

9

4

5

2

**This dissertation has been
microfilmed exactly as received**

69-18,452

**GAUT, Robert Neal, 1932-
TEACHER-PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT OF
PRINCIPAL PERFORMANCE IN SELECTED
SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF OKLAHOMA.**

**The University of Oklahoma, Ed.D., 1969
Education, administration**

University Microfilms, Inc., Ann Arbor, Michigan

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

**TEACHER-PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT OF PRINCIPAL
PERFORMANCE IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF OKLAHOMA**

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY

ROBERT NEAL GAUT

Norman, Oklahoma

1969

**TEACHER-PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT OF PRINCIPAL
PERFORMANCE IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF OKLAHOMA**

APPROVED BY

Glynn Snider

W R Fulton

Henry Angelino

[Signature]

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

A great many individuals and school systems have contributed their time, their knowledge, and not infrequently their patience to the development of this study. To these individuals and school systems I sincerely convey my gratitude for their cooperation.

Special acknowledgment is accorded the director of this study, Dr. Glenn R. Snider, for his able guidance and assistance throughout the period of research. In addition, appreciation is expressed to Dr. Henry Angelino, Dr. William Fulton, and Dr. O. D. Johns, for reading the manuscript and for their suggestions as members of the writer's doctoral committee.

Lastly, I am deeply appreciative to my wife Louise, for her continuous encouragement and patience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vi
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
The Leadership Dimension	5
Need for the Study	8
Statement of the Problem	11
Hypotheses to be Tested	11
Scope and Limitations	12
Definitions and Use of Terms	12
Design of the Study	15
Overview of the Study	18
 II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	 19
Introduction	19
Trait and Behavior Theory	20
Behavior and Role Theory	21
Situational Theory	25
Tasks of the Principalsip	32
The Process of Leadership	35
Summary	38
 III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY	 40
Control and Construction of the Interview	
Instrument	41
Pre-testing of the Instrument	46
Population Characteristics	47
The Sample	48
Administering the Instrument	49

Chapter	Page
IV. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	52
Statistical Analysis	53
Category I: Practices in the Improvement of Curriculum and Instruction	55
Category II: Principal's Task In Improving Teacher Effectiveness	61
Category III: Assessing Staff Relationships .	68
Category IV: Perceptions Held Regarding The School Situation	75
Normative Data Analysis	81
Miscellaneous Findings	83
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	84
Summary	84
Conclusions	92
Recommendations	93
BIBLIOGRAPHY	95
APPENDIXES	102
Appendix A	103
Appendix B	106
Appendix C	107
Appendix D	108

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. The Ten Largest School Districts	13
2. The Twelve Schools Ranked by Size of Certified Staff	50
3. Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items Regarding Curriculum and Introduction ...	56
4. Results of Collective Positive-Negative Item Analysis for Teacher Respondents By School: Category I	57
5. Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items Regarding Principal Success in Improving Teacher Effectiveness	62
6. Results of Collective Positive-Negative Item Analysis for Teacher Respondents By School: Category II	64
7. Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items Assessing Staff Relationships	69
8. Results of Collective Positive-Negative Item Analysis for Teacher Respondents By School: Category III.....	70
9. Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items Regarding Other Situational Influences on School Operation	76
10. Results of Collective Positive-Negative Item Analysis for Teacher Respondents By School: Category IV	77
11. Graphic Comparison of Collective Positive-Negative Responses to the Twenty-Two Items In the Twelve Schools	82

**TEACHER-PRINCIPAL ASSESSMENT OF PRINCIPAL
PERFORMANCE IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF OKLAHOMA**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Within the past fifteen years education in our country has been influenced tremendously by political, social, and technological changes both here and abroad. The tasks of professional educators are often significantly affected by major changes in these areas. President Kennedy left the challenge with the Congress in 1963 when he stressed the importance of education by saying:

For the individual, the doors to the schoolhouse, to the library and to the college lead to the richest treasures of our open society; to the power of knowledge - to the training and skills necessary for productive employment - to the wisdom, the ideas, and the culture which enrich life - and to the creative, self-disciplined understanding of society needed for good citizenship in today's changing and challenging world.

For the nation, increasing the quality and availability of education is vital to both our national security and our domestic well-being. A free nation can rise no higher than the standard of excellence set

in its schools and colleges.¹

The recognition of the need for wholesome working relationships among all groups in society is especially pronounced in recent years. All American citizens must work to strengthen the democratic processes. Employer-employee understandings and cooperation will lend strength to the nation in its struggle to preserve its many cherished freedoms for its citizens. Better methods of working together are being explored in order to alleviate tensions at sensitive pressure points in society.

It is imperative that working relationships in the educational enterprise undergo continuous examination. Present operational practices indicate that the role of schools in implementing and preserving the democratic processes require them to operate in the democratic tradition. Yet evidence exists which indicates they do not.

It is fair to state, however, that many educational leaders who believe in democratic values and leadership, and who possess the courage and perception to identify situations in which specific action should be taken to implement purpose do not do so. They simply

¹Public Papers of the President of the United States, John F. Kennedy, containing the Public Messages, Speeches, and Statements of the President. (January 1 to November 22, 1963). 1963 Special Message to the Congress on Education. January 29, 1963, p. 105.

lack confidence in their ability to create conditions which will contribute toward the resolution of such controversy.¹

The current operational patterns of education have roots deeply embedded in the past which grew out of a formal theory of operation. If education is to fulfill its role in a democratic society, democratic process in the operation of schools must not only be professed but practiced.

Traditions often inhibit the release of abilities that exist within complex organizations. The institutions of many societies are often characterized by their capacity to stratify people into layers of caste and status. This is no less true of education as an institution. According to Hughes:

...educational duties cannot be classified into levels of importance or difficulty. This means that in an educational organization it is impossible to distribute authority in terms of importance of an individual or of difficulty of the function performed.²

As each educational duty assumes an identity, the means by which authority evolves becomes more transparent. The way the educational leader performs with reference to

¹Glenn R. Snider, "Educational Leadership: An Analysis," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. No. 300 (April, 1965), p. 81.

²James Monroe Hughes, Human Relations in Educational Organization, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 54.

the resolution of each task demonstrates his concepts of implementing the democratic process.

The high school principal has assumed a multitude of roles and responsibilities within the context of educational systems. The complexity of his position is now generally recognized. Much of the research during the past decade has been concerned with analyses of the tasks assigned to the school principal, and perceptions of his role by other professional educators.

In referring to the various task areas of the principalship, Griffiths stated:

There is an obvious validity concerning the necessity of what is called the task. Certainly these tasks have been and are now part and parcel of the job of administration.¹

The professional literature identifies a number of task areas which are integral to the position of the principalship. Included are: (1) instruction and curriculum development; (2) pupil personnel; (3) community school leadership; (4) staff personnel; (5) school plant; (6) transportation; (7) organization and structure; and (8) finance.²

¹Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 53.

²Southern States Cooperative Program in Education Administration, Better Teaching in School Administration, SSCPEA (Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955), p. 124

For the purpose of this study it was decided to determine the opinions of principals and teachers regarding items important to the improvement of instruction and curriculum, and the area relating to staff relationships.

While much has been written about the principal and his roles, the continuous need to clarify and identify the characteristics of his actual performance is amplified in an age earmarked by change. The need also exists for developing a new conceptionalization of the principalship as a professional position.

The Leadership Dimension

The imperative of leadership in the role of the high school principalship is stressed throughout the literature describing the elements of this position. Many principals have clearly manifested an identity within the spectrum of leadership definition. As Corbally states: "Principalship" and "leadership" are synonymous in education.¹

Like many words, the term "leadership" suggests a behavior pattern. For a high school principal working in North America, the values of democracy with many inherent

¹John E. Corbally, Jr., T. J. Jenson, and W. Frederick Staub, Educational Administration: The Secondary School, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), p. 138.

complexities accent the difficulty of comprehending this position. Many investigations by students of school administration have contributed to better understanding of this role. As Thomas suggests: "Investigations of the principalship have changed direction from studies of the principal as an individual to a current trend which is concerned with his leadership in the development of quality relationships among people."¹

Three theoretical principles of leadership are offered by Gibb:

1. Leadership is always relative to the situation. A group must be confronted with a common problem that is being solved through communication and interaction before any leadership can be displayed.
2. Leadership is always directed toward some group goal. It is the quality that comes out as the group moves about together.
3. The third principle is an outgrowth of the second, in that leadership is a process of mutual stimulation. The leader must be a member of the group with the same objectives in mind. He can be superior to the group, but he cannot differ too greatly from the followers. He must have many of the qualities of the followers.²

¹Hobart F. Thomas, "Sensitivity Training and the Educator," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals: Administrative Leadership in Theory and in Practice. V. 51, No. 322, (November, 1967), p. 88.

²Cecil A. Gibb, "The Principles and Traits of Leadership," C. G. Brown, The Study of Leadership, (Danville: Interstate Printers, 1958), pp. 267-284.

These postulates provide an insight to current trends in the investigation of leadership. The tasks and processes through which leadership must be applied have unique characteristics in virtually any administered organization. Chamberlain and Kindred offered this perspective on the leadership role of the principal as follows:

The problem of administering a school democratically becomes one of providing opportunities for the full participation of teachers, as well as pupils, parents, and other school employees, in the formulation of educational policies, the planning of sound programs, the execution of plans, and the evaluation of results. It is one thing to consult teachers and other interested individuals before decisions are reached and another thing to share with them the responsibility that goes along with the making of decisions. It is this latter area of common consent that characterizes democracy in school administration.¹

Principals perform their tasks in a vast number of situations. Even as situations vary, principals themselves possess individual characteristics which flavor their behavior. Concepts of leadership theory also fall under the aura of contrast as they attempt explanations of leader performance. Certain similarities have emerged from the quantity of research probing this field. The relation of leadership to the task to be performed, the person performing

¹Leo M. Chamberlain, and Leslie W. Kindred, The Teacher and School Organization, (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966), p. 347.

it, the situation in which it is performed, and the process through which performance takes place indicates the scope of the leadership role.

Progress has been made to assist explanation of leader behavior. Saunders stated:

The behavior of an educational leader can be predicted with reasonable accuracy providing he is operating from an adequate, internally consistent theory of educational leadership. His position related to certain issues and problems will be consistent at all times since his behavior originates from the same theoretical position.¹

The effectiveness of the high school principal in his leadership role is not yet measured by a scientifically formulated list of do's and don'ts with universal agreement. More direction toward understanding seems essential.

A more thorough review of leadership and the principal is given in Chapter II.

Need For The Study

Different investigations of the principalship neglect to a large degree the interdependency of his roles, and the way in which he and his faculty perceive his performance. Many such studies also fail to analyze the influence of the

¹Robert L. Saunders, Ray C. Phillips, and Harold J. Johnson, A Theory of Educational Leadership, (Columbus Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966), p. 17.

environment in which his performance is case.

Hemphill, Griffiths, and Fredericksen stated that administrative performance is influenced in important measure by situational variables.¹

The complexity of the secondary principal's job suggests a broad participation of staff in the resolution of many problems ascribed to his position. Mort and Ross expressed this opinion:

Workers who are confused, poorly educated, and inexperienced in the sharing of decisions are less likely to feel an urge to participate in the formulation of policy than are well-educated democratically experienced workmen. By this reasoning, highly educated teachers, who know something about the adequacy of ways and means, will be less content to be denied a voice in the formulation of policy ... To deny a staff of well-trained teachers participation in the formulation of policy is to work directly against human psychology.²

The suggestion for the practice of more democratic process in the administration of public schools is thus strongly suggested.

Anderson and Van Dyke relate morale to the involvement of staff in policy determination. They stated:

¹John K. Hemphill, Daniel E. Griffiths, and Norman Fredericksen, Administration Performance and Personality: A Study of the Principal in a Simulated Elementary School, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962), p. 5.

²Paul R. Mort and Donald H. Ross, Principles of School Administration, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957), p. 72

The nature of the process by which teachers express themselves on policies are just as important to faculty morale as the final policy. Involving teachers in the solution of problems relating to their work is advocated by most researchers who have investigated morale.¹

Much of the current literature calls for the administrator to work in the role of coordinator and democratic leader. The use of direct two-way channels of communication between teacher and administrator is suggested and these channels would be kept open and be made to function as freely as possible.

