AN INVESTIGATION OF CHANGES IN GROUP INTERACTION RELATED TO LEADER SUCCESSION IN SELECTED URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

By

CHARLES WAYNE BLAND

Bachelor of Science in Education
Central State College
Edmond, Oklahoma
1950

Master of Education
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1954

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
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Thesis Approved:

Richard P. Jungers
Thesis Adviser

James B. Appleberry

Roland Hampton

W. J. Bentley

Robert L. Brown

D. Durham
Dean of the Graduate College

PREFACE

The purpose of this study was to investigate changes in perceived group interaction that are associated with leader succession, or principal replacement, in urban elementary schools. The investigation was based on the dimensions of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal behavior as described in the subtests of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, Form IV, developed by Andrew W. Halpin and Don Croft.

Teachers in twenty-three urban elementary schools from an Oklahoma urban school system reacted to the OCDQ at two points in time such that an assessment of perceived behavior was taken shortly before and approximately seven to eight months after leader succession occurred in seven of the schools in the sample. Sixteen schools where leader succession had not occurred were included in the sample for purposes of comparison. It seemed reasonable to assume that changes in group interaction between the two groups of schools would be significantly different.

I would like to take this opportunity to express my appreciation for the assistance and guidance given me by the following members of my committee: Dr. Richard P. Jungers, committee chairman, who was always available for counsel and encouragement; Dr. James B. Appleberry, who gave generously of his time and whose suggestions and directions were of great value; Dr. John Hampton, for his penetrating questions during committee meetings; Dr. Robert S. Brown, for his careful consideration of both the writing and the statistical aspects of the study; and Professor Wilson J. Bentley for his interest and assistance.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The view of the school as a formal organization having social structure, typical aspects of which are a centralized authority and an ordered status hierarchy,[1] has been the foundation on which new perspectives of administrative theory have developed. Prior to World War II, research in administration stressed the "practical" and was more concerned with techniques than with understanding. Since the war there has been an increased awareness of the role of theory in administration[2] and the emphasis in research has shifted from a search for personality traits of effective leaders to a search for behavior that makes a difference in the performance or satisfaction of the followers.[3] Recent approaches to theory in administration are focusing on the sources and the consequences of human behavior.[4] Administration is seen as being accomplished through

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[1] Art Gallaher, Jr., "Directed Change in Formal Organizations: The School System," Change Processes in the Public Schools, The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon (Eugene, Oregon, 1965), p. 44.

[2] Andrew W. Halpin, ed., Administrative Theory in Education (New York, 1967), p. 1.

[3] David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore, "Predicting Organizational Effectiveness with a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership," Administrative Science Quarterly, XI (September, 1966), p. 239.

[4] James D. Thompson, "Modern Approaches to Theory," Administrative Theory in Education, ed., Andrew W. Halpin (New York, 1967), p. 37.

the behavior of administrators in interaction with others.[5] Halpin suggests that greater strides will be made at this juncture if research efforts are focused upon administrator rather than administrative behavior of the officially designated administrators of formal organizations. In this respect, all superintendents and principals are administrators and, ipso facto, leaders.[6]

Administration involves a minimum of four components: the task, the formal organization, the work group, and the leader.[7] It is the interaction of the latter two components, the work group and leader, which forms the basis for this investigation.

The work group is made up of individuals who have been chosen to fill positions in the formal organization. In small school systems, there may be only one work group composed of the principal and the teachers while in a large city school system there will be many such work groups composed of the principal and teachers of each of the several building units in the system. Focusing attention upon the relationship between the administrator's behavior and the productiveness of these "face-to-face" work groups is the locus at which most problems of administration may be studied in microcosm.[8]

Every leader in his own work group is committed to two fundamental group goals: (1) group achievement measured by how well the group accomplishes the group task, and (2) group maintenance measured by the

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[5]Ibid., p. 32.

[6]Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York, 1966), p. 27.

[7]Ibid., p. 28.

[8]Ibid., p. 32.

extent to which the group remains intact as a group. This may be measured in terms of morale, cooperation among group members in working with one another, and other indices of job satisfaction.[9]

The processes of group achievement and group maintenance may be conceived as dynamic in that each must persist over a period of time in order to possess any meaning. To assess group achievement or group maintenance at one point in time may be relatively meaningless unless it can be assessed at some other point for purposes of comparison. This is especially true if one is concerned with changes in the behavior of the work group as the members interact over a period of time.

There seems to be no doubt that changes occur within a group as it strives toward goal achievement. Carlson suggests that:

> Change in organization comes about in many ways. Some changes occur with the size of the organization and some changes occur with the maturation process. Also, organizational change results sometimes dramatically, but most often not, from the succession of people through key offices. Similarly, a kind of evolutionary change in organizations can be seen as they adapt to forces within or conditions of their environments. To some extent, changes of this order can be called "organizational drift" because they frequently go unnoticed by those who direct the affairs of the organization.[10]

Significance of the Study

Since the succession of people through key offices provides the stimulus for change within organizations and has at least potentially disruptive consequences, it would be of more than casual interest to students of administration to know more about the change processes

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[9] Ibid., p. 37.

