This dissertation has been microfilmed exactly as received 68-14,201

HARRIS, Evans Howell, 1925-LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS.

The second s

The University of Oklahoma, Ed.D., 1968 Education, administration

University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan

C ____ EVANS_HOWELL HARRIS 1968

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

. .

۱

.

. .

.

. - **2**

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE. FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

EVANS HOWELL HARRIS

Norman, Oklahoma

LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

APPRO reas DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer is indeed indebted to Dr. Oliver D. Johns for the cooperation, support, encouragement, and guidance amply provided at successive stages of the development of the investigation.

To the members of the committee, Dr. Herbert Hengst, Dr. Jack F. Parker, and Dr. Glenn R. Snider, the writer expresses deep gratitude for their appraisals and helpful suggestions. To Dr. George Henderson, thanks are extended for his counsel regarding one of the instruments used in the study.

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to Mrs. Thelma P. Thompson for her assistance in proofreading the manuscript. To Mrs. Helen Massey and Mrs. Janet Wright, the writer expresses sincere appreciation for their understanding assistance in helping him to stay on schedule.

The gratitude of the writer is generous in regard to the encouragement provided by his wife, Ann H. Harris. To his daughters Betty Jean, Linda, and Patricia for the technical assistance provided and for the inspiration and cooperation extended during the writing of this report, heartfelt thanks are expressed.

iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1

		Page
ACKNOWL	EDGEMENTS	iii
LIST OF	TABLES	vi
LIST OF	FIGURES	vii
Chapter		
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Origin of the Study The Principal as a Group Leader Purpose of the Study Statement of the Problem Type, Frequency, and Effectiveness of Leadership Limitations of the Problem Definition of Terms Value of the Study Method and Procedure for the Study Organization of the Study	
II.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	20
III.	PROCEDURE	44
<u> </u>	Sample Selection of Respondents Description of the Instrument Definition of the Subscales Theoretical Model	

~

. ..

iv

	Reliability of the Subscales The Testing Procedure Scoring the Questionnaire Compensatory Education Questionnaire	i age
IV.	FINDINGS	56
	Differences Between "High" and "Low" Compensatory Principals Within Each Group Frequency of Leader Behavior Staff Member Description	
	Type and Effectiveness	
	"t" Test for the Difference Between Means	
	Summary	
v.	SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND OBSERVATIONS	79
BIBLIOG	RAPHY	88
APPENDI	IXES	93
	Appendix A Appendix B Appendix C Appendix D Appendix E Appendix F Appendix G Appendix H	

.

Page

LIST OF TABLES

.

Table	and the second	Page
1.	Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Results of Staff Members' Description of "High and Low Compensative" Principals	58
2.	One-Way Analysis of Variance Comparing "High Compensative" Principals with "Low Compensative" Principals on All Dimensions.	62
3.	F-Ratio Comparing Variability of "High Compensative" Principals with Variability of "Low Compensative" Principals	63

LIST OF FIGURES

-

Figure													Page
1.	Model	of	Leader	Behavior	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	53

¢ .

LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Origin of the Study

American educators are becoming more acutely aware of the special educational needs of the nation's disadvantaged youth. This awareness has led to the development of numerous new programs which have been funded in varying degrees by foundations, the states, and the federal government. Hence, it is reasonable to anticipate phenomenal growth in the number and variety of compensatory educational programs over the next few years. Compensatory education is essential if our educational system is to make good its promise to provide equality of opportunity for all children.

It has been argued that the uniqueness of education in the United States has been its diversity. We have encouraged the kind of local initiative that is lacking, for example, in the French or in the Italian systems. Educational diversity has, however, some unfavorable consequences. For instance, diversity has left many districts economically unable to finance strong educational programs

even when foresight and commitment were evident. Too often the "light house" districts have been primarily the result of concentrations of wealth in small districts with little effect on their neighbors. If there have been concentrations of wealth, there have also been concentrations of poverty.¹

If "equality of quality" in education is to have meaning, it must apply to the poor as well as to the rich, to the Negro as well as to the white, to the bright as well as to the dull. It must apply to every student without regard to the community in which he happens to live.²

Compensatory educational programs can help to overcome the effects of poverty on schooling, but not the effects of segregation. The effects of racial segregation are so damaging that they cannot be counterbalanced by compensatory educational programs alone. In spite of the very slow pace of desegregation in Georgia and the quality of educational opportunities available to minority groups, the writer thinks that compensatory educational programs could help more minority group students to receive a better quality of education.

Some educators believe that the administrator's behavior has a tremendous influence on the kinds of

¹Francis Keppel, <u>The Necessary Revolution in</u> <u>Education</u> (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1966), pp. 75-76.

²<u>Ibid</u>., p. 76.

programs found in schools. The principal who wishes to encourage the development of equality of educational opportunities for culturally deprived children must be concerned with compensatory education.

As long as there was ample opportunity in the economy for unskilled workers with a minimum of education, the thought and energy of educators could be directed to the continual weeding out of the scholastically less able and the selection of the more able to get more education and specialization. The lives and careers adversely affected by this selection process have not until recently been a central concern of school people.

Havighurst reminds us that up to 1920 more than half of all boys regularly dropped out of high school, and a good proportion of them went to work. Prior to 1900, the number of ninth graders who did not finish high school was 93 or 94 out of every one hundred. This was not deemed strange or alarming or a failure of the system. It was the nature of things. Today the dropout rate is more than one-third. We are alarmed, for society has changed and the work prospects for youth are entirely different from what they once were.³

Employment opportunities available to youth are a key to the total educational program for culturally

³Ivor Kraft, "The Coming Crisis in Secondary Education," <u>The Bulletin of the National Association of</u> <u>Secondary School Principals, XL (February, 1965),pp. 20-21.</u>

disadvantaged youth. It is easy to predict, for example, what will happen to the category of unskilled labor. If we base our predictions on U. S. Labor Department calculations, we can surmise that even if there are 100 million jobs available in this country by 1970, only 5 million of them will be of the unskilled variety. By 1975 this rate will probably fall considerably below 5 percent. There will not be 100 million jobs open by 1970; there will be considerably more than 5 million people without marketable skills. In this decade alone there will be at least 7½ million dropouts.⁴

The culturally disadvantaged have a unique problem in that a very high percentage of these youth fall into what Havighurst calls a "tragic group" of 8 or 10 percent of the nation's youth who are defeated and whose rehabilitation or salvation requires radical effort.

In a recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission, Fischer stresses that teachers must be alerted to cultural differences and must learn ways to help Negro children to overcome "the disabling scars of the culture in which they were nutured."⁵

Fischer also raises the important issue of offering compensatory opportunities for underprivileged Negro children. He suggests that we may have to consider providing

> ⁴<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 22. ⁵<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 7.

lower student-teacher ratios, more guidance programs, and improved physical plants.

Educators who serve children in the low-income areas of the country now realize that a major reason that their children do not succeed is a lack of proper food and clothing. They have learned primarily through the successes of the Office of Economic Opportunity's Headstart programs of the necessity for special enrichment, cultural, and recreational activities to help fill the large vacuum in their students' lives. New programs also are being geared to overcome the social and emotional inadequacies that are partially responsible for the failure of these children.⁶

This study was concerned with both a description of the behavior of the principal as perceived by his workgroup and with a separate evaluation of the "effectiveness" of his leadership behavior according to a specified criterion. Accordingly, the inquiry was limited to aspects of group operation and was concerned with what Halpin calls the central psychological characteristics of leader behavior: "that is, the behavior of a leader functioning vis-a-vis members of a group in an endeavor to facilitate the solution of group problems."⁷ Within this context,

⁶A Chance for a Chance: New School Programs for the Disadvantaged (U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Title I), p. iv.

⁽Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u>tration. (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 81.

the writer was primarily concerned with describing the leader's behavior in psychologically meaningful dimensions and in utilizing these dimensions as "intermediate" criteria for evaluating the "effectiveness" of his leadership as it related to compensatory educational programs in his school.

The Principal as a Group Leader

The principal, as a group leader, is committed to two fundamental group goals:

- Group achievement: measured in respect to how well the group accomplishes the group task.
- 2. Group maintenance: measured by the extent to which the group remains intact as a group. This may be gauged in terms of morale, cooperation among group members in working with one another, and other indices of job satisfaction.

Halpin states that it is not enough to identify these group objectives--the leader behaviors associated with the accomplishment of these objectives must also be delineated.⁹ Fortunately, this has been done. Out of the work of the personnel research board at Ohio State University have come twelve dimensions of leadership which have been widely accepted as basic for describing leadership behavior. These dimensions are as follows: (1) Representation, (2) Demand Reconciliation, (3) Tolerance of

⁸Ibid., p. 37. ⁹Ibid., p. 38.

Uncertainty, (4) Persuasiveness, (5) Initiation of Structure, (6) Tolerance of Freedom, (7) Role Assumption, (8) Consideration, (9) Production Emphasis, (10) Predictive Accuracy, (11) Integration, and (12) Superior Orientation. These dimensions are defined as follows:

- 1. <u>Representation</u> refers to the leader's behavior in speaking and acting as the representative of the group.
- 2. Demand Reconciliation reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system.
- 3. <u>Tolerance of Uncertainty</u>--is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.
- 4. <u>Persuasiveness</u>--uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions.
- 5. <u>Initiation of Structure</u>--clearly defines own role and endeavors to establish welldefined patterns of organization, channels of communication and methods of procedure.
- 6. <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u>--allows followers scope for initiative, decisions, and action.
- 7. Role Assumption--actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
- 8. <u>Consideration</u>--regards the comfort, wellbeing, status, and contributions of followers.
- 9. <u>Production Emphasis</u>--applies pressure for productive output.
- 10. <u>Predictive Accuracy</u>--exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.
- 11. <u>Integration</u>--maintains a closely knit organization; resolves inter-member conflicts.

12. Superior Orientation--maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status.

These twelve dimensions were delineated by Stogdill.¹¹ A.survey of a large body of research data that supported that theory suggested that a number of variables operate in the differentiation of roles in a social group. Form XII represents the fourth revision of the questionnaire.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to discover if there is an identifiable relationship in the leadership behavior of principals in schools having extensive compensatory programs and principals of schools having few or insignificant numbers of such programs.

Statement of the Problem

The problem may be stated in the form of a question: Does the leader behavior of principals of schools having extensive compensatory programs differ significantly from the leadership behavior of principals of schools having few or insignificant numbers of such programs? The following null hypotheses were tested:

¹⁰Ralph M. Stogdill, <u>Manual for the Leader Behavior</u> <u>Description Questionnaire--Form XII</u>, Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University (Columbus, Ohio: 1963), p. 3.

¹¹<u>Ibid</u>., p. 4.

HO₁ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Consideration" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs and those with limited compensatory programs.

HO₂ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Representation" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₃ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Demand Reconciliation" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₄ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Tolerance of Uncertainty" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₅ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Persuasiveness" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₆ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Initiation of Structure" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive

compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₇ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Tolerance of Freedom" between the leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₈ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Role Assumption" between leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₉ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Production Emphasis" between leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₁₀ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Predictive Accuracy" between leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₁₁ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Integration" between leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₁₂ There is no significant difference in the leadership dimension of "Superior Orientation" between leader behavior of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

HO₁₃ There is no significant difference in the leader behavior, as measured by the LBDQ Form XII and expressed by the index score, of school principals with extensive compensatory programs in their schools and those with limited compensatory programs in their schools.

Type, Frequency and Effectiveness of Leadership

Anderson and Brown's model of leader behavior was utilized to conceptualize the type of leadership exhibited, the frequency of leader behaviors, and effectiveness of these behaviors as perceived by staff members. (See Appendix G.)

This model was used in order to more clearly understand and interpret the mean scores on the LBDQ-XII. The theoretical model is shown in Chapter III (page 53).

Limitations of the Problem

The study was confined to Negro schools in the state of Georgia. Inquiries were limited to principals and teachers who had been employed in the same system for at least two years. The study was limited to schools with grades from one through twelve.

0-

The problem of analyzing human choices and motives is very complex, for often the individual is not fully aware of the influences which condition his decisions. The real reason for what he does may consciously or unconsciously be suppressed. The reliability of the type of data used in this study should not be accepted as absolute, for it is limited to opinions which may be used to compare by the "more or less" type of judgment. For example, each item describes a specific kind of behavior but does not ask the respondent to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Its only purpose is to make it possible for the respondent to describe, as accurately as possible, the behavior of his principal.

The school officials and the respondents were promised anonymity, and that all information of a personal nature would be kept confidential. It is reasonable to believe that the information given was accurate and valid.

Definition of Terms

1. <u>Principal</u> is the administrator for the entire building for both elementary and high school.

2. <u>Culturally disadvantaged child</u> is one who has not been exposed to the educational, cultural, and environmental stimuli which will enable him to attain maximum potential growth.

3. <u>Compensatory programs</u> are those designed to help disadvantaged children overcome certain accumulated deficits.

4. Leader behavior refers to the role of the principal and the behavior of the person in this role.

5. <u>Leadership</u> is concerned with a separate evaluation of a person's performance in his role of principal, as evaluated by his staff.

6. <u>System-Oriented Leadership</u> is behavior as described on the LBDQ-XII that responds chiefly to the needs of the school as a personalized system with its own goals, themes, and institutional existence.

7. <u>Transactional Leadership</u> is behavior that responds chiefly to the need for effective interaction between the institution and the person.

8. <u>Person-Oriented Leadership</u> is behavior that responds chiefly to the idiosyncratic personal and professional needs of fellow workers on the staff.

9. <u>Effective Leadership</u> is defined as leader behavior which, when evaluated by staff members, yields high mean scores on the dimensions of the LBDQ-XII instrument.

10. <u>Staff-member</u> is an immediate member of the principal's staff, i.e., an assistant principal, a counselor, or a teacher.

11. <u>Work-group</u> includes staff members of a given school.

12. <u>High compensative principal</u> is a principal who has from 21 to 30 compensatory programs in his school.

13. Low compensative principal is a principal who has from 0 to 20 compensatory programs in his school.

Value of the Study

The society of the South is bi-racial. The very slow pace of integration in public education would indicate a very strong need for compensatory education for deprived children. According to Coleman:

> The great majority of American children attend schools that are largely segregated; that is, where almost all of their fellow students are of the same racial background as they are. Among minority groups, 12 Negroes are by far the most segregated.

Assuming that the transition to effective integration will take a long time, it becomes imperative to do some upgrading in the segregated schools. Educators and social scientists have produced a large body of evidence documenting the conclusion that racial separation has powerful and injurious impact on the self-image, confidence, motivation, and the school achievement of Negro children.¹³ Compensatory education programs can help to overcome the effects of poverty on schooling, but not the effects of segregation. The effects of racial segregation are so damaging that they cannot be counterbalanced by compensatory education programs alone.

¹²James S. Coleman, <u>Equality of Educational Oppor-</u> <u>tunity</u>, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, <u>Office of Education (Washington: U. S. Government Printing</u> Office, 1966), p. 3.

¹³Because It Is Right--Educationally (Report of the Advisory Committee on Racial Imbalance and Education, April, 1965), p. 2.

Important information that may help school administrators with their programs may be available through this study. This information should help administrators to understand their teachers more fully. This study should help administrators to understand the importance of -influencing their faculties to work effectively with culturally deprived children.