At the conclusion of a study by Hemphill, Griffiths, and Fredericksen, the need for further research was stressed. They stated:

These suggestions for directions of future research in educational administration are in no way exhaustive. They demonstrate the tentative and limited character of research findings, even those from relatively ambitious investigations. They emphasize the size of the task that remains in the search for an understanding of administrative performance.²

Many questions regarding the behavior of the secondary school principal have been indicated. It is important that knowledge be extended which may help to assess the image of

¹Lester W. Anderson and Lauren H. Van Dyke, Secondary School Administration, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963), p. 335.

²Hemphill, op. cit., p. 358.

this position.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to determine if there were significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of principal performance in selected task areas of the principal's job in selected schools of Oklahoma. It was also intended to determine if differences existed between teachers and principals in their perceptions of situational influences.

Hypotheses To Be Tested

H_{01} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction and curriculum improvement.

H_{02} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the principal's task in improving teacher effectiveness.

H_{03} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of staff relationships.

H₀₄ Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of selected situational influences upon school operation.

Scope and Limitations

This study was designed to operate within a framework of the following limitations:

1. The population studied included teachers and principals who were in their present jobs for two years or more.
2. The study included the principals and a stratified random sample of teachers currently working in senior high schools or junior-senior high schools in the ten largest school districts in Oklahoma. No more than two schools were selected in districts with several secondary schools. (See Table 1).
3. The schools in the sample had over one thousand pupils.

Definitions and Use of Terms

Administration: Russell T. Gregg defined administration as:

...the process of integrating the efforts of personnel and of utilizing appropriate materials in such a way as to promote effectively the development of human

TABLE 1

The Ten Largest School Districts^a
1967-68

School District	Number of Secondary Schools	Number of High Schools	ADA of Secondary School Pupils 1967-68	Number of Secondary School Teachers	ADA of School District 1967-68
Tulsa	30	9	30,707	1,555	68,442
Oklahoma City	25	13	28,430	1,273	63,426
Lawton	4	2	7,387	325	18,477
Midwest City	9	3	7,629	326	16,136
Putnam City	4	1	6,864	299½	15,157
Muskogee	5	2	4,462	206	8,688
Bartlesville	4	2	3,931	192	7,749
Norman	3	1	3,438	157	7,359
Ponca City	3	1	3,325	145½	6,334
Moore	2	1	2,753	120	6,379

^aObtained from: State Department of Education, Finance Division, Expenditures By Classification, Percentage and Per Capita Cost of Ten Largest School Districts in Oklahoma 1967-68.

qualities. It is concerned not only with the development of children and youth, but also with the growth of adults, and particularly, with the growth of school personnel.¹

Leadership: Leadership is that action or behavior among individuals and groups which causes both the individual and the groups to move toward educational goals that are increasingly mutually acceptable to them.²

Operational Practices: The procedural framework within an educational organization which regulates the implementation of the educational objectives of that organization.

Principal Performance: The behaviors of, or ascribed to, principals relating to their achievement in given task areas.

Task Area: A category of responsibility ascribed as a part of the principal's job, and which may be further delineated into other aspects of his responsibility.

Secondary Principal: The principal in this study was the administrative head or leader of a school which

¹Encyclopedia of Educational Research, (New York: The McMillan Company, 1960), p. 19.

²Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Leadership for Improving Instruction. Yearbook 1960, p. 27.

included the top three grades (10th, 11th, 12th), and could include the 7th, 8th, and/or 9th grades of the public schools of Oklahoma. The principal was certified by the State of Oklahoma to serve as a principal for the school year of 1967-68.

Situation: This term adds specificity to a particular principal's or teacher's perception of environmental influence on principal performance in given task areas.

Teacher: The teachers used in this study were full-time classroom certified public secondary teachers holding Oklahoma teaching certificates for the school year 1967-68. They must have served in the same school as the school principal during the school year 1966-67.

Design of the Study

There were four basic components of this study. They included:

1. A careful investigation of the research and literature relevant to this study.
2. A determination of the variables to be considered and controlled.
3. Construction and pre-testing of the items to be used in the study by means of the interview procedure.

4. The conducting of face-to-face interviews with the sample used in the study.

5. Collection and analysis of data.

The variables to be considered were developed from those task areas previously identified.

Secondary data were obtained through standard techniques of library research. Other sources such as the State Department of Education, the Oklahoma Education Association, the Oklahoma Educational Directory, policy handbooks of the selected districts, and other materials were used.

A stratified random sample of teachers was selected from personnel registers at the State Department of Education. Two teachers in each of four departments were selected in each school. The department areas of English, social studies, business education, and math-science were chosen in order to avoid chance selection of too many teachers in a particular academic area.

The instrument to be used in the collection of data was the personal interview method. Smith and Smith stated: "The interview is really an oral questionnaire and many authorities believe it to be preferable to the written questionnaire for this reason."¹

¹Henry Lester Smith and Johnnie P. Smith, An Introduction to Research in Education, (Bloomington, Indiana: Educational Publications, 1959), p. 202.

The interview guide was validated by pre-testing the instrument with graduate students enrolled in administration and teaching, with a sample of teachers and principals, and with college staff members in education. The interview technique was used by this investigator to collect the information sought from principals included in the study, and to corroborate information given by the principals with similar interviews with teachers employed in the same building. All of the interviews were conducted by the writer.

The interviews were done by appointment and at a time agreeable to the person to be interviewed. Efforts were made to arrange for private surroundings for the interviews as suggested by Smith and Smith.¹

Hagood and Price suggested that the interviewer be honest, considerate, and that he observe customary courtesies. He should take psychological principles into consideration in arranging items on the collection form.²

These suggestions were followed.

¹Ibid.

²Margaret J. Hagood and Daniel O. Price, Statistics for Sociologists, (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952), p. 25.

Data collected were coded on prepared sheets during each interview. These data were checked and re-checked prior to analysis.

The responses from principals and teachers were treated by the Z test for large samples concerning proportions. The .05 level of significance was selected for acceptance or rejection of the items tested.

Overview of the Study

This study was organized into five chapters as follows:

Chapter I. The first chapter introduced the study, described the need for the study, stated the problem of the study and the hypotheses, defined important terms, established basic assumptions underlying the study, and described the design of the study. Chapter II was concerned with a review of related literature. Chapter III described the methods and procedures for the study. Chapter IV described and interpreted the returned data from the respondents. Chapter V consists of a summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In recent years a great quantity of research has been devoted to the leadership role of school principals. The various approaches utilized in the study of administrative leadership included: the man, the social setting, the tasks, and the process.¹ Ovard describes these four approaches to leadership study as follows:

1. The man approach emphasizes the man as the person, the principal as a personality.
2. The social setting emphasizes the complex social forces that affect the secondary school enterprise.
3. The process approach emphasizes the dimensions of the administrator's actions or processes.
4. The tasks approach emphasizes the specific jobs to be done.²

¹Donald J. Leu and Herbert C. Rodman, Preparation Programs for School Administrators, Seventh U. C. E. A. Career Development Seminar, (East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, 1963).

²Glen F. Ovard, Administration of the Changing Secondary School, (New York: The McMillan Company, 1966), p. 4.

A comprehensive review of these various categories reveals their relatedness. Often research provides more questions than answers in the final analysis. Much of the recent literature explored the various aspects of each broad category listed above.

Trait and Behavior Theory

While leadership studies now emphasize leadership as related to group process, a quantity of earlier research placed stress upon the leader as a person. Many such studies commonly listed generalized traits attributed to the principal. In 1940 Bird surveyed the studies relevant to the trait theory. He determined 79 traits which were commonly identified in 20 different studies. Only 5 per cent of these traits were common to four or more investigations.¹ Weber and Weber concluded that the trait approach is inadequate to explain the meaning of leadership.² Stogdill agreed with this conclusion, but did point out that traits important in leadership are capacity, including

¹Charles Bird, Social Psychology, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940), p. 564.

²C. A. Weber and Mary E. Weber, Fundamentals of Educational Leadership, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955), p. 279.

intelligence, verbal facility, and judgment; achievement, including scholarship and knowledge; responsibility including dependability, self-confidence and ambition; participation, adaptability, sociability and activity; and status.¹

The inability to describe leaders by traits has provided the touchstone of more discriminating research on individuals in leadership roles.

Behavior and Role Theory

Stogdill placed emphasis on the role expectations in terms estimated probability of outcomes of behavior and the desirability of such outcomes.² He also concluded that productive effectiveness should be equated with group integration and morale.³

Another theory stated that role expectations and perceptions must be related to a defined aspect, dimensions, or styles of behavior, and to some individual or group. The

¹R. M. Stogdill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, 25:64, January, 1948.

²Ralph M. Stogdill, Individual Behavior and Group Achievement, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1959), p. 63.

³Ibid., p. 290.

"Nomothetic-Idiographic Theory" developed by Getzels and Guba related individuals with need-dispositions and certain personalities to the institution and its goals.¹

Estephan utilized this theory in a large school system in Oklahoma and found teachers to prefer rule oriented or nomothetic leadership style.² Garrison, in 1967, concluded that superintendents valued principals who were administrators rather than leaders.³

Investigations of leader typologies are perhaps outgrowths of traitist theory. Bechtold, in a study of certain Oklahoma school principals determined that teachers wanted a typology designated instructional leader. He found that teachers identified functions rather than types.⁴ Bechtold also found that the variables of age and experience

¹Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), pp. 423-41.

²Joseph I. Estephan, "The Influence of Interpersonal Needs of Teacher Preference for Leadership," (The University of Oklahoma, unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, 1966), p. 53.

³Joe Mac Garrison, "The Leader Behavior of Oklahoma Secondary School Principals," (The University of Oklahoma, unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, 1968), p. 112.

⁴Lawrence A. Bechtold, "Administrative Typologies and Their Relationship to Interpersonal Needs of Teachers," (The University of Oklahoma, unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, 1965), p. 70.

did not affect the interpersonal need scores as measured by the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation instrument developed by Schultz.¹

Schultz theorized three interpersonal needs which influence the behavior of people. These interpersonal needs were: inclusion, control, and affection. His work provided an instrument for measuring these needs and the dimension of interpersonal compatibility between individuals in the same or different positions.²

Nance³ found that the expectations of selected community leaders varied in his study of the leadership role of certain superintendents and high school principals in Oklahoma. Nance found the superintendent did not desire the principal to assume leadership roles in the community. McAllister⁴, in his study of leadership role perceptions,

¹Ibid., p. 38.

²William C. Schultz, F. I. R. O.: A Three Dimensional Theory of Personal Behavior, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1968).

³Jack L. Nance, "A Study of the Leadership Role of the Superintendent and High School Principal Within Selected Communities of Oklahoma," (The University of Oklahoma, unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, 1965), p. 112.

⁴Vernon McAllister, "A Study of Leadership Role Percepts as Viewed by Teachers, School Administrators, and School Board Members," (The University of Oklahoma, unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation, 1965).

found that board members could not agree on leadership roles, but that teachers and administrators generally agreed on the role they believed best.¹

The behavior of leaders is another widely explored area of investigation. As previously indicated, there is an inter-relatedness discerned in approaches to investigate leadership. The behavior of the leader or leaders being studied is not easily extirpated from the concerns of his relationships, his tasks, the school situation, or his personality. Recent investigations have described the leadership behavior of individuals in school settings.

Halpin contributed to behavior theory by a delineation of leader behavior and the relationship to members of the work group. His efforts suggested well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.² Hemphill and Coons had preceded this effort with their descriptions of how leaders operated in 1950.³ The development of an instrument to measure leader

¹Ibid.

²Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents, (Chicago: Midwest Administrative Center, The University of Chicago, 1959), p. 4.

³J. K. Hemphill, "Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," in Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, edited by R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1950), p. 6.

behavior in 1957, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, has found wide use.¹ This same instrument was revised in 1963 with the inclusion of more sub-scales.²

Hemphill, Griffiths, and Fredericksen added to the literature investigating administrative behavior with their comprehensive study of elementary school principals in a simulated school situation. Implications for administrative preparation, selection, and performance were derived from their work.³

Situational Theory

The influence of the school situation on leadership has not been neglected as an area of inquiry. School structure and organization, the activities or professional education organizations, the character of the school community, and the pace of this century epitomize the complexities of school situation.