[10] Richard O. Carlson and Keith Goldhammer, "Foreword," Change Processes in Public Schools, The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon (Eugene, Oregon, 1965), p. v.

involved in leader succession. The significance to organization theory of an understanding of leader succession is indicated by Carlson's suggestion that:

> The frequency with which organizations must adapt to succession, its developmental significance, and its potential disruptive character mark it as a process worthy of close examination. There should be no doubt that organization theory must contain propositions about succession, organizational responses to succession, and organizational consequences of succession.[11]

The problem of leader succession and the consequent effects on group maintenance should be especially significant for the administration of large urban school systems where it is frequently necessary for the superintendent and school board to replace a principal who has been transferred, promoted, or retired. A knowledge of organizational responses to succession can make the difference in whether the process of selecting the new principal is approached scientifically or in some haphazard manner such as offering the principalship to the person whose name appears at the top of an eligibility list.[12] If it is assumed "that a self-directive group of career teachers and an aggregation of discouraged moonlighters demand different leadership styles," or "that principals and teachers must possess compatible conceptions of each other's roles" it follows that we must pick particular persons for particular posts.[13]

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[11]Richard O. Carlson, Executive Succession and Organizational Change, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago (Chicago, 1962), p. 3.

[12]Donald Erickson, "Selecting School Principals: Some Recent Developments," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, XII, No. 3 (November, 1963).

[13]Ibid.

One approach to the procedure of administrator selection involves an inquiry into the nature of the administrator-situation interaction. In an exploratory study, Halpin and Croft developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) in which they "found in the responses of elementary teachers eight factors of 'organizational climate'"[14] which describe the behavior of teachers and principals in interaction with each other. An instrument such as the OCDQ permits the school board and the superintendent to make deliberate efforts to diagnose the peculiarities of school situations and to determine what peculiar administrator strengths seem relevant to a particular school.[15]

A feasible approach to the study of administrator-situation interaction is to study the administrative situation in transition between different leaders (principals), that is, to study the situation prior to leader succession and again after leader succession in an effort to determine some of the organizational responses to succession. Knowledge gained in this manner will be useful, not only in predicting the consequences of leader succession, but in being able to match leader behavior to staff behavior such that the interaction would be most likely to maximize goal achievement in the group.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine if there are any changes in group interaction that are related to leader succession in urban elementary schools. If the leadership behavior of the principal makes any impact at all on group interaction, a study of the group in

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[14] Ibid.

[15] Ibid.

transition should reveal something of the nature of such change. Answers will be sought for the following questions: Do elementary teachers perceive any difference between the behavior of the former principal and his successor? Do elementary teachers perceive any difference in their own behavior following leader succession? Are there any changes in "morale" among elementary teachers in schools that have experienced leader succession?

The Problem

The problem, in brief, was to measure eight dimensions of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interaction, as characterized by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, at two different points in time such that group interaction was assessed prior to and following leader succession in a sample of elementary schools in an urban school system. Changes in interaction in the sample of schools experiencing leader succession were compared with changes in a sample of elementary schools from the same urban school system that did not experience leader succession. The hypotheses that were tested in the study are presented in Chapter II following the review of the literature and the presentation of a rationale to support them.

Assumptions

This study is based on the following assumptions:

1. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire is a sufficiently sensitive instrument for use in measuring changes in perceived group interaction over time.

2. All schools in the sample, being part of the same school system, have been subjected to the same kinds of organizational influences from

the central administration of the school system, e.g., racial integration of staff was proceeding in all of the schools in the system during the time of the study.

3. The sample schools are adequately representative of the various kinds of neighborhood environments in the school system and were not selected in a manner that was likely to deliberately bias the sample.

Definition of Terms

For purposes of this study, the following terms will be defined as follows:

1. Leader succession refers to administrative situations in which the individual formerly holding the position of elementary school principal was replaced by another individual.

2. Group interaction refers to the behavior that occurs among group members and between group and leader as the group works toward goal achievement. The dimensions of this behavior are identified by the eight subtests of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

3. Teacher behavior or group behavior will refer to the four subtests of the OCDQ which refer primarily to the behavior of teachers:[16]

   a. Disengagement refers to the teachers' tendency to be "not with it." This dimension describes a group which is "going through the motions," a group that is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand. It corresponds to the more general concept of anomie as first described by Durkheim. In short, this subtest focuses upon the teachers' behavior in a task-oriented situation.

   b. Hindrance refers to the teachers' feeling that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary "busywork." The teachers perceive that the principal is hindering rather than facilitating their work.