In the conduct of public education, school officials are faced with many problems, among which are (1) meeting the needs of divergent student bodies, (2) obtaining the continuous and adequate financial and moral support of the public. In order to accomplish these purposes, administrators, teachers, and the public must understand the complexities of the problems that are involved in attempting to provide quality educational opportunities.

This study will focus attention on the need to help increasing numbers of young people living in severely disadvantaged areas of our society to realize their educational potential. Many of these youngsters are discouraged almost before they begin and drop out of school. Many quit school as early as it is legally possible, swelling the numbers of unproductive citizens.

The weight of this problem falls heavily upon school administrators who must be brought to the realization of its full scope and implication and, to an awareness of the responsibility which schools carry for developing academic and citizenship skills and attitudes for our

culturally deprived children as well as for middle-class children.

If this study shows that there are identifiable differences in the characteristics of principals of schools with extensive compensatory programs and those with minimal compensatory programs, boards of education may be able to do a more effective job of evaluating principals and selecting principals to fill key positions. It may also suggest better ways of attacking the problem of inservice programs for principals, and have implications for further research.

Method and Procedure for the Study

The method employed was primarily the normative survey. The data was obtained from persons concerned through: (1) Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII, and (2) a questionnaire to determine the number of compensatory programs in the schools studied. The latter questionnaire consisted of statements to be answered categorically as "yes" or "no." It was a forced choice type of questionnaire. The style of the questionnaire was original and was designed to satisfy the criteria or precepts of question writing established by Kerlinger.¹⁴

¹⁴Fred N. Kerlinger, <u>Foundations of Behavioral</u> <u>Research</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1966), pp. 473-474.

The LBDQ grew out of work initiated by Hemphill.¹⁵ Further development of the scales by the staff of the Ohio State Leadership Studies has been described by Hemphill and Coons.¹⁶ Shartle has outlined the theoretical considerations underlying the descriptive method. He observed that "when the Ohio State Leadership Studies were initiated in 1945, no satisfactory theory or definition of leadership was available."¹⁷ It was subsequently found in empirical research that a large number of hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior could be reduced to two strongly defined factors. These were identified by Halpin and Winer¹⁸ and Fleishman as "consideration" and "initiation of structure."

It has not seemed reasonable to believe that the two factors were sufficient to account for all the observable variance in leader behavior. A new theory of role

¹⁵J. K. Hemphill, <u>Situational Factors in Leader</u>-<u>ship</u> (Columbus: The Ohio State University Bureau of Educational Research, Monograph No. 32, 1949), p. 24.

¹⁶J. K. Hemphill and A. E. Coons, <u>Development of</u> the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, in R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons (eds.), <u>Leader Behavior:</u> <u>Its Description and Measurement</u> (Columbus: The Ohio State State University Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957), pp. 47-48.

¹⁷C. L. Shartle, "Introduction," in R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons (eds.), Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement (Columbus: The Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957), p. 4.

¹⁸A. W. Halpin and B. J. Winer, "A Factorial Study of Leader Behavior Descriptions," in R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons (eds.), <u>Leader Behavior: Its Description</u> <u>and Measurement</u> (Columbus: The Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957). differentiation and group achievement by Stogdill¹⁹ and the survey of a large body of research data supported a theory that suggested that a number of variables operate in the differentiation of roles in social groups. Possible factors suggested by the theory were the following: tolerance of member freedom of action, predictive accuracy, integration of the group, and reconciliation of conflicting demands. Possible new factors suggested by the results of empirical research were the following: representation of group interests, role assumption, production emphasis, and orientation toward superiors.

Other procedures of the study included the following:

1. Administrative permission was obtained from the proper school officials. (Appendix A)

2. The questionnaire was administered to graduate Education students at the University of Oklahoma as a pilot study to test its suitability.

3. The preliminary questionnaire was mailed to approximately 110 schools. Each questionnaire consisted of 38 questions which could be answered by responding "yes" or "no."

4. The data were tabulated and summarized. The 15 schools with the greatest number of compensatory programs and the 15 schools with the least number were identified.

¹⁹R. M. Stogdill, <u>Individual Behavior and Group</u> <u>Achievement</u> (New York: Oxford University Press, 1959), p. 94.

5. A sample of 5 respondents was drawn from each school faculty. Under the general rules of sampling, attention is called to the need to draw the sample from a cross section of the faculty. Each member was assured an equal chance of being selected.

6. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII was administered to 150 respondents, 5 teachers in each of the 30 schools. The investigator went to each of the schools to administer the instrument.

7. The data obtained through the questionnaire were tabulated.

8. The "t"-test was used in analyzing the significance of difference in opinions among the respondents.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I presented the origin of the study, purpose of the study, statement of the problem, limitations of the problem, definition of terms, value of the study, method and procedure, and other information related to the study. Chapter II will give a review of literature related to the study. A description of the instrument, accompanied by a detailed account of the procedures used in collecting and treating the data, will be presented in Chapter III. Presentation and analysis of the findings will be made in Chapter IV. In Chapter V, a summary of the study, conclusions based on the findings of the study, observations, recommendations, and suggestions for further research will be made.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The trend toward a rising educational level of the Negro population is of tremendous importance for relations between Negroes and whites. Education means an assimilation of white American culture. It decreases the dissimilarity of Negroes from other Americans. Since American education is permeated by democratic values, and since the caste relation is anything but democratic, education is likely to increase dissatisfaction among Negroes. Increasing education provides theories and tools for the rising Negro protest against caste. It also trains and helps to give an economic livelihood to Negro leaders.¹

The American Creed permeates instruction. Negro as well as white youths are encouraged in the traditional American virtues of efficiency, thrift, and ambition. The American dream of individual success is held out to the Negroes as to other students. But employment opportunities and, to a lesser extent, some other good things of life,

¹Arnold Rose, <u>The Negro in America</u> (New York: Harper Torchbooks, The University Library, Harper and Row Publishers, 1964), p. 280.

are closed to them so that severe conflicts in their minds are bound to appear.²

Rose indicates that the school situation is more complicated in the South.³ The Negro schools are segregated, and the Negro school system is controlled by different groups with different interests and opinions concerning the desirability of preserving or changing the caste status of Negroes. Segregated Negro schools, in the main, have been preserved by whites representing the political power of the region. In this setting, it is natural that the Negro school adheres rather closely to the accommodating pattern.

Negro teachers on all levels are dependent on white community leaders. This dependence is particularly strong in the case of elementary school teachers in rural districts. Their salaries are low and they have little security. They can be used to spread the whites' expectations and demands through the Negro community. But their extreme dependence and poverty, and the existence of better-off and more independent Negroes, excludes them from having any leadership status in the Negro community. In so far as their teaching is concerned, they are more independent than it appears simply because the white

²<u>Ibid</u>., p. 280.

³Arnold Rose, <u>The Negro in America</u> (New York: Harper Torchbooks, The University Library, Harper and Row Publishers, 1964), p. 280

superintendent and the white school board ordinarily care little about what goes on at the Negro school. As long as Negro stool pigeons do not report that she puts wrong ideas into the children's heads, the rural Negro school teacher is ignored.⁴

If the Negro principal must serve as a spokesman for the Negro community and, in addition, fill the major leadership role of his building, is he in fact handicapped in his leadership role? It has often been said that most of the significant improvements and challenging practices in education are developed through the exercise of leadership at the building level. The school program, therefore, often develops or remains stagnant in relationship to the compentence and influence of the principal.

The subject of leadership has been pursued by a number of investigators and writers. There are numerous studies of leadership behavior which vary widely in both content and scope. An examination of writing and of the results of investigative attempts to clarify problems associated with leadership behavior demonstrates the need for further investigation.

How Leaders Behave

Halpin makes a distinction between "leader behavior" and "leadership," stating that this distinction is necessary in view of the fact that the most frequent description of

⁴<u>Ibid</u>., pp. 280-281.

the school administrator is that of "leader."

This dilemma of definition emerges from the fact that we have incorporated into the term "leadership" both descriptive and evaluative components, and have this burdened this single word (and the concept it represents) with two connotations: one refers to a role and the behavior of a person in this role, and the other is the evaluation of the individual's performance in the role.⁵

The concept of leadership as administrator behavior avoids this definitional dilemma. This concept, according to Halpin:

> . . . First of all, focuses upon observed behavior rather than upon a posited capacity inferred from this behavior. No presuppositions are made about a one to one relationship between leader behavior and an underlying capacity or potentiality presumably determinative of this behavior. By the same token, no a priori assumptions are made that the leader behavior which a leader exhibits in one situation will be manifested in other group situations . . . Nor does the term leader behavior suggest that this behavior is determined either innately or situationally. Either determinant is possible, as is any combination of the two, but the concept of leader behavior does not itself predispose us $to_{\mathcal{L}}$ accept one in opposition to the other.

With attention focused upon behavior rather than capacity, there is greater promise of the possibility of training individuals in specified forms of leader behavior.

⁵Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u>-<u>tration</u> (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 82.

⁶Andrew W. Halpin, <u>The Leadership Behavior of</u> <u>School Superintendents</u> (Columbus: College of Education, <u>The Ohio State University</u>, 1956), p. 12. Changes in behavior can presumably be induced through appropriate training, but the concept of capacity, by definition, implies a fixed level of ability and hence thrusts the burden of personnel determination upon selection, not training.

Stogdill⁷ has shown that the trait approach to leadership, as it has been used in most studies reported in the literature, has yielded negligible, and often contradictory, results.

Sanford has aptly summarized the situation:

From all these studies of the leader we can conclude, with reasonable certainty, that:

- (a) there are either no general leadership traits or, if they do exist, they are not described in any of our familiar psychological or common sense terms.
- (b) in a specific situation, leaders do have traits which set them apart from followers, but what traits set what leaders apart from what followers will vary from situation to situation.

⁷Ralph M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of Literature," Journal of <u>Psychology</u>, No. 25 (1948), pp. 35-71 (cited by) Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Administration</u> (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 83.

⁸Fillmore H. Sanford, "Research on Military Leadership," in John C. Flanagan (ed.), <u>Psychology in the</u> <u>World Emergency</u> (Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh <u>Press, 1952), p. 51, (quoted) Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and</u> <u>Research in Administration</u> (New York: The Macmillan <u>Company, 1966), p. 83.</u>

Halpin⁹ further states that the behavior of leaders varies widely from one leadership situation to another. In this connection. Hemphill¹⁰ in an elaborate and careful study of approximately 500 assorted groups has demonstrated empirically that variance in leader behavior is significantly associated with situational variance. For example, let us consider the size of the group as a situational determinative. Hemphill has analyzed in detail the relation between the leader's behavior and the size of the group and has concluded that, as compared with small groups, large groups make more and difficult demands upon the leader. In general, the leader in a large group tends to be impersonal and is inclined to enforce rules and regulations firmly and impartially. In smaller groups, the leader plays a more personal role.

Hemphill and his co-workers¹¹ have conducted a series of experiments on small groups in order to determine the relationship between (1) "need achievement and need affiliation," and (2) the frequency with which group members attempt leadership acts. With the accumulation of a fund of experimental evidence in this area, the new theories of leadership that are generated probably will incorporate

> ⁹<u>Ibid</u>., p. 83. ¹⁰<u>Ibid</u>., p. 83.

¹¹John K. Hemphill, et al., Leadership Acts I: An Investigation of the Relationship between Possession of Task Relevant Information and Attempts (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1954), pp. 81-82.

ideas which, at least superficially, will resemble those that are characterized in the original trait approach. The difference in conceptual sophistication is likely, however, to be no less profound than that between pre-Einsteinian and post-Einsteinian physics. All this, of course, rests with the future.

Halpin made the following observation:

Because we can never measure all the behavior of an individual, any measurement procedure we adopt must entail a form of selection. We have chosen to measure two specific dimensions of leader behavior: "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration." You will recall that Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish welldefined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

In Barnard's terms,¹³ the leader must facilitate cooperative group action that is both effective and efficient. According to the constructs that have been formulated, this means that the leader should be strong in Initiating Structure and should also show high Consideration for the members of his work-group.

These two kinds of behavior are relatively independent but not necessarily incompatible. Cartwright and

¹²Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u>tration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 86. ¹³<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 86. Zander, for example, have observed:

Any given behavior in a group may have significance both for goal achievement and for maintenance. Both may be served simultaneously by the actions of a member, or one may be served at the expense of the other. Thus, a member who helps a group to work cooperatively on a difficult problem may quite inadvertently also help to develop group solidarity. In another group, however, an eager member may spur the group on in such a way that frictions develop among the members, and even though the goal is achieved effectively, the continued existence of the group is seriously endangered.

Research on Leader Behavior

The theoretical considerations that provided the basis for the Ohio State Leadership Studies have been reviewed. It is now appropriate to examine the findings of these groups in a series of studies in which the LBDQ was used.

Air Crew Studies

Two Air Crew Studies are summarized below:

1. LBDQ scores were obtained on fifty-two B-29 commanders during training in the fall of 1950, and thirtythree of these commanders were subsequently rated on their combat performance in flying over Korea during the summer

¹⁴Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (eds.), <u>Group</u> <u>Dynamics: Research and Theory</u>, 2nd ed. (Evanston, III.: Row, Peters and Company, 1960), p. 496 (quoted by) Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Administration</u> (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 87.

of 1951.¹⁵ Twenty-nine of these thirty-three commanders were described again on the LBDQ by their combat crews. For twenty-seven of the crews, a crew satisfaction index was computed on the basis of the members' answer to the question: "If you could make up a crew from among the crew members in your squadron, whom would you choose for each position?"

In both the training and combat situations, a trend was found toward negative correlations between the superiors' ratings and the Consideration scores, and positive correlations between these ratings and Initiating Structure scores. Conversely, the correlations between the Crew Satisfaction Index and the Consideration scores were positive and high. The partial correlations served to accentuate this trend which was more pronounced in combat than in training. Thus superiors and subordinates were inclined to evaluate oppositely the contributions of the leader behavior dimensions to the effectiveness of leadership. This difference in evaluation would appear to confront the leader with conflicting role expectations.

2. Eighty-seven B-29 aircraft commanders, flying combat missions over Korea, were the subjects of a study with a design similar to the one reported above.¹⁶

¹⁵Andrew W. Halpin, "The Leadership Behavior and Combat Performance of Airplane Commanders," <u>Journal of</u> <u>Abnormal and Social Psychology</u>, 49 (January, 1954), pp. 19-<u>22 (cited by) Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in</u> <u>Administration</u> (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), pp. 91-92.

The ratings by superiors yielded significant correlations with the Initiating Structure scores, whereas none of the corresponding Consideration correlations was significant. The crew rating, including the index, correlated significantly with both leader behavior dimensions but tended to be higher on the Consideration scores.

The commanders who scored above the average on both leader behavior dimensions were evaluated by their superiors as high in over-all effectiveness; whereas those who scored below the average on both dimensions were likely to be rated low in effectiveness. In short, the successful leader is the man who furthers both group maintenance and group achievement.¹⁷

The Leader Behavior of School Superintendents

The preceding series of studies provided the background for an investigation of 50 Ohio School Superintendents, the results of which indicated that the effective leader is one who delineates clearly the relationship between himself and the members of the group and establishes well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done. It

¹⁶Andrew W. Halpin, "Studies in Aircrew Composition: III," <u>The Combat Leader Behavior of B-29 Aircraft Commanders</u>, HFORFL Memo TN-54-7 (Washington, D.C.: Human Factors Operation Research Laboratory, Bolling Air Force Base, September, 1953) (cited), pp. 93-94.