¹R. M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, Leader Behavior, Its Description and Measurement, (Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, The Ohio State University, 1957).

²R. M. Stogdill, Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1963).

³Hemphill, Administrative Performance and Personality, Ch. 14.

According to Campbell there is nothing monolithic about a school community. He stated: "In each school community there are numerous characteristics, memberships, organizations, value patterns, and ways of operation."¹

Situational influences are seldom uniform. Hemphill offered this view:

A major difficulty in the study of administrative behavior is the fact that every situation varies from every other situation. This fact may lead to conflicting conclusions about administration; it may be impossible to tell to what extent behavior is a function of the situation or of the administrator.²

In Hemphill's investigation another interesting observation was made. The author stated:

The study reveals little or no substantial relationship of years of administrative experience or years of academic preparation with any measure of performance in the simulated school situation.³

Brown also discounted certain situational variables with the following view: "Leadership seems unaffected by such static conditions of organization as school size or

¹Roald F. Campbell, "Situational Factors in Educational Administration," Administrative Behavior in Education, Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (eds.) (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), VII p. 262.

²Hemphill, Administrative Performance and Personality, p. 5.

³Ibid., p. 352.

grade level, staff training and experience, or social class of the community."¹

Campbell suggested the means of examining situational variables and a rationale for doing so. He stated:

To study the relationship between situational variables and administrative behavior will require careful examination of administrators on the job. This can only be done through the full cooperation of practicing administrators. These administrators need to be observed by competent students. Moreover, it would probably be helpful if such administrators would verbalize their thoughts to such students, so that covert as well as overt behaviors might be ascertained.²

The internal structure of schools suggest another situational factor of broad scope. According to Downey:

The institutional groupings that exist in secondary schools may be viewed as formal or structural relationships that are created and imposed upon students by the formal organization of the school.

The high school, when it establishes classes, departments, and so on, and assigns students and teachers to positions in those classes and departments, is, in effect, prescribing the formation of groups, for when an individual is placed in an organizational position, he is cast in what the sociologist would call "an institutional role": according to the high schools scheme of things, each individual occupies a role. Each role is defined by a formalized set of expectations as to what the incumbent's relationships are to

¹Alan F. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," Educational Administration Quarterly, V. 3, No. 1, Winter, 1967, p. 62.

²Campbell, op. cit., p. 268.

be with other persons and how he is to behave in these relationships.¹

Downey continued with a definition of the informal structure as follows:

The second type of group in the secondary school is the typical informal group or informal social system. Whenever two or more persons come together, voluntarily remain together, and begin to share purposes and norms, an informal group begins to emerge.²

The difficulty of identifying informal structure would be obvious for the chance observer. For the principal working in a specific situation, identification of informal structures appears critical to leader effectiveness. As suggested by Kimbrough: "Educational leaders should think seriously about the opportunities inherent in the informal power structure."³

Jenson corroborated this idea as follows: "... the informal organization of a school may be even more important to understanding the impingement of school organization upon administrative behavior."⁴

¹Lawrence W. Downey, The Secondary Phase of Education, (New York: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1965), p. 135.

²Ibid., p. 137.

³Ralph B. Kimbrough, Political Power and Educational Decision-Making, (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1954), p. 236.

⁴Gale E. Jenson, "The School as a Social System," Educational Research Bulletin, Vol. 2 (February 10, 1954), pp. 38-46.

As various authors have indicated, the organized structure of schools has both formal and informal aspects. It has been the tendency, according to Kimbrough to study only the formal structure. Many principals have observed great differences in the leadership of teachers who are formally structured as equals.¹

In recent years a most prominent factor in education, centers about the professional affiliations of educators and their activities. There is evidence of animosity between teachers and administrators developing on a national scale. The implications of this difficulty accent the complexity of functioning administrative leadership. Bob C. Lees, president of the Tulsa Classroom Teachers Association was quoted as saying:

The Tulsa Education Association is dominated by administrators who do not have the best interests of teachers at heart. It's true that classroom teachers in the TEA (Tulsa Education Association) are in the majority, but administrative pressures keep them down.

Teachers ought to be allowed to represent themselves and administrators themselves. Now teachers are afraid what they do might irritate their principals or superintendents.²

¹Kimbrough, op. cit., p. 237.

²The Sunday Oklahoman (Oklahoma City), February 11, 1968, p. 21.

Yerkovich analyzed teacher militancy as a segment of a broad sociological revolution in the country. Among the causes he listed inadequate salaries, poor working conditions, and poor communication with educational hierarchies.¹ The necessity to study the causes of teacher militancy has been amplified by Cass and Birnbaum who commented: "A major factor in the alienation of teachers has been the growing impersonality of the school as it has become larger and more highly structured."²

Yerkovich continued: "An outgrowth of inadequate teacher-school board relations, and a definite concern among today's teachers, is the idea of professional negotiation."³

Several states have passed legislation providing for negotiations in the attempt to improve teacher-school board relations. There are indications that this trend will continue. Once established, negotiations become integral to the school situation. A union leader, Charles Cogan, offered this insight:

¹Raymond J. Yerkovich, "Teacher Militancy: An Analysis of Human Needs," Clearing House, Vol. 41, No. 8 (April 1, 1967), p. 458.

²James Cass and Max Birnbaum, "What Makes Teachers Militant," Saturday Review, (January 20, 1968), p. 56.

³Yerkovich, op. cit., p. 460.

Negotiations are never really finished. Teachers should expect their salaries and other conditions of work to be improved from year to year.

It is certainly true that teachers demand negotiations for other things besides salaries. As a matter of fact, I personally would be inclined to place salaries third among the four main elements on which teachers bargain. I might put salaries ahead of fringe benefits, but I think that more important than either of these are working conditions (e.g. class size, freedom from non-teaching chores) and a definite voice in policy making.¹

The development of negotiation agreements are opposed by certain school administrators and particularly by superintendents. This position was indicated at the 1968 conference for the American Association of School Administrators (AASA). One officer of AASA, Quentin Smith, was quoted in a conference report as holding these views:

Smith believes that AASA and the NEA (National Education Association) are both wrong in attempting to urge teachers to bargain or negotiate collectively. He believes that as soon as a negotiations agreement is arrived at, strife, turmoil, and trouble are not far behind. He suggested eight ways to avoid signing a negotiating agreement.²

School principals have expressed a concern about being left out when negotiations are conducted. A position

¹Charles Cogan, "The Union Replies," School Management, June, 1966, p. 84.

²American Association of School Administrators, Conference Reporter, A Report prepared by the Editors of Education U. S. A., Atlantic City, February, 1968.

of the National Association of Secondary School Principals was expressed by Epstein as follows:

The members of NASSP feel strongly that principals and other administrators must be included in every phase of collective decision-making where their own fate and that of the schools for which they are responsible are to be determined.¹

Tasks of the Principalship

There have been intense efforts in recent years to delineate the major tasks of the high school principalship. The Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration listed eight major task categories which are: (1) instruction and curriculum development; (2) pupil personnel; (3) community school leadership; (4) staff personnel; (5) school plant; (6) transportation; (7) organization and structure; and (8) finance.² Other groups have described similar task areas. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development recognized similar tasks in 1960 when they stated:

¹Benjamin Epstein, The Principal's Role in Collective Negotiations Between Teachers and School Boards, (Washington, D.C., National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1965), p. 6.

²Southern States Cooperative Program in Education, loc. cit.

The principal is commonly charged with such responsibilities as leadership in instruction and curriculum development, student personnel administration, staff personnel administration, community leadership, administration of the school plant and facilities, and organization of the school for its effective operation. Within these commonly listed areas of responsibility, specific behavior are expected by those associated with the principal.¹

An addendum to these identified task areas stresses the importance of instructional leadership in particular.

According to Downey:

The distinctiveness of the high school principal's tasks in program development and instructional leadership is, to a considerable extent, a reflection of the uniqueness of the secondary school among educational institutions.²

Ovard identified the principal's task in improving curriculum and instruction as primary.³ Corbally agreed with this affirmative statement that: "The primary purpose of leadership is to facilitate teaching and learning in the secondary schools."⁴

¹Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Leadership for Improving Instruction. 1960 Yearbook, p. 71.

²Lawrence W. Downey, op. cit., p. 216.

³Glen F. Ovard, op. cit., p. 229.

⁴John E. Corbally, Jr., T. J. Jenson, and W. Frederick Staub, Educational Administrations: The Secondary School, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), p. 88.

The task of leadership in the administration of staff personnel is also regarded as critical. Corbally asserted:

Many studies have indicated that a staff is concerned with having professional leadership that will help them find a release, a freeing of their creative, productive efforts for the task of purposeful teaching. It is obvious, therefore, that the most important function of the secondary school administrator is his responsibility toward the staff with which he works.¹

The involvement of staff is a segment of this vital task. According to Saunders:

The political philosophy deemed most effective places responsibility for making decisions in the hands of the people who are affected by the decision. In keeping with this concept, effective educational leadership provides the people directly involved with an opportunity to participate in the development and direction of educational programs.²

The task areas germane to this investigation include (1) staff personnel and (2) instructional leadership. These areas have complementary characteristics which lend themselves to the study of principal performance.

Information collected in a comprehensive study of the high school principalship sponsored by the National Association

¹Ibid., p. 91.

²Robert L. Saunders, Ray C. Phillips, and Harold T. Johnson, A Theory of Educational Leadership, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966), p. 39.

of Secondary Principals (N.A.S.S.P.) in 1963-64 revealed additional information on the tasks of the principal, his opinions regarding educational issues, the time devoted to various duties, and the status of his position.¹

Each task area of responsibility required of the secondary principal is aligned with a means of achieving the task. The educational accouterments needed for the task are known as processes.

The Process of Leadership

The literature is replete with references to studies of processes common to the principalship, and the competencies needed by principals to successfully perform process acts. Ovard summarized the process role of the principal as follows:

Effective leadership involves the basic approach or processes used by the leader. Specific acts related to specific circumstances are part of a study of leadership. Some of these acts are planning, initiating, managing, delegating, coordinating, decision making, evaluating, and communicating. Effective leadership is related directly to the method of operation of the principal.²

¹John K. Hemphill, James M. Richards, and Richard E. Peterson, Report of the Senior High School Principalship, (Washington, D. C.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals).

²Glen F. Ovard, op. cit., p. 48.

The relationship of the various identified tasks to process, and the relationship of process to administration in fields other than education has a certain validity.

Corbally commented:

In performing in any or all of these task areas, the administrator will need to follow the steps of the administrative process. This process is essentially the same whether the administrator is attacking a problem in the area of school-community relations or a problem in the area of business management. It is, in short, the way in which the administrator goes about the business of administering.¹

Corbally listed several component steps of the administrative process which include: (1) decision making; (2) programming; (3) stimulating; (4) coordinating; and (5) appraising.²

Gregg expanded and replicated these five with seven listed processes as follows: (1) decision making; (2) planning; (3) organizing; (4) communicating; (5) influencing; (6) coordinating; and (7) evaluating.³

Garrison identified the important role of the principal in providing change as he stated:

¹John E. Corbally, Jr., T. J. Jenson, and W. Frederick Staub, op. cit., p. 53.

²Ibid.

³Roald F. Campbell and Russell T. Gregg (eds.), Administrative Behavior in Education. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 274.

The principal must be regarded as a key figure in the process of change. Staff members seem to be aware of this finding and to view the principalship as a position which should be charged with the responsibility for initiating change when it is needed.¹

The intricacies of effectively implementing any given process are recognized by a number of authorities. An example of this belief is cited by Kimbrough when he said: "The lack of field research upon the faculty decision making process has greatly oversimplified the task of the school administrator in achieving democratic participation."²

Nance commented on the communications process with the conclusion that a great need for improved relationships between news officials and school administrators exists.³

Many similar opinions have been registered with regard to each process the high school principal must implement. How the process should be implemented is now frequently discussed in the literature. Pierce and Albright offered this consensus:

The larger the number of people in an undertaking, the more effective outcomes should be; broad participation should be at the end of policy determination,

¹Joe Mac Garrison, op. cit., p. 111.

