
Correlations by Developmental Level and WAMS Factors

Level of Development and Group	Number of Responses	(Factor 1) Acceptance of Women	(Factor 2) Female-Specific Bar- riers	(Factor 3) Traits Necessary for Success
High: 1984 Men (in 1994)	3	1.00*	-0.72	0.87*
1995-1999 Men	10	0.28	0.44	0.06
1984 Men (in 1984) & 1995-1999 Men	13	0.29	0.20	0.37
Middle: 1984 Men (in 1994)	2	1.00*	1.00*	1.00*
1995-1999 Men	22	0.01	-0.01	-0.08
1984 Men (in 1984) & 1995-1999 Men	24	-0.04	-0.09	-0.13

* Denotes High Correlation

Table 5
Analysis of Variance for 1984 Men (1984)

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F-Ratio
Between	2.95	2	1.47	
Within	3.63	12	0	4.87*

*p<.05

Table 6
Correlations Between Scores for 1984 Men (in 1984) and 1984 Men (in 1994) on WAMS and EI-ISB

1984 Men (in 1984) & 1984 (in 1994) WAMS:	0.84
1984 Men (in 1984) & 1984 (in 1994) EI-ISB:	0.03

Table 7
Analysis of Variance for 1995-1999 Men

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F-Ratio
Between	23.3	2	11.65	6.60*
Within	174.84	99	1.77	

*p<.05

Table 8
Analysis of Variance for Middle Level 1995-1999 Men

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	d.f.	Mean Square	F-Ratio
Between	18.08	2	9.04	5.17*
Within	110.09	63	1.75	

*p<.05

Discussion

Erikson's Developmental Model. Although the author had hypothesized that adolescent males would become more accepting of women in authoritative positions as they progressed developmentally, the data did not support this hypothesis. Similar results were reported throughout the various phases of the study, including analyses with subjects from 1984 (in 1984) and with participants from 1995-1999. A negative correlation between level of ego development and Female-Specific Barriers was indicated.

Generally, it appears that all subjects reported consistently stereotypic and nonaccepting views of women in authoritative positions, scoring significantly lower on attitude surveys in the area of female-specific barriers. This trend remained consistent at all developmental levels.

Specific Attitudes toward Women in Authoritative Positions. There are many indications in Eriksonian theory that accepting attitudes toward women will increase as an adolescent progresses developmentally. Significant results were also obtained, however, in regard to scoring patterns on the WAMS across samples. Participants indicated less acceptance of women in authoritative positions, based on female-specific barriers. This pattern held true for all developmental levels.

Considerations. Authors, such as Burnett, Anderson, and Heppner (1998), suggest that factors, other than Erikson's model of identity achievement, should be considered. If higher education aspires to facilitate increasing acceptance of women into authoritative positions, it appears that Erikson's model may have limited application. Purkey (2000) also describes these limitations in his reflections on inviting/disinviting environments.

Another interesting observation in regard to data collected from subjects in 1995-1999 related to the question of Erikson's "crisis". Subjects at the middle level scored significantly lower in the area of female-specific barriers on the WAMS than subjects at either the high or low levels of identity achievement, although results from men retested in 1994 indicated more stereotypic views of women as they (participants) became identity-achieved. These results may suggest that nonacceptance is "peaking" during the "middle level" and, perhaps, solidifying at the point of identity achievement/resolution. If the middle level represents Erikson's point of "crisis"

where the individual is making psychosocial choices, these results underscore the important role that higher education plays in countering the "...stereotypical and maladaptive messages (sent) to girls in unintentional but subtle ways..." (Pajares and Zeldin, 1999, p. 62) that emerge during late adolescence.

Finally, men at the high level of ego development did evidence some higher (mean) score "trends" among all those tested, especially in the 1995-1999 group. Since these students were at the high level of development, according to Marcia's EI-ISB, (commitment) subscores on the EI-ISB could highlight factors critical for the development of more accepting attitudes. For example, analyses of data from (commitment) subscores could result in an examination of other developmental factors that are critical for acceptance. Studies, such as those conducted by Carlson and Carlson (1985) and Kroger and Haslett (1991), suggest that examining Marcia's subscores may provide insight into identity achievement. Kroger and Haslett affirm that, "Developments across identity components are not parallel..." (p. 323).

Implications for the Future. The author proposes that although Erikson's model may reflect contemporary issues in higher education, it is either incomplete or inappropriate for an organizational culture that espouses enhanced acceptance. In fact, utilizing this model with late adolescents may relay messages to both men and women that exacerbate gender stereotypes and further limit occupational opportunities for women. If Erikson's model presumes that students can be "identity-achieved/resolved" through either the maintenance of nonaccepting attitudes or exacerbation of nonaccepting, gender-biased attitudes toward women, then it should be viewed as limited or inappropriate. Certainly, it cannot be viewed as inviting.

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