¹⁷Andrew W. Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u>tration (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966), pp. 92-93.

was shown that he must, at the same time, show friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationships between himself and members of the staff. The investigation indicated that the superintendents differentiated their role behavior. In dealing with boards they tended to be effective, but they were inclined to be less effective in working with their staffs.¹⁸

According to Halpin, in applying the human relations approach, it is important that the responsibility imposed upon every official leader by the institutional realities of the formal organization of which he is a part The official leader has a responsibility not be overlooked. and, in fact, a contractual obligation to accomplish a specified mission, and certain aspects of this mission may be beyond the purview of decision by the work group. It. therefore, is imperative to re-examine ideas about the proper balance between human relations -- that is, Consideration and Initiating Structure behavior within formal organization, and to become more critical about applying generalizations advanced from experience with informal groups to groups embedded within formal organizations.¹⁹

With regard to leader behavior, Halpin says,

¹⁸ Andrew W.	Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u> -
<u>tration</u> (New York:	The Macmillan Company, 1966), pp. 97-98.
¹⁹ Andrew W.	Halpin, <u>Theory and Research in Adminis</u> -
<u>tration</u> (New York:	The Macmillan Company, 1966), p. 118.

The dimensions of leadership behavior we have delineated obviously do not exhaust the field. It would be fatuous to imply that these dimensions constitute the criterion of leadership effectiveness. They do not. However, they probably do represent a criterion that should be taken into account in evaluating the leadership skills of superintendents.

Other Studies

Several studies that have used the LBDQ were reported in the literature. These are similar to some of the previous studies. Evenson, in a study of the leadership behavior of high school principals, reported findings that are consistent with those of Halpin.²¹

Lipham²² and associates of the Midwest Administration Center at the University of Chicago conducted an intensive study of on-the-job behavior of school superintendents in four Mid-western communities. The study found that the dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration were useful for classifying leader behavior, accounted for a relatively small percentage of on-the-job behavior of school superintendents, were not of the same order, and were interactive in nature. In addition, the dimension of

²⁰<u>Ibid</u>., p. 127.

²¹Warren L. Evenson, "Leadership Behavior of High School Principals," <u>The Bulletin of the National Associa-</u> <u>tion of Secondary Principals</u>, XLIII (September, 1959), pp. 96-101.

²²James M. Lipham, "Initiating Structure and Consideration," <u>Observation of Administrator Behavior</u> (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1959), pp. 27-69 in <u>Behavioral Science and Educational Administration</u>, pp. 35-38. Initiating Structure was found to be particularly useful for distinguishing between leadership and administration.

Miklos²³ noted that high scores on the Initiation of Structure and Consideration dimensions were associated significantly with a high degree of principal-teacher agreement on expectations for the role of the principal. Keeler and Andrews found high scores by principals on these same dimensions to be related to the productivity of the school, measured in terms of student achievement.²⁴

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII²⁵

Administrative theorists did not believe that two factors were sufficient to account for all observable variance in leader behavior. For several years there was no theory available to suggest additional factors. A new theory of role differentiation and group achievement by Stogdill and the survey of a large body of research data that supported that theory, suggested that a number of variables operate in the differentiation of roles in social groups. Possible factors suggested by the theory are the following: tolerance of uncertainty,

²³Edwin Miklos, "The Role Theory in Administration," <u>Canadian Administrator</u> (November, 1963), pp. 5-8.

²⁴B. T. Keeler and J. H. M.Andrews, "Leader Behavior of Principals, Staff Morale, and Productivity," <u>Alberta</u> <u>Journal of Education</u>, IX (September, 1963), pp. 179-191.

²⁵R. M. Stogdill, <u>Manual for the Leader Behavior</u> Description Questionnaire--Form XII.

persuasiveness, tolerance of members, freedom of action, predictive accuracy, integration of the group, and reconciliation of conflicting demands. Possible new factors suggested by empirical research are the following: representation of group interests, role assumption, production emphasis, and orientation toward superiors.²⁶

Marder reported the first use of the new scales in the study of an Army airborne division and a state highway patrol organization.²⁷ Day used a revised form of the questionnaire in the study of an industrial organization.²⁸ Other revisions have been made by Stogdill, Good, and Day in the study of ministers and leaders in community development,²⁹ United States senators,³⁰ and presidents of corporations.³¹ Stogdill has used the new scales in the study

²⁷E. Marder, <u>Leader Behavior As Perceived by Sub-</u> ordinates as a Function of Organizational Level (Unpublished Master's Thesis, The Ohio State University Library, 1961), p. 15.

²⁸D. R. Day, <u>Basic Dimensions of Leadership in a</u> <u>Selected Industrial Organization</u> (Doctor's dissertation, The Ohio State University Library, 1961), p. 10.

²⁹Ralph M. Stogdill, Omar S. Goode, and David R. Day, "New Leader Behavior Description Subscales," <u>The</u> Journal of Psychology, LIV (1962), pp. 259-69.

³⁰Ralph M. Stogdill, Omar S. Goode, and David R. Day, "The Leader Behavior of United States Senators," The Journal of Psychology, LVI (1963), pp. 3-8.

³¹Ralph M. Stogdill, Omar S. Goode, and David R. Day, "The Leader Behavior of Corporation Presidents," <u>Personnel Psychology</u>, XVI (L963), pp. 127-32.

²⁶<u>Ibid</u>., p. 2.

of industrial and governmental organizations.³²

Form XII has not been used extensively in subse- $Jacobs^{33}$ used the new scale in an attempt quent research. to measure the degree of curricular innovations in selected Michigan public junior high schools as associated with administrative leadership. He classified the schools according to the number of innovations. The scores of five rating of teachers from each school were averaged for each of the twelve dimensions. The high innovative principals received higher ratings than low innovative principals on the following dimensions: (1) Initiating Structure, (2) Predictive Accuracy, (3) Representation, (4) Integration, (5) Persuasion, and (6) Consideration. His study also showed no significant relationships between the amount of curricular innovation in the schools and the factors of size and wealth.

Anderson and Brown³⁴ conducted the most comprehensive study to date using LBDQ-XII. The study was sponsored jointly in Alberta by the council on School Administration and the University of Calgary. The authors

³²Ralph M. Stogdill, <u>Managers, Employees, Organi-</u> zation (Columbus: The Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research, 1965), p. 42.

³³Jan Wayne Jacobs, "Leader Behavior of the Secondary School Principal," <u>The Bulletin of the National</u> <u>Association of Secondary School Principals</u>, XLIX (October, 1965), pp. 13-17.

³⁴Barry D. Anderson and Alan F. Brown, <u>Who's A</u> <u>Principal</u>, The Canadian Administrator (University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada), December, 1966, p. 11.

used staff description of the principal's leader behavior (on the LBDQ-XII) from 170 schools in an attempt to supply the conceptualization of leadership. The results of the findings from the study by Anderson and Brown are given in Appendix C.

Specifically, no attempt was made to challenge Stogdill's twelve subscales; instead, their usefulness was extended by: (1) demonstrating what interrelationships do exist, (2) collapsing their complexity into fewer factors, (3) ordering them into a systematic notion of leadership, and (4) suggesting their differential contributions to some leadership criteria.³⁵

Using frequency of behavior as the method of analysis, it was found that the situational matters in a school generally were not the determinants, i.e., frequency of leadership was not a function of size or type of school (with one exception) or staff or principal's qualifications. But the opposite was true of morale. Morale differences that were statistically and administratively quite significant were found between pairs in the three frequency groups: the greater the perceived frequency of principal leader behavior, the higher was the staff rating of job satisfaction, overall school performance, and confidence in the effectiveness of their principal.

³⁵Ibid., p. 11.

When the LBDQ-XII data were compiled and the scores of the twelve leader behavior subscales were intercorrelated, a principal components factor analysis was performed in order to simplify the conceptualization of leadership. This analysis led to the identification of two major factors running through the subscales scores from each school. These two factors, accounting for three-fourths of the test variance, were labeled "system-oriented leadership" and "person-oriented leadership."³⁶ Loadings of LBDQ-XII subscales on two varimax factors (n = 170) are given in Appendix F.

> Factor 1--behavior that responds to the needs of the school as the apersonalized system with its own goals, themes, and institutional existence, and Factor II-behavior that responds to the idiosyncratic personal and professional needs of fellow beings on the staff.

As Brown³⁸ relates, the cause for rejoicing over the discovery of these two factors was not because they were "totally new and incredibly different," but rather because they were familiar and meaningful. The two factors can be understood partly in terms of Getzels' nomethetic and idiographic dimensions, Halpin's Initiating Structure and Consideration, and other similar conceptualizations as previously mentioned.

³⁶Barry D. Anderson and Alan F. Brown, "Who's a Good Principal?", <u>The Canadian Administrator</u>, VI, (December, 1966), p. 10.

³⁷Alan F. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," <u>Educa-</u> <u>tional Administration Quarterly</u>, III (Winter, 1967), p. 69. ³⁸Ibid., p. 69.

The theoretical antecedents of the proposed system and person factor labels help to amplify their meaning as does the pattern of obtained subscale loadings which, when properly arranged by Brown, define a gradual shading of meaning from one subscale to another.

Brown³⁹ constructs a conceptual structure for leadership. The theoretical antecedents of the proposed system and person factor labels help to amplify their meaning as does the pattern of obtained subscale loadings which, when properly arranged by Brown, define a gradual shading of meaning from one subscale to another. The model on LBDQ-XII subscale loadings on Factor I and II are given in Appendix G. Anderson and Brown explained the LBDQ-XII subscale loadings as follows:

> Although system and person factors are themselves orthogonal, the subscales load without exception on both factors but in just slightly different proportions. Thus may twelve concepts of leadership activity be assembled in an ascending or descending sequence from (1) those activities responding chiefly to system needs (Initiating Structure, Production Emphasis, Representation), through (2) those activities responding chiefly to the need for effective transaction between the institution and the person (Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Superior Orientation), and (3) those activities responding chiefly to idiosyncratic needs of staff (Tolerance of Freedom, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Consideration).

When one considers that the negative of each of the 12 leadership attributes

³⁹Ibid., p. 69.

could be defined operationally and plotted opposite its positive in Figure 2 (Appendix G) there appears a circle that would be only partially incomplete. The phenomenon of leadership, at least insofar as it is represented by staff reactions, conforms to a circumplex model, part of which has yet to be filled in by further and more imaginative research.

Leadership, it now becomes clear, is similar to many other forms of interpersonal behavior in that it is characterized by two major and independent axes, a <u>control</u> dimension and a <u>cathexis</u> dimension, which shade into each other at the level of specific interpersonal behaviors made up in varying degrees of both.

Interpreting leadership criteria in terms of administrative outputs--teacher ratings of (1) satisfaction, (2) confidence in the principal, and (3) school performance estimate--Anderson and Brown⁴¹ used multiple linearregression analysis to test each output criterion against leadership variables in terms of each of the 12 standardized subscale scores and system and person factor scores. Additional variables of school situation--size, type, staff qualifications, etc.--and principal characteristics--age, sex, experience, education, etc.--were also included in the analysis.

This study indicated that the type of leader behavior exhibited by a principal is in itself unimportant. On the other hand, the frequency of leader behavior is important insofar as it is positively associated with

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 69-70. ⁴¹Ibid., pp. 69-70.

measures of staff satisfaction and their confidence in the principal.

Type and frequency of leader behavior were found not to be associated with the background data on the principal. Age, sex, past experience, and training on the basis of the leadership criterion used were unimportant.

There was one noticeable exception of lack of association between situational factors and type or frequency of leader behavior. The exception was found in some combination schools with grades one through twelve. Teachers in these schools perceived less frequent leader behavior in their principals than did staffs of other types of schools.

From inspection, one derives the general image of the principal, as compared with the other leaders, as a very tolerant fellow with little upward drive or productivity push who would probably appear to his teachers much like a community leader, certainly not like an executive president. "He looks after his job," the teacher seems to say in scales 6, 7, and 9, those at the extremes, "and lets us look after ours."⁴² This model may be seen in Figure 1, Chapter III (page 53).

Implications for Practice

Anderson and Brown's study indicated first that a concern with leadership is important. This concern, this

⁴²Ibid., pp. 65-66.

desire to lead, should result in more frequent leader behavior and, in turn, should result in a more confident and professional satisfied staff. Second, the study indicated that debate over the relative merits of a "system" or a "person" oriented approach to a leadership problem was unwarranted. A school staff accepts either form of leadership, so long as strength in one form is not cancelled out by a disproportionately poor showing on the other. Third, the study indicated that a principal who wishes to lead his staff effectively need not dwell at length on the situational or individual factors which he feels will impede leadership. By and large, the influence of such factors in individual cases will be felt because they actually impede his leadership. . . Finally, it was shown that it was unusual for a principal to be regarded by his staff as a good leader if his own perceptions of staff members as individuals or as a group were inaccurate, distorted, projected or over-simplified. . .

"Who is a good principal?" According to Anderson and Brown, the responses of 1551 Alberta teachers offered no answer that was final or absolute but strongly suggested that "the good principal--in their terms of staff satisfaction, confidence in the principal, and feeling of school success--is simply he who frequently leads his staff."⁴³

⁴³Barry D. Anderson and Alan F. Brown, "Who's a Good Principal?", <u>The Canadian Administrator</u>, VI (December, 1966), pp. 11-12.

The statistical and conceptual structure of leadership developed by Anderson and Brown received compelling support from a recent study conducted independently by Keith Punch on the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. Punch analyzed LBDQ-XII data from 48 Ontario elementary schools, performing both a principal components solution and an image analysis. He reported that:

> Both analyses had the same results-the two factors, system and person, turned up, with substantially the same partial circomplex patterning of relationships as did the analysis of 170 Alberta₄₄ schools reported by Anderson and Brown.

Summary

There is much evidence to indicate that there is a positive correlation between effective leadership, on the one hand, and high Initiation of Structure and high Consideration on the other hand. The dimension of Initiation of Structure may be thought of as well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and a way of getting the job done. The dimension of Consideration may be defined as the human relations aspect of leader behavior. It reflects friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationships between the leader and the members of the group.

⁴⁴Alan F. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," <u>Educational Administration Quarterly</u>, III (Winter, 1967), p. 73.

Theorists could not reconcile their thinking with the notion that the two dimensions (Initiation of Structure and Consideration) were sufficient to account for all observable variance in leader behavior. A new theory emerged which indicated that numbers of variables operate in the differentiation of roles in social groups. These factors suggested the following variables: tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, tolerance of member freedom of action, predictive accuracy, integration of the group, and reconciliation of conflicting demands. Possible new factors suggested by the results of research are: representation of group interest, role assumption, production emphasis, and orientation toward superiors.

Studies seem to indicate that leader behavior exhibited by a principal is unimportant, though the frequency of leader behavior is important to the degree that it is positively associated with staff satisfaction and the confidence of staff members in the principal.

A concern with leadership is important. The desire to lead should result in more frequent leader behavior and, in turn, a more confident and professionally satisfied staff. It does not seem to matter whether the leadership approach is "system" or "person" oriented. A school staff accepts either form of leadership.

Who is a good principal? A good principal is one who promotes staff satisfaction, confidence in the principal and a feeling of school success on the part of

his staff--in other words, one who frequently leads his staff.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

In Chapter I, a brief overview of the design of the study was presented. In this chapter, a more detailed description will be given of the study's setting and limitations, the selection of respondents, the test procedure, the sample, data collection, the compensatory education questionnaire and the history of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII.