²Ralph B. Kimbrough, op. cit., p. 238.

³Jack L. Nance, op. cit., p. 112.

problem definition, program planning, program execution, and appraisal of results. This means that all affected by a decision should have a voice in making the decision, and that leadership should and will shift from member to member in a democratic group effort.¹

Summary

The complex details which influence principal performance are abundant. Approaches to understanding this performance have typically been concerned with the principal as a personality, the tasks he performs, the process acts through which tasks are accomplished, and the situation in which he works.

Descriptions of the principal's leadership role have shifted emphasis from a theory of personality traits of the individual to theory which now evaluates shared leadership.

Certain variables are believed to have negligible influence on a principal's leadership performance. Those which have been described as having little influence include certain personal traits such as his age, experience, or preparation. Certain situational factors such as school size, social class of the community, grade level, and staff

¹Truman M. Pierce, and A. D. Albright, A Profession in Transition, N. P.: The Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration and Its Successor, The Associated Programs in Educational Administration, 1960, p. 30.

training are also believed to have little affect on his role although research is limited in this area of consideration.

Evidence of changed relationships between teachers and principals are considered relevant to the means by which policies are formulated and implemented in many areas of school operation. Concern with both the formal and informal aspects of school structure is also important as an area of inquiry.

Much of the literature now emphasizes the value of democratic administration and of all affected by decisions to be involved in the decision making process.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

It was the problem of this study to determine if there were significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of principal performance in chosen task and policy formulation areas of the principal's job in selected schools of Oklahoma. It was also intended to determine if differences existed between teachers and principals in their perceptions of situational influences, and the principal's success in increasing teacher effectiveness in the instructional program.

Three basic components make up this study. They include:

1. A determination of the variables to be considered and controlled.
2. Construction and pre-testing of the items used.
3. Conducting the personal interviews.
4. Collection and analysis of data.

Each of these components are described in this chapter except the analysis of the data.

Control and Construction of the Interview Instrument

Reviewed in Chapter II were those usual approaches to the study of the leadership role of school principals. Each of those approaches suggested certain important variables regarding the principal as a man, the tasks he performs, the procedures used by the principal in the performance of his job, and the social setting which affects his role. Items to test the questions of the study were then developed from those approaches reviewed in Chapter II. Those items which were selected to test each question of the study are described following a re-statement of each hypothesis.

H_{01} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction and curriculum improvement.

The items constructed to test this question included:

1. The first item was a question to determine perceptions regarding the structure in which teachers worked on instructional problems. It was stated:

How does your school usually work on instructional problems? How often does the faculty meet?

2. The second item was constructed to examine teacher involvement in the selection of textbooks. It stated:

How are teachers involved in selecting textbooks?

3. This item was developed to determine how teachers were involved in program change and development. It stated:

Have any departments made curricular changes within the past two years? Do you know of any changes being planned now? How did such changes take place?

4. The fourth test of this hypothesis was developed to test perceptions of the need for subject matter specialists used or needed by that school. It was stated as follows:

Are specialists in the various subject matter areas provided in this school system? To what degree are they utilized? Do you see a need for specialists to help coordinate program development?

5. The last item to test the first hypothesis was concerned with evaluation of the instructional program. It stated:

Generally speaking, what are the main problems in developing a better program of instruction in this school?

H_{02} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the principal's success in improving teacher effectiveness.

1. The first test of this question was related to the integration of new faculty members into their new responsibilities. It was stated as follows:

Do you have a system to orient new teachers? Please describe what is done.

2. The second item examined how a school analyzes the needs of its student population.

Describe the make-up or disposition of your student body. How did you learn of this?

3. This item was developed to test for shared leadership within the staff.

How are faculty meetings usually planned and conducted? Do teachers present information or bring up issues?

4. Another test of the second hypothesis was developed to examine how teacher effectiveness was increased. It stated:

Is secretarial help available for teacher use?

5. The final test of this hypothesis related to the provision of resources for teacher use. The question was:

To what extent are audio-visual aids utilized in this school? Is effective coordination provided for their use? Are such aids available when needed?

H_{03} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the area of staff relationships.

1. The initial test of this question examined perceptions of teacher involvement in the development of written policies. It was stated as follows:

Does this school system provide written personnel policies for teachers affecting such things as sick leave, salary schedules, or insurance benefits? How were these policies developed? Are teachers involved in developing policies other than those affecting teacher welfare?

2. The next item was designed to test perception of how teachers are stimulated to participate in programs and improve competencies:

Are teachers here compensated for sponsoring activities such as the pep club? Does the school system add increments to salary for additional professional preparation?

3. The third item to test this hypothesis was a test of interpersonal relations of the teachers and the principal. It stated:

How is the teacher helped who has a problem such as chronic handing in of late reports?

4. The fourth item in this series investigated perceptions of morale as it related to the principal meeting the leadership expectancy held by the teachers.

Describe the staff morale in this school. What factors have caused present morale?

5. This item was a test of support given to teachers.

What types of general policies do you have with regard to discipline policies in which you deal with, for example, student defiance? Do teachers have a part in

developing discipline policies?

6. The last item used to test this hypothesis clearly asked for the teachers role in the decision making process.

It stated:

Generally speaking, in what main area of school operation or activity do teachers help make decisions?

H₀₄ Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of situational influences upon school operation.

1. The first test of this question was concerned with the perceptions of faculty tenure. It stated as follows:

Are most teachers employed here upon the recommendation of the principal? Describe teacher turnover in this school. What factors cause this turnover you describe?

2. This item was a sociometric device to seek perceptions of the informal power structure within the school.

Who are two or three of the more influential teachers on this staff? Is there an outstandingly able leader among the teachers who is respected by that group?

3. The third item was designed to examine the physical environment.

How does the type of building you have influence your school program? What are the main problems with this building?

4. The fourth item was developed to test perceptions regarding legislation effecting education in the state.

Has this faculty been much concerned about the recent educational crisis in Oklahoma?

5. The fifth item questioned the effects of the State professional education association.

How does the staff feel about the Oklahoma Education Association now? What do you think will happen to the O. E. A. membership next year?

6. The final question used in this series and to complete the interview was developed to test negative pressures from organized groups.

Do you feel the school program here has been subject to influences from other schools? Have any organized groups or clubs been critical of this school?

Pre-testing of the Instrument

The interview-questionnaire instrument was first developed with reference to contributions by several researchers discussed in Chapter II whose work was pertinent to the hypotheses of this study. The instrument was then evaluated by a graduate seminar in educational administration whose members made suggestions regarding the revision of the instrument. The instrument was then submitted to four University and College of Education professors and four high school principals for evaluation with regard to the

appropriateness of the items in relation to the purposes of the study. After further revision the instrument was given a field test in interviews at four schools with the principals and four teachers in each school. Some language changes were again made to improve the instrument.

Code sheets were developed to record the perceptions of the principals and teachers in the sample into frequencies of agree or disagree, and to record additional information volunteered by respondents.

Population Characteristics

The study was conducted in ten different school systems in Oklahoma. Subjects included twelve principals and ninety-six teachers in twelve high schools. School systems were chosen on the basis of size. Teachers were selected on the basis of experience and professional responsibilities. Eight teachers were selected in each of the twelve schools included in the study with representatives from each of four academic areas of the curriculum. Twelve principals were included in the study. All principals were selected on the basis of experience in the present position, and all were men. Although sex was not a variable to be controlled in the study it should be noted that thirty-seven of the teachers were men and fifty-nine were women.

The Sample

The principals of the twelve schools selected for the study were initially contacted in person or by phone in order that permission might be obtained to conduct the investigation in their schools. Each consented to participate. A letter was then sent to each school to arrange the date and interview schedule. Principals were asked to contact teachers selected and ask them if they would be willing to spend part of their planning period with a graduate student who wanted to get their viewpoints on certain aspects of school operation. All but one teacher consented to participate. An alternate was drawn to replace this person.

Eight teachers from each school were selected at random; two in each of four strata designated as departments in each school. The departments were: English, social studies, business education, and math-science. The teachers' names were drawn from the North Central Report for the current school year. This enabled the investigator to eliminate those teachers who had not been working with the principal for a minimum of two years.

An alternate name was also drawn in advance from each department in the event one of the primary choices was unable to participate.

The twelve schools selected for the sample met the criteria of: (1) being large enough to have a formal meeting structure; (2) having principals who served as full time principals on the same job for two or more years; and (3) having a current pupil enrollment over one thousand. The secondary schools selected for use in the study are shown in Table 2.

Administering the Instrument

The initial interviews were held with each principal in his office prior to the beginning of class periods. These interviews lasted from thirty to sixty minutes in all cases. The total visit in each school usually lasted from one-half a school day to an entire day. In two schools it was necessary to return a second day to complete the interviews. All of the interviews were conducted by the writer.

Preliminary courtesies were usually followed by the suggestion that the investigator be given viewpoints on certain aspects of school operation. The interview schedule

TABLE 2

**The Twelve Schools Ranked by Size
of Certified Staff**

School District	School	Number of Certified Staff	High School Enroll- ment
Putnam City	Putnam City High School	134	3216
Tulsa	Edison Jr.-Sr. High School	127	3048
Tulsa	Central High School	120½	2768
Lawton	Lawton High School	95	1944
Norman	Norman High School	81	1752
Midwest City	Midwest City High School	75½	1900
Muskogee	Central High School	75	1856
Oklahoma City	John Marshall High School	74	1867
Ponca City	Ponca City High School	69½	1760
Oklahoma City	Star Spencer Jr.-Sr. High School	65	1483
Moore	Moore High School	65	1230
Bartlesville	College High School	57	1071

was then started by an interview with the principal. In each case an effort was made to secure private surroundings for the interview. Teachers were first assured that what they said was between the investigator and themselves, and that these answers would not be revealed in any way that would identify them. Each teacher interview was performed individually and usually took twenty to thirty minutes. Teachers were told that the marks made on the code sheet were the means of classifying their responses and that these responses would remain confidential. In all cases respondents appeared at ease and answered questions freely. Standard conditions were uniform in each school visited and interviews were all held privately.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to report and analyze the data of the study involving the performance of high school principals as perceived by teachers and principals in selected task areas of the principals' job.

Utilizing the procedures described in Chapters I and III, information relative to principal performance was collected from persons in selected Oklahoma high schools. These data were coded and tabulated to test the following hypotheses:

1. Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction and curriculum improvement.

2. Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of principal success in improving teacher effectiveness.

3. Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of staff relationships.

4. Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of situational influences upon school operation.

Statistical Analysis

The data were treated and reported statistically through the utilization of a Z test of significance concerning proportion. The .05 level of significance was chosen for an acceptance-rejection decision.

Walker and Lev¹ suggest the application of the formula to such cases:

$$Z = \frac{p - P}{\sqrt{\frac{PQ}{N}}}$$

p = total agreement of sample

P = .50 or normal binomial proportion

Q = 1 - P

PQ = .25

¹Helen M. Walker and Joseph Lev, Statistical Inference, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1953), p. 67.

N = 96

Z scores were computed on each item to determine whether or not there was significant agreement or disagreement between teachers and principals.

Items used to test each of the four hypotheses were grouped into categories corresponding to each of the four questions of the study. Data for each category were treated and reported in two ways. The first method tested for differences between teachers and principals regarding the perceptions principals held on each item. Data were reported in terms of probability (p) and listed by categories.

Differences between teachers and principals were expressed in terms of teacher agreement or disagreement with the response of the principal in each school. It was in this manner that frequencies were contrived to test for differences between the two groups.

After a principal responded to the items his answers were coded. Teacher interviews followed the interview of the principal. Teacher responses were coded in terms of agree or disagree with the response or perception held by the principal in the same school.

The second method of treating and reporting data was concerned with an interpretation of descriptive information

given by respondents. Reactions to each of the items from respondents in the sample schools reflected either a negative or positive opinion regarding each item. The tables illustrating this normative data showed the reaction for the exact number of teachers in each school for the various items in each category. Where teachers were divided on an item, the opinion of the principal was utilized for a decision regarding the positive or negative nature of the item for that school.

Those items described as positive reflected a measure of satisfaction, adequacy, or approval by respondents. Negative reactions to items reflected opinions which were unsatisfactory, inadequate, or of disapproval in the judgment of respondents. These data were not treated statistically.