In a procedural manner this phase of the study had two objectives: (1) to determine the number of compensatory educational practices in the schools, and (2) to secure a description of the leader behavior of the principals of these schools from members of the faculty.

Sample

School districts in Georgia were selected because it is an area in the deep South that has shown very little concern for the quality of educational opportunities that are available to youngsters from a minority group. The findings will be representative of and significant only to those southern states with large minority group populations 44 and to those which have maintained separate schools for children from the minority group.

The sample consisted of thirty principals of combination all Negro schools (grades 1-12) throughout the state of Georgia. In the final sample, the total number of principals was thirty. However, in order to select thirty, compensatory questionnaires were sent to all predominantly Negro schools in the state with grades one through twelve. This involved approximately 110 schools. Of this number seventy-five principals executed compensatory education questionnaires. Thirty principals were chosen from this group, twenty-eight men and two women. The years of experience in school principalship ranged from five to thirty.

Participation in this study was governed by four considerations: (1) the principal's personal willingness to serve as a subject, (2) the willingness of the faculty to rate the principal's leader behavior, (3) a schedule that made it possible to ask the various groups of teachers to answer the questionnaire, and (4) the consent of the superintendent for the principal to participate in the study.

The principals and faculty members made their decisions to participate in this study after they had seen the compensatory education questionnaire but before they had seen the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Therefore, they did not have specific knowledge of the

content of the items on the Leader Behavior Questionnaire. In preliminary communications with the principals and superintendents, their willingness to participate in and contribute to research was readily apparent. The administrators were interested in learning how their leader behavior was perceived by their faculty members. In most instances, principals expressed a very strong desire for improvement in the area of leader behavior.

The sample was made up of fifteen of the schools reporting the largest number of compensatory programs and fifteen of the schools reporting the smallest number of compensatory programs. However, it appeared to be more difficult to get full participation from the schools with only a minimum number of compensatory programs. This factor perhaps accounts for the fairly close similarity of the high compensatory principals and the low compensatory principals in the number of compensatory programs reported.

The names of the thirty principals and the location of their schools are listed alphabetically in Appendix D. The order of this listing obviously does not correspond to the order in which the findings are tabulated elsewhere in this report. This arrangement is deliberate so as to prevent the identification of the scores for individual principals. In the listing of the data in the next chapter, a code number (from one to thirty) has been assigned to each participant. The writer, and the writer alone, will

46[.]

know the various code numbers. This confidential treatment is in accord with the pledge of anonymity to all those who completed the questionnaire.

Selection of Respondents

After making the decision to choose this sample of thirty principals, the next step was to decide from whom descriptions should be secured. Evidence from earlier experience with Leader Behavior Questionnaires indicated that average scores computed on the basis of from five to seven descriptions supplied reasonably accurate results that could be used as indices on leader behavior. The writer found five staff descriptions much easier to obtain. In no instance were there fewer than five staff members who described the principal.

Each of the thirty principals was described by at least five of his staff members. In describing the behavior of the thirty principals, one hundred and fifty staff members answered the Leader Behavior Questionnaire-Form XII, indicating how they believed their principal behaves.

The use of a table of random numbers was the procedure employed to select respondents from the principal's staff. In all cases the principal submitted a roster of the staff for purposes of selection.

Description of the Instrument

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (Appendix B), was developed for use in obtaining descriptions of a supervisor by the group members whom he supervises. It can be used to describe the behavior of the leaders in any type of group or organization provided that the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group.

The LBDQ-XII is a Likert-type instrument with one hundred leadership acts responded to by observers on a five-point scale. The observer is instructed to rate his principal as to how well he performs these one hundred leadership acts: "He (<u>always</u>, <u>often</u>, <u>occasionally</u>, <u>seldom</u>, <u>never</u>), as described by the item." Eighty items are scored A-5, B-4, C-3, D-2, E-1. Twenty items, numbers 6, 12, 16, 26, 36, 42, 46, 53, 57, 61, 62, 65, 66, 68, 71, 87, 91, 92, and 97 are scored in the reverse direction as follows: A-1, B-2, C-3, D-4, E-5.

The scores for the one hundred items of the instrument were divided into twelve subscales consisting of from five to ten of the items.

Definition of the Subscales

Each subscale is composed of either five or ten items. A subscale is defined by its component items;

¹Taken from Stogdill, <u>Manual for the Leader Behavior</u> Questionnaire Form XII, pp. 1-14.

although some items may appear to be similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Brief definitions of the subscales are listed below:

1. <u>Representation</u>--speaks and acts as the representative of the group (5 items).

2. <u>Demand Reconciliation</u>--reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system (5 items).

3. <u>Tolerance of Uncertainty</u>--is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (5 items).

4. <u>Persuasiveness</u>-uses persuasion and argument effectively, exhibits strong convictions (10 items).

5. <u>Initiation of Structure</u>--clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected (10 items).

6. <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u>--allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (10 items).

7. <u>Role Assumption</u>--actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others (10 items).

8. <u>Consideration-regards</u> the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of followers (10 items).

9. <u>Production Emphasis</u>--applies pressure for productive output (10 items).

10. <u>Predictive Accuracy</u>--exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately (5 items).

11. Integration--maintains a closely knit organization (5 items).

12. <u>Superior Orientation</u>--maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, is striving for higher status (10 items).

The assignment of items to different subscales is indicated in the record sheet (Appendix B). The sum of the items for each subscale constitutes the score for that particular dimension.

Theoretical Model

The index scores of LBDQ-XII were analyzed according to Anderson and Brown's theoretical model, a procedure which has been used extensively to analyze leader behavior. The leader behavior of the principal of a school is placed into one of nine categories. The resulting scores determine whether the principal is "system" oriented or "person" oriented. Consequently, when the scores are plotted on the System and Person Axes, the leadership of a school can be described as "high" on one factor but "neutral" on the other (sectors, 1, 3), "low" on one factor but "neutral" on the other (sectors 4,8), "high" on both, "low" on both (sectors 2,9), and "neutral" on both (area 9).

Utilization of the foregoing model results in two methods of grouping the leadership categories of a school. First, the "type of leadership" Method throws together (a) categories 3, 4, and 5 into a system-leader type, and (b) categories 2, 9, and 6 into a mixed type.²

²Barry Anderson and Alan F. Brown, "Who's A Good Principal?", <u>The Canadian Administrator</u>, VI (December, 1966), pp. 9-12.

Second, the "Frequency of Leader Behaviors" Method may be used to group the categories. The frequency method carves up the model along a different diagonal against three groups. When a principal's scores were plotted in categories 1, 2, or 3, they showed up there because their staffs indicated (via LBDQ-XII) that he frequently exhibited leader behavior as listed in the test. Scores were plotted in categories 4, 8, and 9 because the principal was seen as "occasionally" manifesting these behaviors; and when leadership was seldom, if ever, seen by the-staff, the factor scores by definition had to be plotted in categories 5, 6, or 7.

Anderson and Brown³ identified two major factors running through the subscale scores from each school. These two factors accounting for three-fourths of the variance Anderson and Brown⁴ labeled "system-oriented leadership" and person-oriented leadership with subscale factor loadings suggested that school staffs tend to distinguish three clusters of effective principals:

- (a) those responding chiefly to system
 needs (high scores on Initiating
 Structure, Production Emphasis, Representation, Role Assumption);
- (b) those responding chiefly to the need

³<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 10. ⁴<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 10.

for effective transaction between the institution and the person (high Integration, Predictive Accuracy, Superior Orientation, Demand Reconciliation scores); and

(c) those responding chiefly to idiosyncratic needs of staff (high Tolerance of Freedom, Tolerance of Uncertainty, and Consideration).

The leadership in each of the schools was placed into nine categories of the model with the aid of the factor scores on each of the factors "system" orientation and "person" orientation (see Figure 1).

Reliability of the Subscales

The reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. The modification consists of the fact that each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the subscale score including the item. This procedure yields a conservative estimate of subscale reliability (See Appendix D.)

The Testing Procedure

The writer administered the questionnaire in each school, personally. The method of questionnaire administration was standardized throughout all the schools. Before meeting with the staff members, the writer briefly conferred with the principal in order to answer any

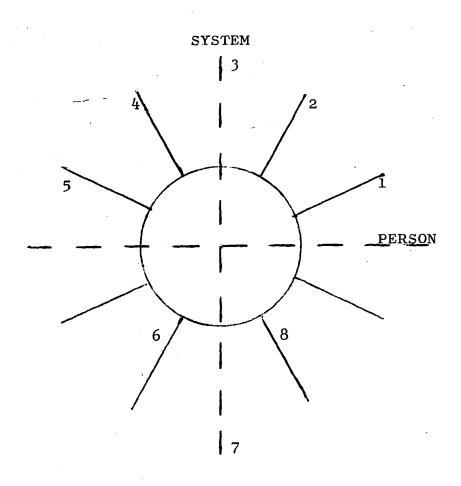


Fig. 1.---Model of Leader Behavior

additional questions he might have regarding the study. The principal then introduced the writer to the group of staff members and usually gave a few statements concerning the purpose of the meeting. At this point the writer described the study and emphasized the fact that scores from any of the descriptions of the principal would not be reported in a form in which the individual respondent could be identified. Also, the principal was assured that when the results were reported the writer, and the writer alone, would know what code number had been assigned to his own scores. The writer also explained that all data would be processed in a confidential manner, and that the scores of each principal on the Leader Behavior Questionnaire-Form XII would be treated with absolute confidence and would not be made available to any member except as it was included in the total study.

Scoring the Questionnaire

The data consisted of the responses on 150 questionnaires. Each questionnaire contains one hundred items, all of which were scored. The scoring of the items, the scores assigned to each of the five possible responses are given in Appendix B. Of the one hundred items on the LBDQ-XII, eight have eighty possible answers while four have twenty possible answers. The range for each item is from one to five. There were one hundred and fifty scores obtained from staff members. The findings reported in Chapter IV are based on these scores.

Compensatory Education Questionnaire

The compensatory education questionnaire was constructed by the writer. The preliminary work was based on recommendations by Benjamin Bloom in his book <u>Compensa</u>tory Education.⁵

The original instrument contained forty questions, developed according to the criteria set forth by Kerlinger.⁶ It was submitted to graduate students of the College of Education for a pilot test.

The instrument was revised and submitted to a panel of experts for approval (Appendix C). The experts included research directors for Boards of Education in ten cities with populations over 500,000. Items approved by fewer than seven of the experts were eliminated.

There were two items which did not receive an adequate number of favorable votes. The final copy consisted of thirty-eight items. These items were viewed as suitable to measure the availability of compensatory educational programs in school districts (See Appendix C).

⁵Benjamin Bloom, et. al., Compensatory Education for Cultural Deprivations (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1965), pp. 1-50.

⁶Fred N. Kerlinger, <u>Foundations of Behavioral</u> <u>Research</u> (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1966), pp. 473-474.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

In presenting the findings of this study of thirty selected "high" and "low" compensatory principals, the writer had two purposes in mind: first, to provide a description of the results in terms of the perceptions of the principal's behavior as viewed by the staff members, and second, to provide an analysis of the differences between the two group descriptions in order to show just how the perceptions of each group varied. The analysis presented here is concerned with both description and inference.

Difference Between "High" and "Low" Compensatory Principals Within Each Group

This study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the mean scores on any of the twelve dimensions of LBDQ-XII between the "high" and "low" compensative principals.

2. The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the behavior of the "high" and

"low" compensative principals on the overall mean scores of LBDQ-XII.

In addition, the study describes and compares frequency of leader behavior as perceived by the staff members' descriptions. The type of leadership is described as perceived by the staff members on the LBDQ-XII. Finally, the study was summarized.

The first part of the investigation was designed to test the first hypotheses of the study--that there are no significant differences in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals.

In order to determine more precisely where these differences between "high compensative" and "low compensative" principals were found, twelve individual "t"-tests were conducted and the results are presented below. The means, standard deviations, and "t" ratios are shown in Table 1.

HO₁ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as measured by the LBDQ-XII and expressed by the index score as perceived by the staff members on the dimension of <u>Representation</u> was accepted (t-ratio 1.14).

HO₂ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the

TABLE 1

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS OF STAFF MEMBERS' DESCRIPTION OF "HIGH AND LOW COMPENSATIVE" PRINCIPALS

Dimensions		High Compensatory		Low Compensatory		T-Ratio
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1.	Representation	20.54	6.15	18.62	2,14	1.14
2.	Demand Reconciliation	20.24	1.67	18.97	2.86	1.49
3.	Tolerance of Uncertainty	35.02	3.88	36.00	3.57	1.36
4.	Persuasion	39.08	2.69	36.90	5.37	1.40
5.	Initiating Structure	43.76	2.05	38.66	5.14	3.59**
6.	Tolerance of Freedom	42.10	2.57	40.39	3.48	1.10
7.	Role Assumption	41.44	3.11	38.05	4.88	2.29*
8.	Consideration	39.88	11.35	37.27	5.64	.49
9.	Production Emphasis	40.10	7.29	36.54	6.28	1.36
10.	Predictive Accuracy	19.51	2.12	18.16	2.68	• 53
11.	Integration	21.30	1.83	19.10	3.39	2.24*
12.	Superior Orientation	40.90	3.46	38.05	6.02	1.60

*t-ratio (df=28) of 2.10 indicates statistical significance at the .05 level. **t-ratio (df=28) of 2.88 indicates statistical significance at the .01 level.

ł

ł

LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Demand</u> <u>Reconciliation</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (1.49) are shown in Table 1.

HO₃ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Tolerance of</u> <u>Uncertainty</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (1.36) are shown in Table 1.

HO₄ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Persuasion</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"ratio (1.40) are shown in Table 1.

HO₅ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Initiation of Structure</u> was rejected at the .05 level of significance. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (3.59) are shown in Table 1.

HO₆ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (1.10) are shown in Table 1.

HO₇ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Role Assumption</u> was rejected at the .05 level of significance. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (2.29) are shown in Table 1.

HO₈ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Consideration</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (.49) are shown in Table 1.

HO₉ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and the "low compensative" principals on the dimension of Production

Emphasis was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (1.36) are shown in Table 1.

HO₁₀ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Predictive Accuracy</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and "t"-ratio (.53) are shown in Table 1.

HO₁₁ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on the LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Integration</u> was rejected at the .05 level of significance. The means, standard deviations, and the "t"-ratio (2.24) are shown in Table 1.

HO₁₂ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as perceived by staff members and as measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals on the dimension of <u>Superior Orientation</u> was accepted. The means, standard deviations, and the "t"ratio (1.60) are shown in Table 1.

HO₁₃ The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the leader behavior as measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII and expressed by the index scores as

perceived by the staff members on all dimensions was rejected. An overall one-way analysis of variance yielded an F-ratio of 4.00 which is significant at the .05 level of significance (See Table 2). It can be seen in Table 1 that the "high compensative" principals were perceived as being higher on all dimensions was rejected. An overall one-way analysis of variance yielded an F-ratio of 4.00 which is significant at the .05 level of significance (See Table 2). It can be seen in Table 1 that the "high compensative" principals were perceived as being higher on all dimensions, except one, than "low compensative" principals.