Category I: Practices in the Improvement of Curriculum and Instruction

Five items were developed to test this category. The first four items indicated significant agreement between teachers and principals but item five showed significant disagreement between the two groups. Z scores were reported in Table 3 for this first category. The total category showed significant agreement beyond the .05 level. Positive and negative responses for this category are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3

**Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To
Items Regarding Curriculum and Instruction**

Category I

<u>Items</u> Z Scores		Teachers	Agree with Principal	Disagree with Principal
1. Perceived Organization Structure				
Z = 5.5	p < .05	T	81	15
2. Perceptions of Selecting Textbooks				
Z = 6.0	p < .05	T	84	12
3. Perceptions of Teacher Involvement in Program Change				
Z = 5.3	p < .05	T	80	16
4. Perceived Need for Consultative Help in Program Development				
Z = 4.8	p < .05	T	76	20
5. Perception of Instructional Program Evaluation				
Z = -3.8	p < .05	T	26	70
Category I. Total Response				
Z = 9.5	p < .05	T	347	113

TABLE 4

**Results of Collective Positive - Negative Item
Analysis For Teacher Respondents By School^a**

Category I

School	Item	1	2	3	4	5	School Total +/-
A	0/8	-	1/7 -	6/2 +	5/3 +	*5/4 +	3/2
B	6/2	+	5/3 +	6/2 +	0/8 -	0/8 -	3/2
C	5/3	+	7/1 +	7/1 +	0/8 -	2/6 -	3/2
D	1/7	-	7/1 +	7/1 +	6/2 +	1/7 -	3/2
E	5/3	+	7/1 +	3/5 -	*4/5 -	3/5 -	2/3
F	8/0	+	8/0 +	8/0 +	*4/5 -	*5/4 +	4/1
G	0/8	-	8/0 +	1/7 -	6/2 +	1/7 -	2/3
H	6/2	+	1/7 +	8/0 +	0/8 -	*5/4 +	4/1
I	1/7	-	6/2 +	6/2 +	0/8 -	1/7 -	2/3
J	6/2	+	8/0 +	7/1 +	1/7 -	2/6 -	3/2
K	0/8	-	1/7 -	1/7 -	6/2 +	2/6 -	1/4
L	7/1	+	7/1 +	8/0 +	2/6 -	2/6 -	3/2
School Total: +/-		7/5	10/2	9/3	4/8	3/9	33/27

^aSchools are coded by letters to conceal their identity.

*Response of principal calculated

+ = Symbol for positive

- = Symbol for negative

Item 1: Evaluates Perceived Organizational Structure

The data from the study of total responses of teachers showed significant agreement with principals regarding perceptions of the organizational structure to work on instructional problems. ($P < .05$).

Organizational structure varied between the schools from a very formal structure with weekly departmental and faculty meetings to a very loose and informal structure in which there were as few as five faculty meetings during the year. Consensus by a majority of respondents in five of the twelve schools was that the present structure was inadequate as a means of resolving instructional problems.

A wide variety of techniques were used in the structure of the faculty meetings. The structure of these meetings ranged from two each week to as few as three during the school year.

Only one school reported the distribution of an advance agenda to faculty members. Some comments by teachers indicated that faculty meetings were frequently of little value and the same information disseminated at these meetings could have been done as effectively by bulletin.

Department meetings were held less frequently. These were reported being held weekly in one building and not at

all in at least two buildings. Some of the schools reported holding such meetings "as needed."

Item 2: Evaluates Perceptions of Selecting Textbooks

Agreement was significant between teachers and principals for this item. ($P < .05$).

It was noted that a majority of respondents in ten of the twelve schools reported the present means of involving teachers in the selection of textbooks was satisfactory. Teaching materials such as textbooks were selected in a multitude of ways. Five of the schools reported teacher committees within the school district did the selecting. Four reported departments selecting textbooks for their use and two indicated text selection as a responsibility of the department chairmen. One school indicated textbook choice was up to the individual teacher. Most of the schools did involve teachers in textbook selection

Item 3: Evaluates Perceived Teacher Involvement
In Program Change

This item provided the greatest agreement between teachers and principals in the first category. ($P < .05$). Only three schools reported teachers were not adequately involved in the development of the instructional program of the school. Although there was agreement between teachers

and principals on this item, curricular innovations were not in evidence at the majority of the schools. Only one school was moving in the direction of modular scheduling and had affected much team teaching as some evidence of an innovative approach. The other schools had programs that could be described as traditional. Several principals complained that facilities would not lend themselves to modern approaches.

Principals often regarded the addition of courses or certain schedule arrangements as curricular innovations.

Item 4: Evaluates Need For Consultative Help In
Program Development

There was slightly more deviation between teachers and principals with regard to their perceptions concerning specialized help in program development although agreement was significant on this item. ($P < .05$).

A majority of respondents in eight of the twelve schools responded negatively to this item. Two of the schools which were in systems providing consultants reported such help to be of little value. Only two of the school systems provided consultants in teaching fields of the teachers interviewed. A majority of teachers and principals interviewed felt consultants were not essential to program development.

Item 5: Perceptions of Major Problems In Improving Instruction

A great difference between teachers and principals was found in this item as disagreement was significant beyond the .05 level. This provided the greatest difference between the two groups of all items in the study.

Teachers and principals varied greatly as to their individual perceptions of instructional problems. There was substantial disagreement in nine of the twelve schools tested. It was apparent that most of the schools had done little to evaluate their instructional programs. There was little consistency between any of the respondents questioned between schools or within the same school.

It was noted that the views of principals were typically more global as they mentioned problems in finance, staffing, time, or space. Teachers tended to express insular views chiefly regarding their own room or schedule.

Category II: Principal's Task in Improving Teacher Effectiveness

Five items were utilized to test the second category. Z scores were reported in Table 5 for this category. There was significant agreement between teachers and principals for each item in this category. The category showed significant

TABLE 5

**Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items
Regarding Principal Success in Improving
Teacher Effectiveness**

Category II

<u>Items</u> Z Scores		Teachers	Agree with Principal	Disagree with Principal
<hr/>				
1. Orientation of New Faculty Members				
Z = 5.6	P < .05	T	81	15
<hr/>				
2. Analysis of Student Population				
Z = 5.6	P < .05	T	81	15
<hr/>				
3. Shared Leadership in Faculty Meetings				
Z = 7.3	P < .05	T	91	5
<hr/>				
4. Provision of Clerical Help for Teachers				
Z = 5.1	P < .05	T	78	18
<hr/>				
5. Provision of Audio-Visual Resources				
Z = 6.3	P < .05	T	86	10
<hr/>				
Category II. Total Response				
Z = 15.6	P < .05	T	417	63
<hr/>				

agreement beyond the .05 level.

Data in Table 6 shows item four with divergent perceptions to a greater extent than the other items. Both principals and teachers perceived items two and four negatively. Perceptions regarding item three were equally divided regarding faculty meetings in the twelve schools.

Item 1: Evaluates Orientation of New Faculty Members Into Teaching Responsibilities

Agreement was significant between teachers and principals beyond the .05 level for this item. Most of the principals and teachers responded in a positive way to this question. Respondents in nine of the twelve schools reported an effective program of orientation for new teachers.

Orientation for new teachers was provided in all of the schools studied. This was judged essential in several schools by a majority of the teacher and principal respondents. The reason attributed to this need was the high rate of teacher turn-over each year. The quality of orientation for new teachers was perceived to be poor in three of the schools studied. The perceived need for orientation appeared to vary with the degree of turn-over of teaching staff. Six of the schools reported losing as much as twenty percent of their faculty some years. Most of the orientation for new

TABLE 6

Results of Collective Positive - Negative Item
Analysis For Teacher Respondents By School^a

Category II

School	Item 1	2	3	4	5	School Total +/-
A	8/0 +	8/0 +	7/1 +	6/2 +	8/0 +	5/0
B	7/1 +	1/7 -	0/8 -	1/7 -	8/0 +	2/3
C	7/1 +	7/1 +	8/0 +	3/5 -	8/0 +	4/1
D	3/5 -	2/6 -	0/8 -	0/8 -	*4/5 -	0/5
E	5/3 +	8/0 +	7/1 +	1/7 -	8/0 +	4/1
F	8/0 +	1/7 -	0/8 -	7/1 +	8/0 +	3/2
G	8/0 +	7/1 +	1/7 -	1/7 -	8/0 +	3/2
H	0/8 -	1/7 -	7/1 +	0/8 -	8/0 +	2/3
I	6/2 +	2/6 -	3/5 -	3/5 -	8/0 +	2/3
J	6/2 +	7/1 +	7/1 +	2/6 -	7/1 +	4/1
K	2/6 -	2/6 -	0/8 -	1/7 -	5/3 +	1/4
L	7/1 +	3/5 -	8/0 +	1/7 -	8/0 +	3/2
School Total: +/-	9/3	5/7	6/6	2/10	11/1	33/27

^aSchools are coded by letters to conceal their identity.

*Response of principal calculated

+ = Symbol for positive

- = Symbol for negative

teachers took place during a conference week prior to the beginning of school, and continued for several weeks into the school year.

Item 2: Evaluates School Efforts To Analyze
Student Population

Agreement between teachers and principals was significant for this item. ($P < .05$). Only five of the twelve schools reported an effort to study the student population in order to better determine educational needs.

Widely divergent answers were given by respondents when inquiry was made regarding the characteristics of their student bodies. There was usually a general insight about the percentage of pupils who were college bound, or the racial mixture in the school, but few of the respondents provided accurate information relating to their student population. Several principals indicated that detailed information was available about the student population but teachers rarely had any knowledge of such data.

It appeared that a decided weakness exists in this area of the principals task. It was obvious that the principal and teacher respondents had made inaccurate assumptions regarding the nature of the pupils within each of the sample schools. Most frequently there was wide variation within

each school regarding the pupil population.

The question naturally arises: How can a faculty meet the educational needs of its students if so little is known of them? If it is helpful to teachers to understand their pupils, to know of their abilities, their backgrounds, and their limitations, it would appear that efforts to inform staff regarding these matters was an important need in each of the sample schools.

Item 3: Evaluates Faculty Meetings

Agreement between teachers and principals was significant on this item. ($P < .05$).

Responses from teachers and principals in the twelve schools were divided as to opinions regarding satisfaction with faculty meetings. As indicated in Table 6 strong feelings were generated by teachers in each of the sample schools. They were either almost totally satisfied or dissatisfied with faculty meetings. Principals also reflected insights corresponding to the opinions of their faculties to the low quality of faculty meetings.

Faculty meeting frequency varied between schools. Two schools reported meeting each week. Two schools reported as few as five formal meetings throughout the year. Meetings in eight of the twelve schools were reported as being conducted

almost totally by principals. Meeting leadership in four of the schools was shared with the faculty. Respondents in these same four schools expressed positive opinions regarding faculty meetings.

It would seem that faculties are more likely to be satisfied with meetings if they are involved in the planning and conducting of such meetings.

Item 4: Examines Teacher Use of Clerical Help

Significant agreement was shown for this item between teachers and principals. ($P < .05$).

A majority of respondents in ten of the twelve schools did perceive a need for clerical help for teachers which was not adequately provided at the time the interviews were conducted.

Clerical help for teachers was rarely identified in the twelve schools. Four schools reported having some help and the other eight reported that secretarial help was not presently available. Three of the schools reported they had clerical help for teachers but had to discontinue it when federal funds were withdrawn. Teachers and principals almost uniformly reported the need for additional clerical help to improve the quality of instruction.

**Item 5: Evaluates Provision of Audio-Visual Resources
For Teacher Use**

Data revealed statistically significant agreement between teachers and principals for this item. ($P < .05$).

Teachers and principals in eleven of the schools reacted most positively to this item. The use of audio-visual materials and the coordination of these materials was reported good in all but one of the schools. Most audio-visual equipment was distributed and maintained from a central point in the building with one person responsible for its coordination. One school reported problems with audio-visual equipment although the amount was adequate. Assignment of certain pieces of equipment to the specific departments resulted in poor maintenance of the equipment.