TABLE 2

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE COMPARING "HIGH COMPENSATIVE" PRINCIPALS WITH "LOW COMPENSATIVE" PRINCIPALS ON ALL DIMENSIONS

Source	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F Ratio	Р
Types of Compen- sative Principal (Hi vs Lo)	427.5	1	427.5	4.00	
Within (Error)	38219.81	358	106.75	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Total		359			
F = MS Leadership MS Error	= 4.00				
df = 1/358					-

The individual variances and F-ratios that accompany "high compensative" principals and "low compensative"

principals can be seen in Table 3. The variability between the "high and low compensative" principals is significant at the 0.05 level of significance on the following dimensions: (1) Initiating Structure (F-ratio 6.28), (2) Representation (F-ratio 8.27), (3) Role Assumption (F-ratio 2.46), (4) Persuasiveness (F-ratio 3.99), (5) Superior Orientation (F-ratio 3.03), (6) Integration (F-ratio 3.42), (7) Demand Reconciliation (F-ratio 2.92) and (8) Consideration (Fratio 4.04).

TABLE 3

F-RATIO COMPARING	VARIABILITY	OF	"HIGH COMPENSATIVE"
PRINCIPALS WITH	VARIABILITY	OF	"LOW COMPENSATIVE"
	PRINCIPAI	LS	

	Dimensions	High S	Low S ²	F-Ratio
1.	Production Emphasis (S)	53.27	39.48	1.35
2.	Initiating Structure (S)	4.21	26.45	6.28*
3.	Representation (S)	37.88	4.58	8.27*
4.	Role Assumption (S)	9.68	23.83	2.46*
5.	Persuasiveness (S)	7.24	28.89	3.99*
6.	Superior Orientation (S)	11.99	36.29	3.03*
7.	Predictive Accuracy (P)	4.51	8.23	1.82
8.	Integration (P)	3.37	11.52	3.42*
9.	Demand Reconciliation (P) 2.81	8.21	2.92*
10.	Consideration (P)	128.96	31.92	4.04*
11.	Tol. of Freedom (P)	6.62	12.17	1.84
12.	Tol. of Uncertainty Variance (P)	15.11	12.75	1.18

*F-ratio (14/d.f.) of 2.46 or above indicates statistical 14

significance at the .05 level with the two tail probability. (S) indicates "System" orientation

(P) indicates "Persons" orientation.

Frequency of Leader Behavior

In describing the leader behavior of their principals on the LBDQ-XII, the staff members were asked to rate each item according to a schema of 5-always, 4-often, 3-occasionally, 2-seldom, and 1-never. Accordingly, there would be maximum scores of rating times the number of items. In only one instance in the individual ratings of either of the groups was the maximum score recorded. The minimum score was not recorded in the individual ratings for either of the groups. In mean scores for all group descriptions for all items, all dimensions scores were changed to standard scores. There was a range from 35.08 to 43.76. Thus, according to "frequency" of behavior, all principals were described as either "occasionally" or "often" exhibiting the behavior indicated. For descriptive purposes, all mean scores of 40.00 and above were indicated for the category "often." Scores falling in the 30.00 to 39.00 range, while describing behavior that is "occasionally" exhibited in the instrument used, were arbitrarily divided into two subcategories. There were four categories with five items; the range of the mean scores was from 18.16 to 21.30. Consequently, according to "frequency" of behavior, all principals were described as either "occasionally" or "often" exhibiting the behavior indicated. For descriptive purposes for these four categories (Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Integration, and Predictive Accuracy), scores of 20 and above were indicated for

the category "often." Scores falling in the range from 15 to 19, while describing behavior that is "occasionally" exhibited in the instrument used, were divided into subcategories. The record sheets and answer sheets are shown in Appendix B.

The mean scores of 35.00 and below are referred to as "occasionally," and scores of 36.00 to 39.00 are referred to as "less often," referring to behavior that is exhibited by the principals more often than "occasionally" but less often than "often." By the same token, mean scores for the four aforementioned categories, of 17.5 and below, are referred to as "occasionally," and mean scores of from 18 to 19 are referred to as "less often," referring to behavior that is exhibited by the principals more often than "occasionally" but less often than "often."

The "high compensative" principal was perceived as leading his work group more frequently than the "low compensative" principal. It is interesting to note that the following dimensions of LBDQ-XII show that the "high compensative" principal exhibits leader behavior "often": (1) Initiating Structure, (2) Tolerance of Freedom, (3) Role Assumption, (4) Consideration, (5) Production Emphasis, (6) Superior Orientation, (7) Representation, (8) Demand Reconciliation, (9) Predictive Accuracy, and (10) Integration.

The "low compensative" principal was perceived as exhibiting leader behavior "often" on only one of these

dimensions. The "low compensative" principal was perceived as "less often" leading his work group on the following dimensions on LBDQ-XII: (1) Production Emphasis, (2) Initiating Structure, (3) Representation, (4) Role Assumption, (5) Persuasiveness, (6) Superior Orientation, (7) Predictive Accuracy, (8) Integration, (9) Demand Reconciliation, (10) Consideration, and (11) Tolerance of Uncertainty. Finally, the "low compensative" principal was seen as "occasionally" exhibiting leadership behavior indicative of Tolerance of Uncertainty. Therefore, it can be seen that the "high compensative" principal more frequently exhibits effective leader behavior than the "low compensative" principal on eleven of the twelve dimensions. (See Table 1 for means.)

Type and Effectiveness of Behavior

Principal "effectiveness" in this study has been defined as high ascribed scores on the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. "Type" of leadership has been described as "System Oriented," "Person Oriented," and "Transactional," as indicated by frequency (mean scores) of behavior in the appropriate dimensions.

As there are no accepted norms for the dimensions of the LBDQ-XII, mean scores of 40 or more on eight of the dimensions, and 20 or more on four of the dimensions, indicating the behavior as "often" exhibited, were used as indices of principal "effectiveness." It should be noted also that none of the groups of principals received

scores indicative of "seldom" or "never" exhibiting the described behaviors. Therefore, none of the groups can be described as "ineffective," only as less "effective" than others.

Utilizing Anderson and Brown's theoretical model of leader behavior as explained in Chapter III, each type of principal as described by each group was assigned to the descriptive category, "System," "Person," and "Transactional," according to frequency of behavior as indicated by mean scores on the appropriate dimensions.

Anderson and Brown identified and classified the loadings of LBDQ-XII subscales on two varimax factors (Appendix F). They identified the following dimensions as "system": Production Emphasis, Initiating Structure, Representation, Role Assumption, Persuasiveness, and Superior Orientation. They identified the "person" factor as including the following dimensions: Predictive Accuracy, Integration, Demand Reconciliation, Consideration, Tolerance of Freedom, and Tolerance of Uncertainty. Interestingly, these two factors as stated earlier accounted for 76% of the total variance. Similarly, the scores of this study tended to cluster around these two factors when they were plotted on a conceptual model. (See page 53 for the model.)

Table 1 (page 58) indicates that two of the dimensions, Initiating Structure, and Role Assumption were significant at the .05 level of significance. These two

dimensions belong in Factor I or "system." The dimension "Integration" was significant at the .05 level of significance, but it belongs in Factor II or "person." This indicates that "high compensative" principals tended to be more "system" oriented than "low compensative" principals.

Staff Member Description

An analysis of the staff member description, on eleven of the twelve dimensions of the LBDQ, showed the "high compensative" principals to have mean scores that were higher than were the means of the "low compensative" principals. "Low compensative" principals had a higher mean score on the one dimension of Tolerance of Uncertainty. However, this difference was not significant at the .05 level of Confidence.

On three of the dimensions, Initiation of Structure (t = 3.59), Persuasiveness (t = 2.29), and Integration (t = 2.24), the differences were significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the hypothesis of no difference between the staff member's descriptions could not be accepted on these three dimensions. The "high compensative" principals were rated significantly higher by their staff members than were the "low compensative" principals on the following dimensions of the LBDQ-XII:

1. <u>Initiating Structure</u>--clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected (Questionnaire items numbered 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84, and 94).

2. <u>Persuasiveness</u>--uses persuasion and argument effectively, exhibits strong convictions (Questionnaire items numbered 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, and 93).

3. <u>Integration</u>--maintains a closely knit organization, resolves inter-member conflicts (Questionnaire items numbered 19, 39, 69, 79, and 99).

Examination of the mean scores showed that, while staff members described "high compensative" principals as significantly higher on the dimension of Initiation of Structure, they described "high compensative" principals as "often" demonstrating this type of behavior while "low compensative" principals were described as "occasionally" demonstrating this type of behavior. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as "often" and "low compensative" principals as "less often" exhibiting behavior indicative of Role Assumption. Staff members also described "high compensative" principals as "often" and "low compensative" principals as "less often" exhibiting behavior indicative of the dimension of Integration.

Mean scores demonstrated further that staff members were in close agreement in their descriptions of the two types of principals on one of the dimensions of behavior. They saw both types of principals as "often" exhibiting behavior indicative of the dimension of "Tolerance of Freedom" (allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action--Questionnaire items numbered 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85, and 95).

Staff members see "high compensative" principals as "often" exhibiting behavior indicative of:

1. <u>Production Emphasis</u> (40.10)--applies pressure for productive output (Questionnaire items numbered 8, 18, 28, 38, 48, 58, 68, 78, 88, and 98).

2. <u>Initiating Structure</u> (43.76)--clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected (Questionnaire items numbered 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84, and 94).

3. <u>Representation</u> (20.54)--speaks and acts as the representative of the group (Questionnaire items numbered 1, 11, 21, 31, and 41).

4. <u>Role Assumption</u> (41.44)--actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others (Questionnaire items numbered 6, 16, 26, 36, 46, 56, 66, 76, 86, and 96).

5. <u>Superior Orientation</u> (40.90)--maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, is striving for higher status (Questionnaire items numbered 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100).

6. <u>Integration</u> (21.30)--maintains a closely knit organization, resolves inter-member conflicts (Questionnaire items numbered 19, 39, 69, 79, and 99).

7. <u>Demand Reconciliation</u> (20.24)--reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system (Questionnaire items numbered 51, 61, 71, 81, and 91).

8. <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u> (42.10)--allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (Questionnaire items numbered 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85, and 95).

Staff members saw "low compensative" principals as "less often" displaying behavior indicative of seven of these dimensions:

1. Production Emphasis (36.54)

2. Initiating Structure (38.66)

3. Representation (18.62)

4. Role Assumption (36.90)

5. Superior Orientation (38.05)

6. Integration (19.10)

7. Demand Reconciliation (18.97)

They saw both types of principals as "less often" exhibiting behavior indicative of the following dimensions:

1. <u>Persuasiveness</u> (38.08 for "highs" and 36.90 for "lows")--uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions (Questionnaire items numbered 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, and 93).

2. <u>Predictive Accuracy</u> (19.51 for "highs" and 18.16 for "lows")--exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately (Questionnaire items numbered 9, 29, 49, 59, and 89).

3. <u>Consideration</u> (39.88 for "highs" and 38.27 for "lows")--regards the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of followers (Questionnaire items numbered 7, 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87, and 97).

Type and Effectiveness

Staff members rated "high compensative" principals as more effective leaders than "low compensative" principals in the dimensions of Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, Integration and Superior Orientation. "High compensative" principals were described as exhibiting a mixed or "transactional" type of leadership.

"Low compensative" principals were described by their staff members as being effective leaders in the dimension of Tolerance of Freedom. Although they were rated slightly lower in the dimension of "System Oriented" leadership, they were described as exhibiting a "Transactional" type of leadership.

Findings showed that both groups utilized a mixed or "Transactional" type of leadership that tended to balance the needs and goals of the institution with those of the individual within the group. This indicates that staff members perceived the two types of leadership to be compatible; they saw "high compensative" principals to be effective in both.

The findings of the present study are in general agreement with those of Garrison.¹ Both studies ascribed

¹Joe Mac Garrison, "The Leader Behavior of Oklahoma Secondary School Principals," (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1967), p. 67.

to "high innovative" ("high compensative") principals higher overall mean scores than "low innovative" ("low compensative") principals. The findings are in disagreement with Garrison's findings in that the present study describes "high compensative" principals to be rated significantly higher than the "low compensative" principals in the dimensions of Initiating Structure, Role Assumption, and Integration.

In contrast to Brown's description of the principal as a very tolerant person with little upward drive or productivity push, the present study shows the "high compensative" principal to be a tolerant, considerate person who exerts a high degree of influence upon his superiors and who is a persuasive, dedicated leader, effective in reconciling role demands and initiating change.

An overall one-way analysis of variance yielded an F ratio of 4.00 which is significant at the .05 level of significance. It can be seen that the "high compensative" principals are rated higher than the "low compensative" ones regardless of the dimension of leadership. The results of the one-way analysis of variance are shown in Table 2.

"t"-Test for the Difference Between Means

To test the first hypothesis of the differences between the means of each group, the "t"-ratio as described by Walker and Lev was utilized. The differences between

the means of the "high" and "low" compensative principals, on each separate dimension, were tested.² The formula for the "t" test is shown in Appendix H.

The "high compensative" principals were rated higher than the "low compensative" principals in all dimensions of leadership except Tolerance of Uncertainty (see Table 1). Thus the "high compensative" principals were generally higher than the "low compensative" principals and significantly higher in the cases of:

Structure t = .P < .01

Integration t = .P < .05

Role Assumption t = .P < .05

It is interesting to note that two out of three of these significant differences are on dimensions that relate to "system" orientation. This finding is congruent with logic in that one could expect the innovators of compensatory education programs to be more "system-oriented" since activating such programs demands a great deal of effort within the school system. Furthermore, closer inspection of Table 1 reveals that the active numerical differences between the means of "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals were greater for the high compensative principal within the "system" dimension than the differences within the "person" dimension. Thus the greatest differences between "high compensative" and "low compensative" principals are perceivable in relation to "system" factors.

Summary

The findings of the statistical analyses were as follows:

 Staff members described "high compensative" principals as higher than "low compensative" principals on all dimensions except <u>Tolerance of Uncertainty</u>.

2. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as significantly higher on the dimensions of Initiation of Structure, Integration, and Role Assumption.

3. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as "often" and "low compensative" principals as "less often" exhibiting behavior indicative of <u>Representation</u>, <u>Demand Reconciliation</u>, <u>Initiating Structure</u>, <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u>, <u>Role Assumption</u>, <u>Production Emphasis</u>, <u>Integration</u>, and <u>Superior Orientation</u>.

4. Staff members described both "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals as "often" exhibiting behavior indicative of <u>Tolerance of Freedom</u>.

5. There was a significant relationship between variation in the agreement with which staff members described "high" and "low" compensative principals. In other words, describers of the "high compensative" principals were consistent in their description on the following dimensions: Initiating Structure, Representation, Role Assumption, Persuasiveness, Superior Orientation, Integration, Demand Reconciliation, and Consideration. There was a lack of consistency in the way describers of "low

compensative" principals perceived them on these dimensions. Describers of "high compensative" principals varied significantly from describers of "low compensative" principals in the way they described the two groups. It is evident that the "high compensative" principals were more consistent in their leader behavior than the "low compensative" principals. The results of these findings are shown in Table 3, page 63.

6. Staff members described both "high" and "low" compensative principals as "less often" exhibiting behavior indicative of <u>Tolerance of Uncertainty</u> (35.02), Persuasion (39.08), Consideration (39.88), and <u>Predictive Accuracy</u> (19.51). (See Table 1.)

7. Staff members tended to agree in their descriptions of "high compensative" principals in all twelve dimensions: the extent of this agreement fluctuates from principal to principal.

8. Staff members for both groups of principals tended to agree to essentially the same extent in describing their principals on the dimensions of Consideration and Tolerance of Uncertainty.

9. Staff members perceived the "high compensative" principal to be higher in his ability to clearly define his own role and to establish meaningful patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.

10. The present findings indicate that the "high compensative" principals were perceived as differentiating their role more effectively than the "low compensative" principals. This may be interpreted to mean that "high compensative" principals were less inclined to "let down a little" and "low compensative" principals were more inclined to "let down a little" in dealing with their staffs.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND OBSERVATIONS

Summary

The problem of this study was to determine the degree to which the leader behavior of selected Georgia public school principals, as perceived by their work groups, was related to the reported number of compensatory education programs in their schools.

The data of the study consisted of LBDQ-XII descriptions of the behavior_of fifteen "high compensative" and fifteen "low compensative" principals by their staff members in Georgia public schools. The criterion of compensativeness was determined by the number of programs reported on a compensatory education program questionnaire that was constructed by the writer. There were thirty-eight compensatory practices listed in the questionnaire. "Low compensative" principals were defined as those principals reporting twenty or fewer compensatory programs in their schools. "High compensative" principals were defined as those with twenty or more compensatory programs in their schools.

It was postulated that, if leadership is in fact related to compensativeness, "high compensative" principals would exhibit a different kind of behavior as indicated by work groups' descriptions of twelve dimensions of the LBDQ than would the "low compensative" principals. Effectiveness of leader behavior was defined as high mean scores on the individual dimensions of the LBDQ-XII. Accordingly, a principal was defined as being "effective" when his work group described him as "often" engaging in the type of leader behavior indicated.

Type of leadership was determined by the tendency of the mean scores, as described by the work group, of the ascribed behavior of the respondent principals to cluster in the areas defined as "system oriented," and "person oriented."

Findings

The significant findings of the study were as follows:

 Staff members described "high compensative" principals as being significantly higher than "low compensative" principals on the dimension of Initiating Structure.

2. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as being significantly higher than "low compensative" principals on the dimension of Integration.

3. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as being significantly higher than "low compensative" principals on the dimension of Role Assumption.

4. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as not being significantly different from "low compensative" principals on the dimensions of Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation. However, six of these dimensions had large chance differences in favor of the high compensative principals.

5. Staff members described "low compensative" principals as being slightly more effective than "high compensative" principals on Tolerance of Uncertainty.

6. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as being more consistent in their leader behavior than "low compensative" principals.

7. Staff members described "high compensative" principals as "often" exhibiting effective leader behavior on the following dimensions: Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Persuasion, Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.

8. Staff members described "low compensative" principals as less effective or "less often" exhibiting leader behavior on the above dimensions.

9. The leader behavior as perceived by staff members and measured by mean ratings on LBDQ-XII between "high compensative" principals and "low compensative" principals gave the former a higher overall rating on all dimensions except one.

10. The principal's ability to <u>Initiate Structure</u> seems to be related to compensatory education programs in the school, with high compensative principals rating significantly higher in this dimension.

11. The principal's ability to maintain a closely knit organization and resolve inter-member conflicts is positively related to the extensiveness of compensatory education programs found in his school.

12. <u>Role Assumption</u> showed a positive relationship to compensatory education programs in the school.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made as a result of this study:

1. There should be additional research in the area of how teachers perceive administrators so as to determine whether or not a minority group administrator is handicapped by the prevailing attitudes of the larger society in trying to eradicate cumulative deficits of culturally deprived children.

- 2. Since this study was not designed to determine the effectiveness of compensatory educational programs,

an investigation needs to be made in this area.

3. The present study has shown that certain aspects of leader behavior were associated with the number of compensatory education programs in the school. Other studies are needed to augment the findings of this and similar studies.

Observations

In conducting this study the writer visited thirty Negro public schools in Georgia, and talked with superintendents, principals, and teachers in these schools. The observations which follow are made against the background of the study and reflect ideas and impressions gained from these visits. They represent solely the views of the writer and should be so interpreted.

1. The study was not as clear-cut as it might have been since it was most difficult to get into some of the schools in which limited compensatory programs were reflected. Therefore, there was a slight degree of similarity between the two groups of principals studied.

2. Both the "high compensative" and the "low compensative" principals were functioning in situations in which there were conflicts between majority group people and minority group people with regard to Negro education. Although the equalitarian ideal is strong enough to have a profound influence on policy in the North, in Georgia, the massive discrimination in education seemed to indicate

82

that some values other than equalitarianism were dominating the action of majority group people. Majority group people in rural Georgia appeared to think that education would make minority group people aware of "rights" about which they should remain uninformed and that such knowledge would make them dissatisfied or provide them means by which some of them might gain economic and cultural superiority over majority group people.

Since the white populace has almost absolute power in Georgia, it has molded Negro education in rural districts in accordance with the interests of the empowered group. Both groups of principals included in this study have been encumbered with this handicap. This could account for the wide range of variability on the ratings by the respective staffs. Coercive power was, perhaps, operative. Some of the staff members could not run the risk of giving the administrator a low rating on the instrument.

3. There have been large appropriations for compensatory educational programs in Georgia for children from poverty stricken families through Title I and Title II of ESEA. However, the writer was informed that some of the schools had refused to spend Title I and Title II funds on Negro pupils. These funds were reportedly being held by the local boards of education. In other situations state funds were reduced for Negro pupils in proportion to

the federal funds available. In still other situations the funds were distributed equally to schools, ignoring more or less the poverty aspect. Roughly one-fourth of the schools had federal funds suspended for non-compliance with the U. S. Office of Education guidelines. These factors had a great impact on both the quantity and quality of compensatory education practices found in these schools.

4. Many of the principals were in very difficult positions since apparently their employment depended on the continuation of the dual system of education.

5. The schools that were studied did not have a single Negro board member. When the employment question is raised, the Negro principal is at a definite disadvantage.

6. Few, if any, of the school boards have started a kindergarten program for all children. The children begin school in the first grade with the assumption that they are ready to do first grade work. In the process the children frequently do not learn and the teachers become frustrated. The child frequently falls further and further behind simply because he was not ready to work on the first grade level when he started to school.

7. It was observed by the investigator that staff members appeared to regard the principal as a key figure in the process of change. They seemed to view

the principalship as a position which should be charged with the responsibility for initiating change when needed.

8. Finally, the Negro principals in Georgia have a most difficult task to perform, since the system seems to put a low priority on education for low socio-economic children. The parents frequently have high aspirations and expectations for their children, which means that often the principal finds himself in an untenable position with either the board or the Negro Community.

·

BIBLIOGRAPHY

n y stran

R

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Argyris, Chris, Personality and Organization. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960.

- -----

- Barnard, Chester I. The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938.
- Bass, Bernard M. Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behavior. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960.
- Bennis, Warren G., Benne, Kenneth D., and Chin, Robert. <u>The Planning of Change: Readings in the Applied</u> <u>Behavioral Sciences</u>. New York: Holt, Rinehart <u>& Winston, 1961</u>.
- Browne, C. G., and Cohn, T. S. <u>The Study of Leadership</u>. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1962.
- Campbell, Ronald F., and Gregg, Russell T. (eds.). <u>Administrative Behavior in Education</u>. New York: <u>Harper & Brothers</u>, 1957.
- Cartwright, Dorwin, and Zander, Alvin (eds.). <u>Group</u> <u>Dynamics: Research and Theory</u>, 2nd ed., Evanston, <u>Illinois: Row, Peterson & Company</u>, 1960.
- Coladarci, Arthur P., and Getzels, Jacob W. <u>The Use of</u> <u>Theory in Educational Administration</u>. <u>Leland</u> <u>Stanford Junior University</u>, 1955.
- Coleman, James S. <u>Equality of Educational Opportunity</u>. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington: U. S. Government ______Printing Office, 1966.
- Culbertson, Jack, and Hensley, Stephen (eds.). <u>Research</u> <u>in Education: New Perspectives</u>. Daville, <u>Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers</u>, 1958.

- Gardner, John W. Excellence. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Griffiths, Daniel E. (ed.). <u>Behavioral Science and Educa-</u> <u>tional Administration</u>. The Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.
- Halpin, Andrew W. (ed.). Administrative Theory in Education. Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958.
 - . The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1956.

_____. Theory and Research in Administration. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.

- Hemphill, John K. <u>Situational Factors in Leadership</u>. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, 1949.
- Hemphill, John K., and Coons, Alvin E. Leader Behavior <u>Description</u>. Columbus, Ohio: Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University, 1950.
- Hemphill, John K., Griffiths, Daniel E., and Frederiksen, Norman. Administrative Performance and Personality: A Study of the Principal in a Simulated Elementary School. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962.
- Keppel, Francis. <u>The Necessary Revolution in Education</u>. New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1966.
- Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1966.
- Lindzey, Gardner (ed.). <u>Handbook of Social Psychology</u>. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1954.
- March, James G., and Simon, Herbert A. Organizations. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958.
- Rose, Arnold. The Negro in America. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1964.
- Seeman, Melvin. Social Status and Leadership: The Case of the School Executive. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, The Ohio State University, 1960.

- Simon, Herbert A. Administrative Behavior. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947.
- Stogdill, Ralph M. Individual Behavior and Group Achievement: A Theory. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959.
 - Managers, Employees, Organizations. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1965.
- Stogdill, Ralph M., and Coons, Alvin R. (eds.). Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. Research Monograph Number 88. Columbus, Ohio: The Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, 1957.
- Shartle, Curcal L. <u>Leader Behavior: Its Description and</u> <u>Measurement.</u> Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State <u>University</u>, Bureau of Business Research, Monograph Number 88, 1957.
- Tannebaum, Robert, Weschler, Irving R., and Massarik, Fred. Leadership and Organization: A Behavioral Science Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1961.
- Walker, Helen M., and Low, Joseph. <u>Statistical Inference</u>. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953.
- Winer, B. J. Statistical Principles In Experimental Design. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962.

Articles

- Anderson, Barry D., and Brown, Alan F. "Who's A Good Principal?" <u>The Canadian Administrator</u>, VI (December, 1966), 9-12.
- Bowers, David G., and Seashore, Stanley E. "Predicting Organization Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership," <u>Administrative Science</u> Quarterly, XI, (September, 1966), 238-63.
- Brown, Alan F. "Reactions to Leadership," <u>Educational</u> <u>Administration Quarterly</u>, III (Winter, 1967), 63-73.
- Cawelti, Gordon. "Innovations in High Schools: Who Does What - and Why - and How," <u>Nation's Schools</u>, LXXIX (April, 1967), 56-88.

- Chase, Francis S. "How to Meet Teachers' Expectations of Leadership," Administrator's Notebook, I (April, 1953).
- Chesler, Mark, Schmuck, Richard, and Lippitt, Ronald, "The Principal's Role in Facilitating Innovation," Theory Into Practice, II (December, 1963), 269-77.
- Cunningham, Luvern I. "Viewing Change in School Organizations," <u>Administrator's Notebook</u>, XI (September, 1962).
- Evenson, Warren L. "Leadership Behavior of High-School Principals," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, XLIII (September, 1959), 96-101.
- Getzels, Jacob W., and Guba, Egon G. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," <u>School Review</u>, LXV (Winter, 1957), 423-41.
- Halpin, Andrew W. "The Superintendent's Effectiveness as a Leader," <u>Administrator's Notebook</u>, VII (October, 1958).
- Hills, R. Jean. "The Representative Function: Neglected Dimension of Leadership Behavior," Administrative Quarterly, VII (June, 1963), 83-101.
- . "A New Concept of Staff Relations," <u>Administra-</u> tor's Notebook, IX (September, 1960).
- Holdaway, E. A., and Seger, J. E. "Change and the Principal," <u>The Canadian Administrator</u>, VI (January, 1967), <u>14-16</u>.
- Jacobs, Jan Wayne. "Leader Behavior of the Secondary School Principal," <u>The Bulletin of the National</u> <u>Association of Secondary School Principals</u>, XLIX (October, 1965), 13-17.
- Kraft, Ivor, "The Coming Crisis in Secondary School Principals," <u>The Bulletin of the National Associa-</u> <u>tion of Secondary School Principals</u>, XL (February, <u>1965</u>).
- Lipham, James M. "Organizational Character of Education: Administrative Behavior," <u>Review of Educational</u> <u>Research</u>, XXXIV (October, 1964), 435-54.
- Lortie, Dan C. "Change and Exchange: Reducing Resistance to Innovation," Administrator's Notebook, XII (February, 1964).

- Moser, Robert P. "The Leadership Patterns of School Superintendents and School Principals," <u>Administrator's</u> Notebook, VI (September, 1957).
- Stameshkin, Anne (ed.). "Innovation Study of Nation's High Schools Reveals Important Changes in Recent Years," North Central Association Today, Special Issue, XI (March, 1967).
- Stogdill, Ralph M., Goode, Omar S., and Day, David R. "New Leader Behavior Description Subscales," <u>The Journal</u> of Psychology, LIV (1962), 259-69.
 - . "The Leader Behavior of Corporation Presidents," Personnel Psychology, XVI (1963), 127-32.
- . "The Leader Behavior of United States Senators," The Journal of Psychology, LVI (1963), 3-8.

Unpublished Material

- Garrison, Joe Mac. "The Leader Behavior of Oklahoma Secondary School Principals." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1967.
- Jacobs, Jan Wayne. "Leadership, Size, and Wealth as Related to Curricular Innovations in the Junior High School." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1965.
- Marder, E. "Leader Behavior as Perceived by Subordinates As a Function of Organizational Level," Unpublished Master's Thesis, The Ohio State University Library, 1961.

Other Sources

A Chance for a Change: New School Programs for the Disadvantaged. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Because It Is Right--Educationally (Report of the Advisory Committee on Racial Imbalance and Education, April, 1965.

State Superintendent for Public Instruction, Oklahoma <u>Educational Directory</u>, 109-N (1964), 109-0 (1965), 109-P (1966.) Stogdill, Ralph M. <u>Manual for the Leader Behavior Descrip-</u> <u>tion Questionnaire--Form XII</u>, Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1963.

÷

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE RELATED TO STUDY

. -

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Norman, Oklahoma

Southwest Center For Human Relations Studies

Consultative Center

October 27, 1967

Dear

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at the University of Oklahoma, I am doing a study which involves the identification of practices in public schools which may be characterized as compensatory. I have developed a list of practices from a review of the literature in this area. However, I need the assistance of your expertise to check the accuracy, appropriateness, and completeness of these statements.

If you would take the time to evaluate these itens, it would be greatly appreciated. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience.

Respectfully yours,

Evans H. Harris Graduate Student

EHH/jw Enclosure

4

Study Approved

O. D. Johns, Professor of Education University of Oklahoma

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Norman, Oklahoma

Southwest Center For Human Relations Studies

Consultative Center

November 15, 1967

Dear

Educators and lay people would probably agree that equality of educational opportunity is not yet a reality. Usually, however, there are numerous suggestions as to how this may be accomplished. But more often than not these suggestions have gone unheeded because they frequently come from people who are not directly involved in the situation.

The enclosed questionnaire is a part of a study being made to find out something about compensatory programs that are found in Georgia schools for minority children. The survey will include 119 predominantly Negro schools with grades 1 through 12. Only twenty of these schools will be used for the final sample.

As an administrator, you are one of a small but influential group of educators. Therefore, the help that you can contribute by identifying the compensatory programs in your school is important. It is believed that if we are able to identify programs that are highly contributive to educational opportunity of minority children, the entire public will be benefited. Such information will give some indication of the need for expansion in this area. It would be of value to know, for instance, how administrators view these programs.