Category III: Assessing Staff Relationships

Table 7 illustrates Z score computations for the items in the third category. Agreement was significant for each of the six items in this third category. The entire category was significant beyond the .05 level.

Analysis of normative data revealed a more positive reaction to the various items than was indicated in the other categories. Items two and six were assessed negatively by a majority of principal and teacher respondents. Table 8 shows the collective teacher responses for each item by school.

TABLE 7

**Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items
Assessing Staff Relationships**

Category III

<u>Items</u> Z Scores	Teachers	Agree with Principal	Disagree with Principal
1. Teacher Involvement in Developing Written Policies			
Z = 5.3 P < .05	T	79	17
2. Teacher Extra Pay For Extra Duties			
Z = 5.3 P < .05	T	79	17
3. Interpersonal Relations Between Teachers and Principals			
Z = 6.8 P < .05	T	88	8
4. Staff Morale			
Z = 7.0 P < .05	T	89	7
5. Administrative Support Given Teachers			
Z = 7.0 P < .05	T	89	7
6. Teacher Involvement in Decision Making			
Z = 3.0 P < .05	T	66	30
Category III. Total Response			
Z = 15.2 P < .05	T	476	100

TABLE 8

**Results of Collective Positive - Negative Item
Analysis For Teacher Respondents By School^a**

Category III

School	Item 1	2	3	4	5	6	School Total +/-
A	2/6 -	0/8 -	0/8 -	7/1 +	7/1 +	*4/5 -	2/4
B	8/0 +	8/0 +	6/2 +	8/0 +	5/3 +	3/5 -	5/1
C	8/0 +	0/8 -	8/0 +	0/8 -	3/5 -	5/3 +	3/3
D	6/2 +	3/5 -	7/1 +	1/7 -	*4/5 -	3/5 -	2/4
E	2/6 -	6/2 +	7/1 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	5/3 +	5/1
F	1/7 -	0/8 -	8/0 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	4/2
G	5/3 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	6/2 +	3/5 -	5/1
H	7/1 +	3/5 -	6/2 +	7/1 +	6/2 +	8/0 +	5/1
I	8/0 +	0/8 -	7/1 +	7/1 +	6/2 +	3/5 -	4/2
J	8/0 +	2/6 -	8/0 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	8/0 +	5/1
K	3/5 -	7/1 +	7/1 +	3/5 -	3/5 -	3/5 -	2/4
L	5/3 +	2/6 -	8/0 +	8/0 +	7/1 +	1/7 -	4/2
School Total: +/-	8/4	4/8	11/1	9/3	9/3	5/7	46/26

^aSchools are coded by letter to conceal their identity.

*Response of principal calculated

+ = Symbol for positive

- = Symbol for negative

**Item 1: Evaluates Teacher Involvement In Developing
Written Policies**

The data returned on this item showed that principals and teachers agreed significantly on this item. ($P < .05$).

Each of the schools reported that their individual districts provided a handbook containing personnel policies. Only six of the schools reported teacher involvement in the development of written personnel handbooks for their individual districts. Teachers often stated that they had no idea as to how personnel handbooks had been developed.

Building handbooks were furnished in only four of the schools. Teachers were reported as being involved in the development of handbooks in those schools providing them. It would appear that the absence of procedural handbooks within a building could cause confusion in the implementation of building policies.

More effective participation of faculty in the development of written personnel policies appears essential.

**Item 2: Evaluates Incentives For Teacher Involvement
In Student Activities And Additional Professional Preparation**

Significant agreement was shown between teachers and principals on this item. ($P < .05$).

Ten of the schools reported additional pay for teacher sponsors of certain major student activities. All of the schools indicated that small club sponsors were not paid for this type of service. Teachers reported they were not satisfied with the incentive arrangement for sponsoring activities in eight of the sample schools.

Four of the schools reported that teachers received extra pay for additional professional preparation beyond the Master's degree level. Teachers and principals viewed the current state incentive for master degrees as woefully inadequate to compensate for the expense of obtaining the degree.

Item 3: Evaluates Interpersonal Relations Between Teachers and Principals

This item indicated significant agreement between teachers and principals. ($P < .05$).

A most positive response to this item was reported in eleven of the twelve schools. Teachers identified the principal as the person they had to answer to if they were negligent in the performance of their responsibilities. It was interesting to note that a number of teachers felt they had peers who were derelict in the performance of their job and felt these peers were apparently never corrected by

the administration. Most principals indicated necessary corrections were made in a personal conference with the individual.

Item 4: Evaluates Staff Morale

Agreement was significant between teachers and principals for this item. ($P < .05$). Teachers and principals in nine of the schools responded positively to this item.

Morale was rated fair to high in all but three of the buildings. The educational crisis in Oklahoma was the reason given by the teachers in two buildings for poor morale. Respondents gave a variety of reasons why they felt morale to be good in their school. Their reasons included: education is valued in the community; administrative support; good materials; recognition of achievement; quality relationships on staff; and firm policies.

Item 5: Evaluates Administrative Support Given Teachers

Agreement was highly significant between principals and teachers on this item. ($P < .05$).

Responses to this item were positive in nine of the twelve schools. Both teachers and principals were aware of inadequate support in the other three schools. Pupil behavior was a sensitive point of discussion with most respondents.

Pupil behavior and its correction was judged by respondents to be poor in three of the schools. The handling of behavior problems was usually assigned to one person, usually an assistant principal or dean in the twelve schools. Only one principal indicated he shared this responsibility and worked directly with behavior problems. Teachers were not reluctant to assign blame to the person in charge of pupil behavior if they felt a poor job was being done by this person.

Item 6: Examines Decision Making Responsibilities of Teachers

Agreement between teachers and principals was significant on this item. ($P < .05$).

Analysis of data indicated that inadequate involvement of teachers was a definite perception in seven of the twelve schools by both teachers and principals in those buildings. The decision making responsibility of teachers was reported as being limited to curriculum matters in seven of the schools. Five of the principals indicated the involvement of an advisory council of teachers or routine meetings with department chairmen to assist in the process of decision making.

Category IV: Perceptions Held Regarding The School Situation

Agreement for the fourth category was significant beyond the .05 level. There was significant agreement on all but one of the six items utilized to test this category. Table 9 illustrates the statistical treatment for this category.

An analysis of the data showed that principals and teachers reacted negatively to three of the items in this section. However, Items 1 and 6 provided the most positive responses of all items included in the study. This is illustrated in Table 10.

Item 1: Investigates Teacher Tenure

This item showed significant agreement between teachers and principals. Perceptions of the two groups were practically identical for this question. ($P < .05$).

Teachers were all aware of the principal being the school official who recommended them for their job. Principals agreed with this although they indicated they had assistance from their superintendent's office in recruiting teachers. All but one of the principals reported they had the final approval for teachers assigned to their building.

Two principals indicated the necessity to dismiss teachers within the past two years for incompetence.

TABLE 9

**Z Score Summary of Responses From Teachers To Items
Regarding Other Situational Influences
On School Operation**

Category IV

<u>Items</u> Z Scores		Teachers	Agree with Principal	Disagree with Principal
1. Tenure of Teachers				
Z = 7.6	P < .05	T	93	3
2. Informal Leadership Among Teaching Staff Members				
Z = -2.6	P < .05	T	33	63
3. Physical Environment				
Z = 3.5	P < .05	T	69	27
4. Teaching Conditions Within The State				
Z = 6.0	P < .05	T	84	12
5. Professional Education Organization And Its Activities				
Z = 2.1	P < .05	T	61	35
6. Influences of Organizations Outside of the School				
Z = 5.1	P < .05	T	78	18
Category IV. Total Response				
Z = 10.4	P < .05	T	418	158

TABLE 10

**Results of Collective Positive - Negative Item
Analysis For Teacher Respondents By School^a**

Category IV

School	Item 1	2	3	4	5	6	School Total +/-
A	8/0 +	3/5 -	7/1 +	2/6 -	6/2 +	7/1 +	4/2
B	7/1 +	5/3 +	3/5 -	1/7 -	5/3 +	8/0 +	4/2
C	8/0 +	*5/4 +	2/6 -	0/8 -	5/3 +	*5/4 +	4/2
D	7/1 +	3/5 -	2/6 -	1/7 -	3/5 -	8/0 +	2/4
E	8/0 +	*4/5 +	7/1 +	5/3 +	5/3 +	8/0 +	5/1
F	8/0 +	7/1 +	1/7 -	0/8 -	3/5 -	6/2 +	3/3
G	8/0 +	1/7 -	3/5 -	2/6 -	6/2 +	7/1 +	3/3
H	8/0 +	2/6 -	2/6 -	8/0 +	0/8 -	6/2 +	3/3
I	8/0 +	3/5 -	7/1 +	7/1 +	7/1 +	*5/4 +	5/1
J	8/0 +	*4/5 -	6/2 +	8/0 +	5/3 +	*5/4 +	5/1
K	7/1 +	3/5 -	2/6 -	0/8 -	2/6 -	7/2 +	2/4
L	8/0 +	1/7 -	*4/5 -	0/8 -	7/1 +	7/1 +	3/3
School Total:	12/0	3/9	4/8	4/8	8/4	12/0	43/29
	+/-						

^aSchools are coded by letter to conceal their identity.

*Response of principal calculated

+ = Symbol for positive

- = Symbol for negative

Most teacher respondents appeared to know little about teacher turn-over each year. Principals had more exact estimates. Few of the teacher respondents named the principal as a reason for frequent teacher turn-over.

Item 2: Examines Informal Leadership Among Teachers

Disagreement was significant beyond the .05 level for this item.

There was little agreement regarding the informal leadership among the teachers. Teachers and principals did not agree on who the teacher leaders were in nine of the twelve schools. Teachers tended to agree more with each other than with their principal on this point, but did not agree among themselves to a significant degree. In one school where the principal named the teacher leaders, a sociometric device had been used early in the year to identify the leaders. Teachers identified one leader whom they felt was "most outstanding" in only one of the schools.

Item 3: Evaluates Teacher and Principal Perceptions Of The Building As An Influence On The School Program

Agreement was significant at the .05 level of probability for this item.

Negative responses were accented in eight of the twelve schools indicating general dissatisfaction with the

school plant. Teachers and principals frequently identified different building problems and indicated that eight of the buildings were inadequate to meet the educational needs for their pupils. One of the new buildings was criticized as being inadequate. Both principal and teacher respondents frequently mentioned a lack of room space, lack of storage space, lack of flexibility, noise, narrow halls, and room arrangements as limiting factors.

Item 4: Investigates Perceptions Of Teaching Conditions Within The State

Agreement was significant between teachers and principals for this item. ($P < .05$).

Reactions to this item were negative in eight of the twelve schools. Questions regarding the educational crisis in Oklahoma brought a response from respondents who registered a minor concern in only five of the schools. Respondents in six of the schools reported that they were very concerned and teachers in one school were to the point of outrage about the school conditions in Oklahoma. Interestingly enough, respondents in only four of the schools indicated that they felt the membership of the professional education association (Oklahoma Education Association) would be adversely affected.

Item 5: Examines Perceptions Of State Education Association And Its Activities

Agreement was significant between teachers and principals for this item. ($P < .05$).

Forty-two teacher respondents indicated a feeling of futility about the professional organization. Other teachers indicated that their district was meeting the salary standards set by the education association for the state and they were satisfied with the organization. Others indicated they would continue to affiliate with the organization because of the insurance, but that they had little faith in the organization bringing about needed educational improvements.

Item 6: Examines Perceptions Of Influence From Organizations Outside Of The School

Principals and teachers showed significant agreement for this item. ($P < .05$).

A positive response was registered by all twelve schools in the sample on this item. Pressure from organized groups external to the schools was negligible according to most respondents. One school reported political activity and an underground newspaper from a group called Students for a Democratic Society. Another school mentioned a radical faction active in its Parents Teacher Association. Most of the schools did not recognize pressure as being

organized although they did feel the presence of some form of influence. Several teachers mentioned parents being influential. Booster Clubs for athletics were mentioned by teachers in two schools. Teachers in one school indicated that a nearby military base exerted considerable influence, and another school mentioned influence from a local college. Pressure, when identified, was not organized to the detriment of the schools in the study.