The questionnaire is to be strictly anonymous. For the purposes of my study, I am interested in totals, not in names. The value of this study will be greatly increased if respondents provide:

- a candid answer to every statement or question;
- 2. prompt consideration.

Page 2

I would appreciate your giving the questionnaire your considered judgment and returning it to me as soon as possible.

Respectfully,

Evans H. Harris Graduate Student

Note: I would like to visit your school in person if you are among the twenty selected.

-

THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

1775 South College Road Columbus, Ohio 43210

College of Commerce & Administration

Bureau of Business Research Ralph M. Stogdill, Organization

December 4, 1967

Mr. Evans H. Harris Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies The University of Oklahoma Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dear Mr. Harris:

You have our permission to use the LBDQ in your doctoral research.

Sincerely,

Ralph M. Stogdill

RMS/az

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Norman, Oklahoma

Southwest Center for Human Relations Studies

Consultative Center

December 10, 1967

Dear

You are one of a group of Georgia school principals selected to participate in a research study investigating the relationship between the leader behavior of the principal and educational innovations in the school. A secondary purpose of the study is concerned with obtaining dependable knowledge about the leadership behavior of school principals as it is perceived by their professional colleagues. Enclosed is a description of the project and what is required of those who participate.

You are asked to:

1. Furnish the researcher with a list of your staff members--this may be assistant principals, counselors, and/or faculty members--who have worked directly under your supervision for a minimum of two years prior to the present school year of 1966-67.

2. Encourage your <u>staff members who are selected</u> to fill out the questionnaire and return it to the researcher.

Although the quustionnaire concerns your leader behavior as it is perceived by your work-group, the research is not concerned with the scores of a particular principal but with the scores for the entire sample of principals as a whole.

Elaborate precautions will be taken to protect the anonymity of you, your school, and the other participants. The scores by which the individual members of your staff describe your leader behavior will not be revealed. These scores will be averaged so that you, and you alone, will know how your staff, as a group, perceive you to behave. The findings will be reported in such a way that it will be impossible for anyone to identify any individual principal or any individual school. Please make this

¢

Page 2

December 10, 1967

clear to all the members of your staff who participate in the study. Please emphasize, too, that all data, and especially all references to you as an individual, will be treated in absolute professional confidence.

When the study has been completed and the data have been analyzed, you will be given a complete report on the findings.

We greatly appreciate your cooperation, and hope that you and the members of your staff will be able to participate in this study. Please fill out the enclosed form indicating your willingness to participate and return it, together with a list of those staff members who meet the aforementioned delimitations, to me in the enclosed envelope.

Please, may we hear from you immediately as we must complete the gathering of the data before the present school term is completed. If you have any questions concerning the study, please phone me collect at any time.

Sincerely,

Evans H. Harris Graduate Student

EHH/jw Enclosure (2)

THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF SELECTED PRINCIPALS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AS VIEWED BY THE STAFF

The purpose of this study is to obtain dependable knowledge concerning the relationship between the leader behavior of school principals and compensatory educational programs made in his school. The schools selected for the study are predominantly Negro schools with grades 1 through 12 in collaboration with the Kettering Foundation's Institute for the Development of Educational Activity.

Knowledge gained from this study can be useful in several ways:

- 1. It can contribute to administrative and leadership theory by testing the presumed relationships between the leadership of the principal and the amount of change and compensatory education in his school.
- 2. It can provide the respondent principal with an excellent and badly needed method of determining how his professional colleagues view his behavior.
- 3. It can suggest to the principal methods of improving his leadership skills.
- 4. It can suggest to the principal effective methods to be used in encouraging curricular change.

The instrument being used for this part of the study is the <u>Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire</u> as developed by the Personnel Research Board at Ohio State University. The questionnaire is a reliable instrument that has been widely used in similar studies in other states. The LBDQ is in multiple choice format, containing one hundred items, each of which describes the behavior of the leader by marking for each item one of five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, sometimes, and never.

Plan of the Study

A sample of 30 principals has been selected from the total group of 60 Georgia schools. From each school we would like to secure the following information:

> A description by each of seven staff members of how they perceive the principal behaves as a leader.

In each case the description will be in terms of responses to the one hundred items included in the <u>Leader Behavior</u> <u>Description Questionnaire</u>.

Each respondent will be asked to fill out one <u>LBDQ</u> which should require only about thirty minutes to complete. I will visit the school and administer the questionnaire.

Results of these questionnaires will be treated in the strictest professional confidence.

1. No member of the organization will see any completed questionnaire other than the one he fills out himself.

2. Each respondent will be assigned a code number. Thereafter, the data will be analyzed entirely in terms of these code numbers with absolutely no reference to the names of the individual respondents.

3. Upon receipt of the seven staff member questionnaires, two will be discarded at random. The remaining five will be used to compute the principal's mean score. As a result <u>no one</u> can be sure which five respondents' scores make up the average.

4. No one can ever know how an individual reported on the questionnaire. Only the <u>average</u> score of a <u>randomly</u> selected group of five staff members will be reported.

5. The results of the questionnaire will be reported in terms of group trends and relationships. The research is <u>not</u> concerned with the scores of a particular principal, but in the relationship among the scores for the sample as a whole.

6. <u>In no case will any individual school or person</u> be identified or in any way portrayed in an unfavorable <u>manner</u>.

Confirmation Form

Dear Mr. Harris:

Check the appropriate blanks:

_____ I shall be most happy to participate in this research.

I will be unable to participate in this study.

Participating principals will receive a summary of the findings of the research.

 Name
 School
Address

ŧ.

List of Staff Members

The following staff members have been with me for at least two years (since 1965) and are willing to participate in the study. (Please list at least ten staff members with whom you work. You may enclose a duplicated list with appropriate staff members checked if you prefer.)

1	9.	
2	10.	
3		
4.	12.	
5	13.	
6	14.	
8.		

APPENDIX B

Y.

COPY OF LBDQ-XII, ANSWER SHEET AND RECORD SHEET

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE--FORM XII

Originated by staff members of The Ohio State Leadership Studies and revised by the Bureau of Business Research

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "group," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term, "members," refers to all the people in the unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

Published by

Bureau of Business Research College of Commerce and Administration The Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

Copyright 1962

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether he (A) always, (b) often,
 (c) occasionally, (D) seldom or (E) never acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around <u>one</u> of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.
 - A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never

e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below. Example: He often acts as described.....A B C D E Example: He never acts as described....A B C D EExample: He occasionally acts as described..A B C D E

1.	He acts as the spokesman of the groupA	В	с	D	E
2.	He waits patiently for the results of a decisionA	в	с	D	E
3.	He makes pep talks to stimulate the groupA	В	с	D	E
4.	He lets group members know what is expected of themA	в	с	D	E
5.	He allows the members complete freedom in their workA	в	с	D	E
6.	He is hesitant about taking initiative in the groupA	в	с	D	E
7.	He is friendly and approachableA	в	С	D	E
8.	He encourages overtime workA	В	С	D	E
9.	He makes accurate decisionsA	в	С	D	E

	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
10.	He gets along well with the people above himA	B) C	D	E
11.	He publicizes the activities of the groupA	в	с	D	E
12.	He becomes anxious when he cannot find out what is coming nextA	в	с	D	E
13.	His arguments are convincingA	в	с	D	Е
14.	He encourages the use of uniform proceduresA	в	с	D	E
15.	He permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problemsA	в	с	D	E
16.	He fails to take necessary actionA	В	С	D	Е
17.	He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the groupA	в	с	D	E
18.	He stresses being ahead of competing groupsA	В	с	D	Е
19.	He keeps the group working together as a teamA	в	с	D	E
20.	He keeps the group in good standing with higher authorityA	в	с	D	E
21.	He speaks as the representative of the groupA	в	с	D	E
22.	He accepts defeat in strideA	В	с	D	E
23.	He argues persuasively for his point of viewA	в	с	D	E
24。	He tries out his ideas in the groupA	в	С	D	E
25.	He encourages intitative in the group membersA	в	с	D	E

•	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
26.	He lets other persons take away his leadership in the groupA	В	с	D	Е
27.	He puts suggestions made by the group into operationA	В	с	D	E
28.	He needles members for greater effortA	В	С	D	Е
29.	He seems able to predict what is coming nextA	в	с	D	E
30.	He is working hard for a promotionA	В	С	D	E
31.	He speaks for the group when visitors are presentA	в	С	D	E
32.	He accepts delays without becoming upsetA	в	с	D	E
33.	He is a very persuasive talkerA	В	С	D	E
34.	He makes his attitudes clear to the groupA	В	с	D	E
35.	He lets the members do their work the way they think bestA	в	с	Ð	E
36.	He lets some members take advantage of himA	в	C	מ	E
37∘	He treats all group members as his equalsA	в	с	D	E
38.	He keeps the work moving at a rapid paceA	в	с	D	E
39.	He settles conflicts when they occur in the groupA	в	с	D	Е
40.	His superiors act favorably on most of his suggestionsA	в	с	D	E
41.	He represents the group at outside meetingsA	в	с	D	E

.....

	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
42.	He becomes anxious when waiting for new developmentsA	В	с	D	E
43.	He is very skillful in an argumentA	В	с	D	Е
44.	He decides what shall be done and how it shall be doneA	в	с	D	E
45.	He assigns a task, then lets the members handle itA	в	с	D	E
46.	He is the leader of the group in name onlyA	в	с	D	E
47.	He gives advance notice of changesA	В	С	D	E
48.	He pushes for increased productionA	В	С	D	E
49.	Things usually turn out as he predictsA	В	С	D	E
50.	He enjoys the privileges of his positionA	в	с	D	E
51.	He handles complex problems efficiently.A	В	С	D	E
52.	He is able to tolerate postponement and uncertaintyA	в	С	D	E
53.	He is not a very convincing talkerA	В	С	D	E
54。	He assigns group members to particular tasksA	B	с	D	E
55.	He turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to itA	в	С	D	E
56.	He backs down when he ought to stand firmA	в	с	D	E
57.	He keeps to himselfA	В	С	D	E
58.	He asks the members to work harderA	В	С	D	E
59。	He is accurate in predicting the trend of eventsA	в	с	D	Е

	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
60.	He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group membersA	в	с	D	E
61.	He gets swamped by detailsA	В	С	D	E
62.	He can wait just so long, then blows up.A	В	С	D	E
63.	He speaks from a strong inner convictionA	в	C	D	Ē
64.	He makes sure that his part in the group is understood by the group membersA	в	с	D	E
65.	He is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of actionA	В	с	D	E
66.	He lets some members have authority that he should keepA	в	с	D	E
67.	He looks out for the personal welfare of group membersA	в	с	D	E
68.	He permits the members to take it easy in their workA	в	с	D	E
69.	He sees to it that the work of the group is coordinatedA	в	с	D	E
70.	His word carries weight with his superiorsA	в	с	D	E
71.	He gets things all tangled upA	В	С	D	E
72.	He remains calm when uncertain about coming eventsA	в	с	D	E
73.	He is an inspiring talkerA	В	С	D	E
74.	He schedules the work to be doneA	В	с	D	E
75.	He allows the group a high degree of initiativeA	в	с	D	E

	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
76.	He takes full charge when emergencies ariseA	В	с	D	Е
77.	He is willing to make changesA	В	с	D	Е
78.	He drives hard when there is a job to be doneA	в	с	D	E
79.	He helps group members settle their differencesA	в	с	D	E
80.	He gets what he asks for from his superiorsA	в	с	D	Е
81.	He can reduce a madhouse to system and orderA	в	с	D	E
82.	He is able to delay action until the proper time comesA	в	с	D	E
83.	He persuades others that his ideas are to their advantageA	в	С	D	E
84.	He maintains definite standards of performanceA	в	С	D	E
85.	He trusts the members to exercise good judgmentA	в	с	D	E
86.	He overcomes attempts made to challenge his leadershipA	в	C	D	E
87.	He refuses to explain his actionsA	в	С	D	Е
88.	He urges the group to beat its previous recordA	в	с	D	E
89.	He anticipates problems and plans for themA	в	с	D	E
90.	He is working his way to the topA	В	С	D	E
91.	He gets confused when too many demands are made of himA	В	с	D	E

-

. .

	A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never				
92.	He worries about the outcome of any new procedureA	в	с	D	E
93.	He can inspire enthusiasm for a projectA	в	с	D	E
94.	He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulationsA	в	с	D	E
95.	He permits the group to set its own paceA	В	C	D	Е
96.	He is easily recognized as the leader of the groupA	в	с	D	Ē
97.	He acts without consulting the groupA	В	с	D	E
98.	He keeps the group working up to capacityA	в	С	D	E
99.	He maintains a closely knit groupA	В	С	D	E
100.	He maintains cordial relations with superiorsA	в	с	D	E

SCORING KEY--LBDQ FORM XII

-

*Starred items are scored 1 2 3 4 5

All other items are scored 5 4 3 2 1

.

81.	*61.	41.	21.	1.
82.	*62.	*42.	22.	2.
83.	63.	43.	23.	3.
84.	64.	44.	24.	4.
85.	*65.	45.	25.	5.
86.	*66.	*46.	*26.	*6.
*87.	67.	47.	27.	7.
88.	*68.	48.	28.	8.
89.	69.	49.	29.	9.
· 90.	70.	50.	30.	10.
*91.	*71.	51.	31.	11.
*92.	72.	52.	32.	*12
93.	73.	*53.	33.	13.
94.	74.	54.	34.	14.
95.	75.	- 55.	35.	15.
96.	76.	*56.	* 36.	*16.
*97•	77.	*57.	37.	17.
98.	78.	58.	38.	18.
99.	79.	59.	39.	19.
100.	80.	60.	40.	20.

LBDQ FORM XII--RECORD SHEET

		۰.										Tota	<u>ls</u>
1.	Representation	1	11	21	31	41						``````````````````````````````````````	
2.	Reconciliation						51	61	71	81	91	()
3.	Tol. Uncertainty	2	12	22	32	42	52	62	72	82	92	()
4.	Persuasion	3	13	23	33	43	53	63	73	83	93	()
5.	Structure	4	14	24	34	44	54	64	74	84	94	()
6.	Tol. Freedom	5	15	25	35	45	55	65	75	85	95	()
7 .	Role Assumption	6	16	26	36	46	56	66	76	86	96	()
8.	Consideration	7	17	27	37	47	57	67	77	87	97	()
9.	Production Emph.	8	18	28	38	48	58	68	78	88	98	()
10.	Predictive Acc.	9		29		49	59			89		()
11.	Integration		19		39			69	79		99	()
12.	Superior Orient.	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	()

l I 4

ļ

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE ON COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES, PANEL OF EXPERTS, AND SUMMARY OF REPLIES FROM THE PANEL OF EXPERTS

QUESTIONNAIRE ON COMPENSATORY EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES

<u>Purpose of the Questionnaire</u>: On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to identify compensatory educational programs. Each item describes a different kind of program, but does not ask you to judge the quality of the program, only whether it is present in your school. Each item should be considered separately. The only purpose is to make it possible for you to identify compensatory educational programs in your school.

Note: The term "pupil" refers to elementary children.

The term "student" refers to junior and senior high level.

Please indicate your response by placing an "X" in either the yes or no column for each item listed. If your school is providing compensatory programs not listed, please add these in the spaces provided.