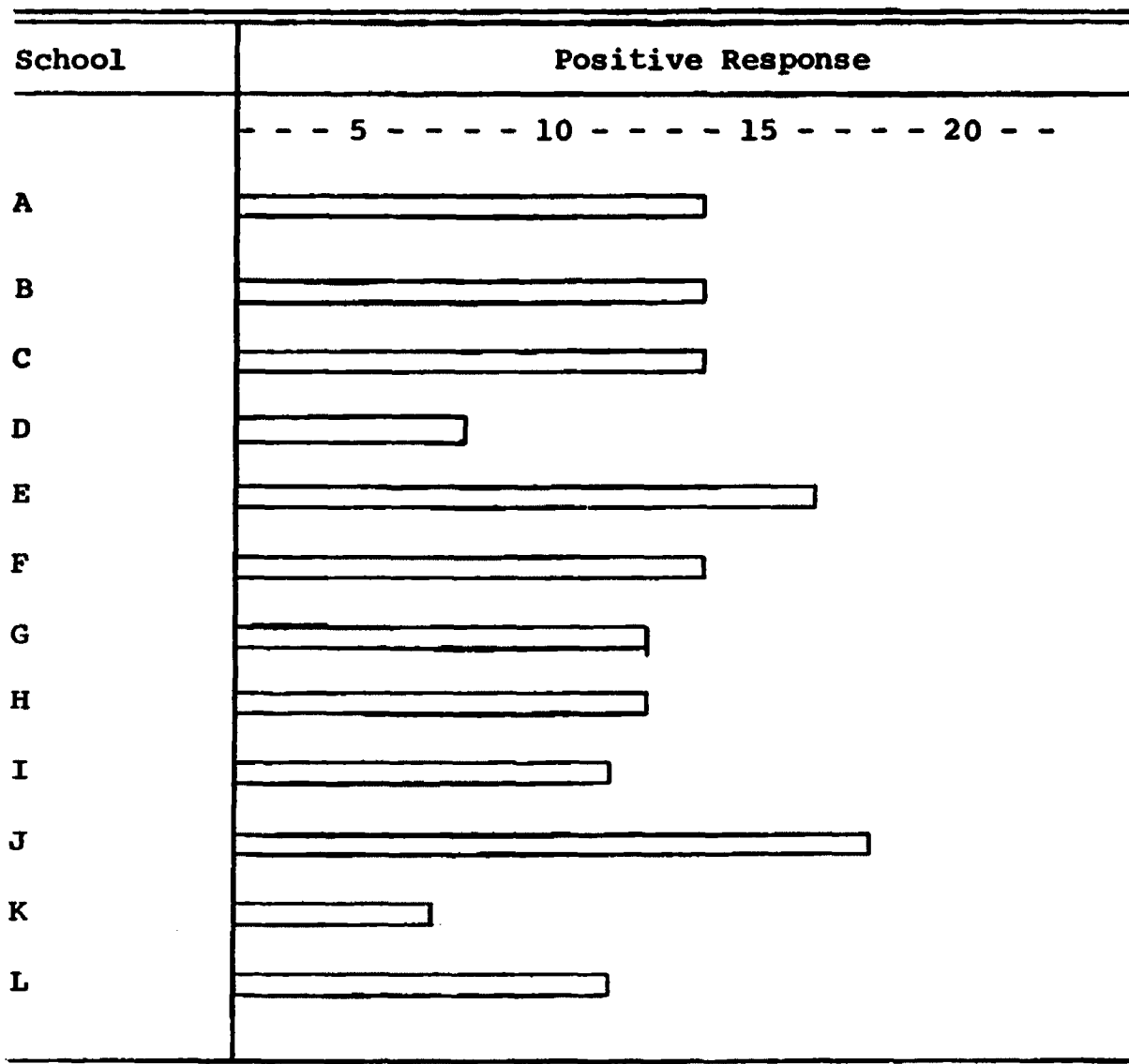
Normative Data Analysis

Descriptive information was given by respondents to each of the items which may have reflected either a positive or negative reaction to each item. Items described as positive reflected a measure of satisfaction, adequacy, or approval by respondents. Those described as negative reflected dissatisfaction, inadequacy, or disapproval by respondents. These reactions are illustrated in Tables 4, 6, 8, and 10.

Table 11 illustrates a composite for these findings between the twelve schools. The positive responses to the twenty-two items ranged as high as nineteen for school "J" to as low as seven for school "K." It should be noted that schools "D" and "K" contrasted sharply below the other schools in their responses to the twenty-two items.

TABLE 11

Graphic Comparison of Collective Positive -
Negative Responses To The Twenty-Two
Items In The Twelve Schools*



*Schools are coded by letters to conceal their identity.

Miscellaneous Findings

All but two of the schools were three year high schools. Two were six year schools. Each school was departmentalized and had designated departmental chairmen. Eight of the schools were integrated to some extent with small negro populations represented. This ranged from less than one percent negro population to as high as twenty percent in the schools visited. Nine of the schools were in geographical areas large enough to require buses to bring pupils to school.

Starting time at the different buildings ranged from 6:45 a.m. to 8:45 a.m. in the various districts. Students were released from 2:45 p.m. to 3:45 p.m. One school reported a split schedule due to the over-crowded conditions.

All of the interviews were conducted in May, 1968. Principals and teachers gave interviews willingly and appeared most interested in discussing the items scheduled in the questionnaire. (See Appendix D).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the major findings of the study, to state conclusions based on the findings presented in Chapter IV, and to suggest recommendations for additional research.

Summary

The problem of the study was that of determining if there were significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of principal performance in chosen task and policy formulation areas of the principal's job. Situational influences were also investigated as an aspect of his performance. More specifically, the study was conducted to test the following hypotheses:

H_{01} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction and curriculum improvement.

H_{0_2} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the principal's task in improving teacher effectiveness.

H_{0_3} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of staff relationships.

H_{0_4} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of selected situational influences upon school operation.

In order to test these propositions three procedures were followed in the study.

First, an examination of the literature described in Chapter II, revealed the nature of the previous research done on the principalship. Theories concerned with administrative leadership, process administration, administrators as personalities, and situational theory, together with judgments from competent persons in the field, formed the basis for the selection of the key items to test the four hypotheses of the study. The result of this procedure was then submitted to university faculty, public school teachers, principals, and other educators for suggestions. The procedure was then tried out with a group of public school

teachers and principals.

The assumption was established that the items utilized in the questionnaire-interview instrument related to concerns which were legitimate responsibilities of the principal. The items which remained in the instrument were judged by those persons included in preliminary test efforts to be of sufficient importance and clarity to assess the four hypotheses of the study.

The next procedure followed was that of acquiring lists of teachers and principals from the personnel registers of the State Department of Education. The names of the teachers were placed on lists for each of the twelve schools in which the study was to be conducted. A stratified random sample of ninety-six teachers was then drawn from the total sample with eight teachers in each of the twelve schools selected from four specifically designated departments. All of the teachers and principals in the study had worked together during the school year of 1967-68.

Arrangements were then made by phone and by letter to conduct the interviews. All interviews were conducted by the writer on consecutive days in May, 1968. Provisions were made for the anonymity of individual respondents. It was necessary to visit three of the schools two days in order

to complete interviews. The data in the study were the responses to the twenty-two items by the ninety-six teachers and twelve principals. These data were recorded on code sheets, rechecked, and tabulated following personal interviews in each school.

The third procedure was the utilization of a Z test for proportions to determine the relationship between principals and teachers on their responses to items designed to test the hypothesis of the study. The results were as follows:

H_{01} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction.

Significant agreement occurred among principals and teachers beyond the .05 level for the first four items used to test this hypothesis.

The first four items investigated perceptions in organizational structure, methods of selecting textbooks, teacher involvement in program change, and perceived needs for consultative help in program development. Findings indicated that teachers disagreed significantly from principals in their perceptions of the fifth item which investigated program evaluation.

Twenty-seven of a possible sixty responses in the twelve schools were reacted to negatively on the five items. The area of least agreement, Item 5, was concerned with evaluation of the instructional program in which nine of the twelve schools expressed negative responses.

On the basis of the significant agreement found between principals and teachers, the null hypothesis of no significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of instruction, was therefore accepted.

H₀₂ Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the principal's task in improving teacher effectiveness.

Agreement between teachers and principals for the second hypothesis was significant beyond the .05 level.

Five items were utilized to test this hypothesis. The first item inquired about orientation of new faculty members. Item 2 investigated perceptions of the pupil population. The third item asked how faculty meetings were conducted. Items 4 and 5 inquired about clerical help for teachers and about the coordination of audio-visual materials.

Twenty-seven of a possible sixty responses gained a negative reaction from both principals and teachers in the twelve participating schools on the five questions in this

category. A majority of the schools reacted negatively to Item 2 regarding research on school population and on Item 4 regarding clerical help for teachers. Schools were divided on Item 3 which inquired about faculty meetings.

In view of the significant agreement found between principals and teachers, the null hypothesis of no significant differences between principals and teachers in their perceptions of the principal's task in increasing teacher effectiveness was therefore accepted.

H_{0_3} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of staff relationships.

Significant agreement was determined for each of the six items utilized to test the third hypothesis. Item one investigated teacher involvement in developing written personnel policies. The second item inquired about the extra pay for teachers for extra duties or for additional professional preparation. The third item asked about interpersonal relationships between teachers and principals. Item 4 investigated staff morale. Item 5 asked about administrative support given teachers, and the last item inquired about teacher involvement in decision making.

More responses to these six items were of a positive nature than for the cumulative totals of the other three hypotheses. Of seventy-two possible responses from the twelve schools for the six items, forty-six were positive and twenty-six negative. Items 2 and 6 were assessed negatively by a majority of the schools.

As significant agreement was found between principals and teachers, the null hypothesis of no significant difference between principals and teachers in their perceptions of the processes through which policies are formulated in the task area of staff personnel, was therefore accepted.

H_{04} Principals and teachers do not differ significantly in their perceptions of situational influences upon school operation.

Significant agreement was found on five of the six items utilized to test this hypothesis. Disagreement was significant beyond the .05 level for Item 2 which inquired about the identification of teacher leaders.

Agreement was significant for Items 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 beyond the .05 level. Item 1 investigated staff tenure. Item 3 asked about the physical plant as a situational influence. Items 4 and 5 investigated teaching conditions and the influence of the professional educational organizations. The last item investigated the influence of

organizations outside of the school.

Normative data showed a negative response to twenty-nine of seventy-two possible responses was registered for the six items testing this hypothesis. All twelve of the schools reacted positively to Items 1 and 6. Items 2, 3, and 4 were perceived negatively by a majority of the schools included in the study.

As highly significant agreement was found between principals and teachers, the null hypothesis of no significant differences between principals and teachers in their hypothesis was accepted.

Conclusions

Several conclusions were derived from the major findings of this study. These conclusions are confined within the limitations of this investigation.

1. Teachers and principals were in greater agreement in their perceptions of the principal's role in discharging the tasks investigated than is commonly believed.

2. Principals and teachers did not communicate systematically or effectively in the development and evaluation of the instructional programs.

3. Conditions should be created for the effective involvement of teachers in the decision making process on policies which affect teacher welfare, pupils, and curriculum.

4. District and building handbooks should be developed with extensive participation by faculties.

5. Criteria for the evaluation of teacher leaders and principals should be developed and utilized by faculties and principals in secondary schools.

6. Activist or extremist groups were not active in communities at the time the study was conducted and contrary to the opinions of many, these groups are apparently not a threat to educators in the major Oklahoma communities.

7. School faculties should annually study and interpret the characteristics of their pupil population in order to better determine the educational needs of their students since this study showed little effort to understand student body characteristics on the part of both teachers and principals.

8. Teachers and principals had little confidence in the ability of the Oklahoma Education Association to significantly improve educational conditions in Oklahoma.

9. Principals can improve faculty morale by supporting teachers in the area of pupil-teacher conflict.

Recommendations

The recommendations of this study are based on the previously stated conclusions. They are as follows:

1. It is recommended that practicing secondary school principals and school superintendents initiate patterns of decision making in their schools and school systems to significantly involve teachers in determining instructional and personnel policies.

2. It is recommended that defensible criteria for the evaluation of leadership from the office of the principal should be developed and utilized in secondary schools.