A "yes" response indicates that the practice is present and operative.

A "no" response indicates that the practice is missing, or that it is present to such a limited degree that its effectiveness is negligible.

Please return questionnaire to:

Evans H. Harris Consultative Center Extension Division South Campus Building 4 Norman, Oklahoma

	Question	Yes	No
1.	Does your school have an orientation program for new pupils and students who change schools or classes during the school term?		
2.	Does your school have a program especially designed to help pupils and students improve their self-concept?		
3.	Does your school have a talent discovery program for disadvantaged students?		
4.	Does your school provide a model home program that demonstrates to pupils and students how they can learn and develop in a home situation?		
5.	Does your school employ a social worker to strengthen the relationship between the school and the community through home visitation?		
6.	Does your school have an organized program for providing health services for disadvantaged pupils and students?		
7.	Does your school coordinate in a systematic way the efforts of the public health and welfare services?		
8.	Does your school have an organized program of guidance and/or counseling for disadvantaged children in grades K-12?		
9.	Does your school or community provide psychological services for disadvantaged students?		
10.	Is family counseling service provided in homes of disadvantaged children?		
11.	Does your school make special provision for deficiencies in pre-school experiences of pupils from deprived homes?		

-

	Question	Yes	No
12.	Does your school provide for parent participation in solving school problems?		
13.	Does your school cooperate with Department of Housing and other agencies in an attempt to reduce family mobility of disadvantaged pupils?		
14.	Does your school provide breakfast for pupils and students whose families cannot provide meals?		
15.	Does your school or community see that disadvantaged pupils and students are clothed?		
16.	Is a pre-first grade program available to the pupils of your community?	त.	
17.	Does your school provide tutorial service for disadvantaged pupils and students free of charge?		
18.	Does your school have a special program for disruptive malfunctioning pupils?	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
19.	Does your school have work study programs in which students learn in relation to the work they do?		
20.	Does your school provide vocational education for juniors and seniors in high school who are unable to profit from scholastic subjects?		
21.	Does your school have summer programs which blend recreation and basic education?		"
22.	Does your school offer individualized instruction?		
23.	Does your school have non-graded blocks for the elementary grades?		

	Question	Yes	No
24.	Does your school have special programs to improve test taking skills?		
25.	Does your curriculum emphasize the development of attentional skills?		
26.	Does your school have a comprehensive reading program which copes with reading deficiencies at every grade level?		
27。	Does your school provide a special language development program for students and pupils who are deficient in language skills?		-
28.	Does your curriculum permit students and pupils to function on two linguistic levels: formal language necessary for scholastic achievement and informal language usage for informal classroom situations?		-
29.	Does your school employ specialists in art, music, and other curriculum areas?		
30.	Has the ratio of male teachers to female teachers been increased in the past three years?		
31.	Do your secondary teachers have at least one free, unassigned preparation period daily to plan their work?		
32.	Does your school obtain results of reading readiness tests on each child at the beginning of the first grade?		
33.	Does your school follow a consistent policy concerning promotion and retention of students?		
34.	Does your school emphasize careful evaluation of records of disadvantaged youngsters?		

. -

	Question	Yes	No
35.	Does your school have a special program to help inexperienced teachers to adopt methods of teaching which are especially well suited to disadvantaged youngsters?		
36.	Does your school require teachers to study methods of discipline and materials suited to disadvantaged youngsters?		-
37.	Does your school provide opportunities for teachers to experiment with a broad range of teaching materials, techniques, and administrative approaches in order to fit the curriculum more closely to the needs of disadvantaged youngsters?	-	
38.	Is your school committed to the philos- ophy that compensatory education should be provided for disadvantaged youngsters?		

If your school has programs in addition to those listed, please list them below:

Panel of Experts

- Dr. Robert S. Lankton Research Director Detroit Public Schools 5057 Woodward Street Detroit, Michigan
- 2. Dr. William B. Helton Research Director Dallas Public Schools 3700 Ross Avenue Dallas, Texas
- 3. Dr. Thomas Smith Research Director Oklahoma City Board of Education Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
- Dr. Dwight E. Beechers Board of Education - City Hall Buffalo, New York
- 5. Dr. Fredrick Shaw, Acting Director Office of Research Evaluation 110 Livingston Street Brooklyn, New York
- 6. Dr. Stanley Fitzpatrick Director of Research New Orleans Public Schools New Orleans, Louisiana
- 7. Dr. Howard Bowman Director of Research Los Angeles Public Schools Los Angeles, California
- 8. Dr. Robert G. Rainey Director of Research Minneapolis Public Schools Minneapolis, Minnesota
- 9. Dr. John L. Hayman Director of Research Public Schools Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
- 10. Clyde Ba<u>er</u> Director of Research Public Schools Chicago, Illinois

*Items 13 and 20 were eliminated.

18.	17.	16.	15.	14.	13.	12.	11.	10.	• 6	8 °	7.	6.	ড •	4.	з •	2.	1.	
0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	о.К.	о.К.	о.К.	о.к.	о.К.	Dallas									
0	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	Oklahoma City												
о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	0	О.К.	о.к.	0	О.К.	о.к.	0	о.к.	о.к.	0	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	Buffalo
О.К.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	New York												
0.K.	0	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	0	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0	0	0	Minneapolis
0	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	0	О.К.	Los Angeles								
О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	0	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	Chicago							
О.К.	О.К.	0.K.	Õ.K.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	о.К.	о.к.	New Orleans									
О.К.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	Philadelphia
о.К.	о.к.	0	О.К.	О.К.	0	0	о.к.	0	0.K.	О.К.	О.К.	0	0	0.K.	О.К.	0	0	Detroit
8	6	6	10	10	6*	6	10	8	10	10	6	6	6	9	6	7	ω	Total of O.K.'s

SUMMARY OF REPLIES FROM A PANEL OF EXPERTS

.

122

_	; \ \		•	_	-	-		_	_		
	Dallas	Oklahoma City	Buffalo	New York	Minneapolis	Los Angeles	Chicago	New Orleans	Philadelphia	Detroit	Total of O.K.'s
19.	0 K	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	10
20.	0	0	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	0	О.К.	О.К.	0	6*
21.	0.K.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	0	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	9
22.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	10
23.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	0	0.K.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	9
24.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	10
25.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	0	О.К.	О.К.	0-K.	О.К.	9
26.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	0.K.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	10
27.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	10
28.	О.К.	о.к.	о.К.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	0 • K •	О.К.	10
29.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	10
30.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	10
31.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	10
32.	О.К.	о∶К.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	0.K.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	10
33°	о.к.	о.К.	o.K.	О.К.	0.K.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	10
34.	0. К.	о.к.	о.К.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	10
35.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	О.К.	о.к.	О.К.	10
36.	0.K.	О.К.	о.к.	0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	10
37.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	о.к.	о.к.	О.К.	10
*Ite	ms 13	and	20 wer	e eli	minat	ced.					

l

*Items 13 and 20 were eliminated.

SUMMARY--Continued

i N

40.	39.	38.	
о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	Dallas
О.К.	0.K.	0.K.	Oklahoma City
о.к.	о.к.	о.к.	Buffalo
о.к.	о.к.	0.K.	New York
0.K.	о.к.	О.К.	Minneapolis
0.K.	о.к.	о.к.	Los Angeles
0.K. 0.K.	О.К.	о.к.	Chicago
О.К.	0.K. 0.K.	О.К.	New Orleans
0.K. 0.K. 0.K.	О.К.	0.K.	Philadelphia
О.К.	0.K.	0.К.	Detroit
10	10	10	Total of O.K.'s

i.

SUMMARY-Continued

APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDENT SCHOOLS, AND PRINCIPALS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

· •

En	rollment	Size of Staff	Type of School	Type of Community*	Number of Compensatory Programs
1.	0ver 2500	76	Combination	Small Town	26
2.	500-1499	40	Combination	Small Town	. 28
3.	1500-2499	48	Combination	Small Town	-
4.	500-1499	37	Combination	Med. Town	26
5.	1500-2499	45	Combination	Small Town	26
6.	1500-2499	40	Combination	Small Town	
7.	500-1499	26	Combination	Small Town	
8.	1500-2499	32	Combination	Small Town	30
9.	500-1499	38	Combination	Small Town	
10.	500-1499	24	Combination	Small Town	—
11.	500-1499	20	Combination	Small Town	
12.	500-1499	25	Combination	Rural	21
13.	500-1499	24	Combination	Rural	22
14.	1500-2499	56	Combination	Med. Town	27
15.	500-1499	23	Combination	Small Town	27
	Mean	41			26.1
Low	Compensative	School	Ls		
1.	-200	8	Combination	Small Town	3
2.	1500-2499	32	Combination	Med. Town	17
3.	500-1499	22	Combination	Small Town	
4.	500-1499	32	Combination	Small Town	
5.	500-1499	26	Combination	Suburban	18
6.	500-1499	22	Combination	Small Town	17
7.	1500-2499	48	Combination	Small Town	
8.	1500-2499	37	Combination	Small Town	15
9.	500-1499	32	Combination	Small Town	17
10.	1500-2499	50	Combination	Small Town	<u> </u>
11.	-200-499	17	Combination	Small Town	0
12.	500-1499	22	Combination	Small Town	15
13.	500-1499	31	Combination	Small Town	
14.	200-499	16	Combination	Small Town	17
15.	500-1499	21	Combination	Small Town	19
<u> </u>	Mean	27.3	- • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		13

High Compensative Schools

~ ~

*Suburban--over 25,000 Medium Town--from 10,000-15,000 Small Town--5,000-10,000 Rural-- less than 2,500

PRINCIPALS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

7	Malter C King	
1.	Adel	
2.	Alamo	
3.	Barnesville	
4.	Blakely John Harris	
5.	Butler	
6.	Camilla	
7.	Conyers	
8.	Covington	
9.	Douglas Joseph Murray	
10.	Dublin, B. D. Perry B. A. Johnson	
11.	Dublin, Mary Flemming Edward Copenny	
12.	Eatonton D. D. White	
13.	Elberton James Hawes	
	Fort Gaines	
	Georgetown	
16.	Gibson	
	Hazelhurst	
18.	Jefferson	
19.	Lynwood Park H. B. Coleman	
20.	Lumpkin Lawrence Young	
20.	Madison Mrs. Marie Martin	
22.	Newton	
	Roberta Jerry Powell	
23.		
24.		
25.	SwainsboroD. D. Boston	
26.	Thomaston	
27.	Thomasville John Jones	
28.	Washington Mrs. Thelma McLendon	L
29.	Watkinsville	
30.	Wrightsville	

APPENDIX E

· ---

1

۲

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS (MODIFIED--KUDER-RICHARDSON)

	Subscale	Army Division	Highway Patrol	Aircraft Executives	Ministers	Community Leaders	Corporation Presidents	Labor Presidents	College Presidents	Senators
1.	Representation	.82	.85	.74	• 55	•59	•54	.70	.66	.80
2.	Demand Reconcili- ation			•73	•77	.58	•59	.81		.81
3.	Tolerance Uncertain- ty	.58	.66	.82	.84	.85	•79	.82	.80	.83
4.	Persuasiveness	.84	.85	.84	•77	•79	.69	.80	.76	.82
5.	Initiating Structure	.79	•75	.78	.70	.72	.77	.78	.80	.72
6.	Tolerance Freedom	.81	.79	.86	•75	.86	.84	•58	.73	.72
7.	Role Assumption	.85	.84	.84	•75	.83	•57	.86	•75	.65
8.	Consideration	.76	.87	.84	.85	•77.	.78	.83	.76	.85
9.	Production Emphasis	.70	•79	•79	•59	•79	.71	.65	•74	• 38
10.	Predictive Accuracy	.76	.82	•91	.83	.62	.84	.87		
11.	Integration	•73	•79							
12.	Superior Orientation	.64	•75	.81			.66		.60	

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS (MODIFIED KUDER-RICHARDSON)

.

APPENDIX F

. .

. .

LOADINGS OF LBDQ-12 SUBSCALES ON TWO VARIMAX FACTORS

LOADINGS OF LBDQ-12 SUBSCALES ON TWO

	11	actor I System" ientation	Factor II "Person" Orientation	Identi- fying Factor
1.	Production Emphasis	.87	,14	I
2.	Initiating Structure	.98	.10	I
3.	Representation	.78	.17	I
<u>.</u> 4.	Role Assumption	.77	.41	I
5.	Persuasiveness	•73	.42	I
6.	Superior Orientation	•57	.50	I
7.	Predictive Accuracy	.62	.63	II
8.	Integration	.62	.68	II
9.	Demand Reconciliatio	n .51	•73	II
10.	Consideration	.29	.86	II
11.	Tol. of Freedom	.09	• 35	II
12.	Tol. of Uncertainty	11	.86	II
	Percent Total Varian	ce 40	36	

VARIMAX FACTORS $(N = 170)^1$

¹Brown, <u>Educational Administrative Quarterly</u>, III, 69.

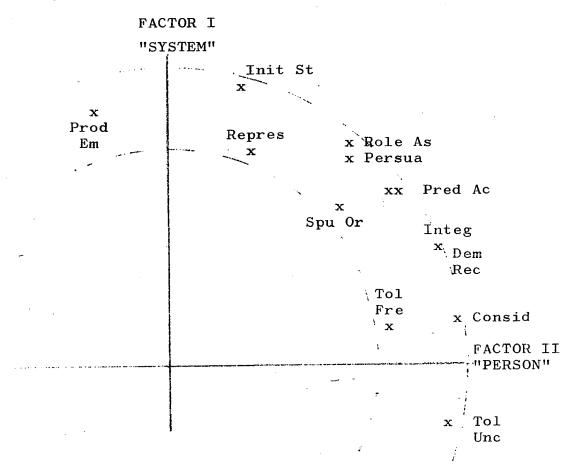
APPENDIX G

A CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE FOR LEADERSHIP

a

A CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE FOR LEADERSHIP¹

The theoretical antecedents of the proposed system and person factor labels help to amplify their meaning as does the pattern of obtained subscale loadings which, when properly arranged by Brown, define a gradual shading of meaning from one subscale to another.



LBDQ-12 SUBSCALE LOADINGS ON FACTORS I AND II

¹Brown, <u>Educational Administration Quarterly</u>, III, pp. 69-70.

APPENDIX H

.

"t" TEST FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS

"t" TEST FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEANS¹

<u>When O_1 and O_2 are Unknown But Presumed Equal</u>

An unbiased estimate of σ^2 based on data from one sample is provided by

$$s^{2} = \frac{N \leq X^{2} - (\leq X)^{2}}{N (N-1)}$$

An unbiased estimate of σ^2 based on data from two samples is provided by

$$s^{2} = \frac{(N_{1}-1) s_{1}^{2} + (N_{2}-1) s_{2}^{2}}{N_{1} + N_{2}-2}$$

An estimate of the variance of the difference between the two means is provided by

$$s\frac{2}{X_1-X_2} = s^2 \frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1N_2}$$

Then when $\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$, the formula for t becomes

$$t = \overline{\overline{X}_{1} - \overline{X}_{2}}$$

$$\sqrt{s^{2} \frac{N_{1} + N_{2}}{N_{1} - N_{2}}}$$

and this has "Student's" distribution with $N_1 + N_2 - 2$ degrees of freedom.

¹Helen M. Walker and Joseph Lev, <u>Statistical</u> <u>Inference</u>, (Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953), pp. 155-56.