3. It is recommended the Oklahoma Association of Secondary School Principals offer a service to member principals in which an evaluation of administrative practices of principals can be made by qualified observers.

4. It is recommended that the professional preparation of principals include extensive work in leadership training based on moral and political values and human rights.

5. It is recommended that studies be made relating to the areas of teacher morale and decision making in the schools of Oklahoma.

6. It is recommended that similar, additional studies be made in smaller high schools and in junior high schools using the personal interview technique.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- American Association of School Administrators. Staff Relations in School Administration. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1955.
- Anderson, Lester W., and Van Dyke, Lauren H. Secondary School Administration. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Leadership for Improving Instruction. Yearbook 1960.
- Bird, Charles. Social Psychology. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Incorporated, 1940.
- Campbell, Roald F. "Situational Factors in Educational Administration," Administrative Behavior in Education. (eds.) Roald F. Campbell, and Russell T. Gregg. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1957.
- Chamberlain, Leo M., and Kindred, Leslie W. The Teacher and School Organization. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1966.
- Corbally, John E. Jr., Jenson, T. J., and Staub, W. Frederick. Educational Administration: The Secondary School. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Incorporated, 1965.
- Douglass, Harl R., Bent, Rudyard K., and Boardman, Charles W. Democratic Supervision in Schools. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1961.
- Downey, Lawrence W. The Secondary Phase of Education. New York: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1965.

- Gibb, Cecil A. "The Principles and Traits of Leadership," in C. G. Brown, The Study of Leadership. Danville: Interstate Printers, 1958.
- Goldman, Samuel. The School Principal. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Incorporated, 1966.
- Good, Carter V. Dictionary of Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969.
- Griffiths, Daniel E. Administrative Theory. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Incorporated, 1969.
- Hagood, Margaret J., and Price, Daniel O. Statistics for Sociologists. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952.
- Halpin, Andrew W. The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents. Chicago: Midwest Administrative Center, The University of Chicago, 1959.
- Harris, Chester W. (ed.). Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1960.
- Hemphill, J. K. "Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire," in Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. (eds.). R. M. Stogdill, and A. E. Coons. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1950.
- Hemphill, John K., Griffiths, Daniel E., and Fredericksen, 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.
- Hughes, James Monroe. Human Relations in Educational Organization. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1957.
- Hunt, Harold C., and Pierce, Paul R. The Practice of School Administration. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958.

- Jenson, Theodore J., and Clark, David L. Educational Administration. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Incorporated, 1964.
- Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1964.
- Kimbrough, Ralph B. Political Power and Educational Decision-Making. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1964.
- Leu, Donald J., and Rodman, Herbert C. Preparation Programs for School Administrators. East Lansing, Michigan: Seventh U. C. E. A. Career Development Seminar, Michigan State University, 1963.
- Morphet, Edgar L., Johns, Roe L., and Reller, Theodore L. Educational Administration. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Incorporated, 1959.
- Mort, Paul R., and Ross, Donald H. Principals of School Administration. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1957.
- Mouly, George J. The Science of Educational Research. New York: American Book Company, 1963.
- Ovard, Glen F. Administration of the Changing Secondary School. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966.
- Saunders, Robert L., Phillips, Ray C., and Johnson, Harold J. A Theory of Educational Leadership. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Incorporated, 1966.
- Saylor, J. Galen, and Alexander, William M. Curriculum Planning for Modern Schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1966.
- Schultz, William C. F. I. R. O.: A Three Dimensional Theory of Personal Behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1958.
- Skogsberg, Alfred H. Administrative Operational Patterns. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950.

Smith, Henry Lester, and Smith, Johnnie P. An Introduction to Research in Education. Bloomington, Indiana: Educational Publications, 1959.

Stogdill, Ralph M. Individual Behavior and Group Achievement. New York: Oxford University Press, 1959.

Stogdill, R. M., and Coons, Alvin E. Leader Behavior, Its Description and Measurement. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1957.

Stogdill, R. M. Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University, 1963.

Walker, Helen M., and Lev, Joseph. Statistical Inference. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Incorporated, 1953.

Weber, C. A., and Weber, Mary E. Fundamentals of Educational Leadership. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1955.

Articles and Periodicals

Brown, Alan F. "Reactions to Leadership," Educational Administration Quarterly, III N. 1, Winter, 1967, p. 62.

Cass, James, and Birnbaum, Max. "What Makes Teachers Militant?" Saturday Review, (January 20, 1968), 54-56.

Cogan, Charles. "The Union Replies," School Management, June, 1966, 84-85.

Getzels, Jacob W., and Guba, Egon G. "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV, Winter, 1957, 423-41.

Jenson, Gale E. "The School as a Social System," Educational Research Bulletin, III, (February 10, 1954), 38-46.

Snider, Glenn. "Educational Leadership: An Analysis," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, N. 300, April, 1965, 80-94.

Stogdill, R. M. "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," Journal of Psychology, January, 1948, 25-64.

The Sunday Oklahoman, (Oklahoma City, Oklahoma), February 11, 1968, p. 21.

Thomas, Hobart F. "Sensitivity Training and the Educator," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals: Administrative Leadership in Theory and in Practice, LI, N. 322, November, 1967, 76-88.

Yerkovich, Raymond J. "Teacher Militancy: An Analysis of Human Needs," Clearing House, XLI, N. 8, (April 1, 1967), 458-60.

Monographs

Coladarci, Arthur P., and Getzels, Jacob W. The Use of Theory in Educational Administration. Monograph N. 5, Stanford University Press, Stanford, California, 1955.

Guba, Egon G., and Bidwell, Charles E. Administrative Relationships: Teacher Effectiveness, Teacher Satisfaction, and Administrative Behavior. Chicago: The Midwest Administration Center, 1957.

Pamphlets

Epstein, Benjamin. The Principal's Role in Collective Negotiations Between Teachers and School Boards. Washington, D. C.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1965.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals. The Principal in an Era of Changing School Staff Relationships: A Position Paper. A paper prepared by the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Washington, D. C., 1965.

Public Documents

Public Papers of the Presidents of the United States, John F. Kennedy. Containing the Public Messages, Speeches, and Statements of the President. January 1, to November 22, 1963.

The State Board of Education. School Laws of Oklahoma, Article 1, Section 18, 1961.

The State Department of Education. Oklahoma Educational Directory, Bulletin N. 109-Q, (1967-68).

Reports

American Association of School Administrators. Conference Reporter. A report prepared by the editors of Education U. S. A., Atlantic City, February, 1968.

Hemphill, John K., Richards, James M., and Peterson, Richard E. Report of the Senior High School Principalship. Washington, D. C.: The National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Pierce, Truman M., and Albright, A. D. A Profession in Transition. N. P.: The Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration and Its Successor, The Associated Programs in Educational Administration, 1960.

Southern States Cooperative Program in Educational Administration. Better Teaching in School Administration. A report on the critical task areas of the secondary school principals. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1955.

Unpublished Material

- Bechtold, Lawrence A. "Administrative Typologies and Their Relationship to Interpersonal Needs of Teachers," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1965.
- Estephan, Joseph I. "The Influence of Interpersonal Needs of Teacher Preference for Leadership," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1966.
- Garrison, Joe Mac. "The Leader Behavior of Oklahoma Secondary School Principals," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1968.
- Jacobs, Jan Wayne. "Leadership, Size and Wealth as Related to Curricular Innovations in the Junior High School," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Michigan, 1965.
- McAllister, Vernon. "A Study of Leadership Role Percepts as Viewed by Teachers, School Administrators, and School Board Members," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1965.
- Miller, Jack Edwin. "A Study of Oklahoma Public School Elementary and Secondary Classroom Teachers, and Public School District Superintendents Toward the Oklahoma Education Association," Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1964.
- Nance, Jack L. "A Study of the Leadership Role of the Superintendent and High School Principal Within Selected Communities of Oklahoma," Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1965.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

SEQUENCE OF INTERVIEW ITEMS

Practices in Instructional Improvement

1. How does your school usually work on instructional problems? How much time is spent on this problem?
2. How are teachers involved in selecting textbooks?
3. Have any departments made curricular changes within the past two years? Do you know of any change being planned now? How did such changes take place?
4. Are specialists in the various subjects matter area provided in this school system? To what degree are they utilized?
5. Generally speaking, what are the main problems in developing a better program of instruction in this school?

Improving Teacher Effectiveness

1. Do you have a system to orient new teachers? Please describe what is done.
2. Describe the make-up or disposition of your student body. How did you learn of this?
3. How are faculty meetings usually planned and conducted?

4. Is secretarial help available for teacher use?
5. To what extent are audio-visual aids utilized in this school? Is effective coordination provided for their use? Are such aids available when needed?

Assessing Staff Relationships

1. Does this school provide written personnel policies for teachers affecting such things as sick leave, salary schedules, or insurance benefits? How were these policies developed? Are teachers involved in developing policies other than those affecting teacher welfare?
2. Are teachers here compensated for sponsoring activities such as the pep club? Does the school system add increments to salary for additional professional preparation?
3. How is the teacher who has a problem such as chronically handing in late reports helped?
4. Describe staff morale in this school. What factors have caused present morale?
5. What types of general policies do you have with regard to discipline policies in which you deal with, for example, student defiance? Do teachers have a part in developing discipline policies?

6. Generally speaking, in what main area of school operation or activity do teachers help make decisions?

Assessing Situational Influences

1. Are most teachers employed here upon recommendation of the principal? Describe teacher turnover in this school.
2. Who are two or three of the more influential teachers on this staff? Is there an outstandingly able leader among the teachers who is respected by that group? Would you be willing to elect teacher representatives who might not be the best classroom teachers?
3. How does the type of building you have influence your school program? What are the main problems with this building?
4. Has this faculty been much concerned about the recent educational crisis in Oklahoma?
5. How do they feel about O. E. A. now? What do you think will happen to the O. E. A. membership next year?
6. Do you feel the school program here has been subject to influences from other schools? Have any organized groups or clubs been critical of this school?

APPENDIX B

LETTER TO COOPERATING PRINCIPALS

Dear Mr. _____:

I appreciate your consenting to the inclusion of your school in the study I mentioned to you recently. I will do my best not to interfere in any way with normal school operation on the date we agree upon for my visit.

I will call in advance to make any necessary arrangements, and to indicate which staff members have been drawn in the sample.

As I mentioned before in our conversation, I am not attempting to make value judgments or assess in any way any qualitative factors about your school. The many fine features of _____ High School are already recognized throughout our state.

Again, I appreciate your cooperation in participating in this study.

Sincerely,

Robert Gaut

APPENDIX C

MODEL OF CODE SHEET USED TO COLLECT DATA

1. Structure	1. Orientation
2. Materials	2. Disposition
3. Change	3. Meetings
4. Specialists	4. Clerical
5. Problems	5. A-V Aids
1. Handbook	1. Hiring
2. Sponsors	2. Influences
3. Interpersonal	3. Building
4. Discipline	4. Crisis
5. Morale	5. O. E. A.
6. Decisions	6. External

APPENDIX D

A CHRONOLOGY OF PRINCIPALS, SCHOOLS, AND DATES RESPONDENTS WERE INTERVIEWED

PRINCIPAL	SCHOOL	INTERVIEW DATES
1. Bert Corr	Norman High School	May 6, 1968
2. Bob Roundtree	Lawton High School	May 7, 1968
3. Bob Ford	Ponca City High School	May 8, 1968
4. Robert R. Cheney	John Marshall High School	May 9, 1968
5. James E.B. Sandage	Muskogee Central High School	May 10, 1968
6. Lewis Cleveland	Edison Jr.-Sr. High School	May 13, 14, 1968
7. Carl L. McCafferty	Tulsa Central High School	May 14, 1968
8. John C. Haley	Bartlesville College High School	May 15, 1968
9. Ray L. Polk	Midwest City High School	May 17, 1968
10. C. Ralph Downs	Putnam City High School	May 20, 1968
11. John E. Davis	Moore High School	May 21, 1968

<u>PRINCIPAL</u>	<u>SCHOOL</u>	<u>INTERVIEW DATES</u>
12. June Dawkins	Star-Spencer Jr.-Sr. High School	May 22, 1968