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[16] Halpin (1966), pp. 150-151.

c. Esprit refers to morale. The teachers feel that their social needs are being satisfied, and that they are, at the same time, enjoying a sense of accomplishment in their jobs.

d. Intimacy refers to the teachers' enjoyment of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

4. Principal's behavior will refer to the four subtests of the OCDQ which refers primarily to the leader behavior of the principal:[17]

a. Aloofness refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized as formal and impersonal. He "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behavior, in brief, is universalistic rather than particularistic; nomothetic rather than idiosyncratic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself--at least, "emotionally"--at a distance from his staff.

b. Production emphasis refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss." His communication tends to go in only one direction, and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

c. Thrust refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization." Thrust behavior is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers to give of themselves any more than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favorably by the teachers.

d. Consideration refers to behavior by the principal which is characterized by an inclination to treat the teachers "humanly," to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

5. T_1 refers to the first "time" the OCDQ was administered in the spring of 1968 in the schools composing the sample.

6. T_2 refers to the second "time" the OCDQ was administered in the spring of 1969 in the schools composing the sample.

7. Morale refers to the dimension of the OCDQ called Esprit.

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[17] Ibid., p. 151.

Limitations

The most serious limitation of this study lies in the fact that the individual schools in the sample were not selected at random from the school system, that is, the sample is a fortuitous one. Conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data can safely be applied only to those schools comprising the sample. Unless it is assumed that the sample is representative of the elementary schools in the school system, conclusions cannot be generalized to include all schools in the system.

Another limitation inheres in the fallibility of human perception. Although Halpin handles this problem by asserting that whatever is perceived by the faculty to be true of their school is more important than what actually is true,[18] research indicates "that an individual does not perceive with absolute accuracy the personality and behavior of other people."[19] A study by Null indicated "that perceptual error does occur in the judgment of the behavior of other people, but it would be quite difficult to determine with precision the amount and direction of the total error."[20]

Summary

The movement to develop a theory of administration which focuses on the sources and consequences of human behavior is a post-World War II phenomenon. The relationships between the administrator's behavior and

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[18] Ibid., p. 147.

[19] Eldon J. Null, "Personal Variables of Teachers as Related to their Perception of Dimensions of Organizational Climate," (a paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting of the American Educational Research Association, February 7, 1969), p. 1.

[20] Ibid., p. 5.

the productiveness of his work group is a microcosm in which problems of administration can be studied. Organizational change, viewed as an administration problem, can be motivated by several factors, among which is the succession of people through key offices. A better understanding of the organizational responses to leader succession is significant in that it can contribute to a more scientific approach to the selection and placing of administrators.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) has been found to be a suitable instrument for use in studying administrator-situation interaction. The purpose of the study is to investigate changes that may occur in group interaction resulting from leader succession in urban elementary schools. The problem was to measure the eight dimensions of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interaction in a number of urban elementary schools at two points in time by means of the OCDQ, in order that changes in group interaction can be compared between schools that experienced leader succession and those that did not experience leader succession.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Leader Behavior

Although the study of behavior in organizations, particularly as it might apply to educational administration, did not get under way until the late forties and early fifties, the roots of this approach can be seen emerging outside the realm of education somewhat earlier. In recognizing the dual aspect of leadership in seeking the goals of group achievement and group maintenance, investigators in charge of the personnel assessment program of the Office of Strategic Services during World War II defined leadership "as a man's ability to take the initiative in social situations, to plan and organize action, and in so doing to evoke cooperation."[1]

Some years earlier, Barnard, recognizing the same phenomenon wrote:

> The survival of cooperation, therefore depends upon two interrelated and interdependent classes of processes: (a) those which relate to the system of cooperation as a whole in relation to the environment, and (b) those which relate to the creation or distribution of satisfaction among individuals.
>
> The instability and failures of cooperation arise from defects in each of these classes and processes separately, and from defects in their combination. The functions of the executive are those of securing the effective adaptation of these processes.[2]

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[1] Halpin (1966), p. 37.

[2] Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1938), pp. 60-61.

As the traditional trait approach to the study of leadership gave way to the concept of leader behavior, the process of delineating the leader behavior associated with the achieving of group objectives became the focal point in administrative research. A notable example of this type of research by the Personnel Research Board of The Ohio State University resulted in the devising of a Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). An adaptation of the original LBDQ by Halpin and Winer was used in an Air Force study to identify two dimensions of leader behavior called Initiating Structure and Consideration.[3] These two dimensions parallel the group goals of group achievement and group maintenance. Initiating Structure has reference to behavior which delineates the relationship between the leader and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration implies behavior indicating a relationship of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth between the leader and his staff members. Subsequent research using the LBDQ with department heads in a liberal arts college,[4] with school superintendents,[5] and with high school principals[6] revealed evidence that effective leaders are those who score high on both dimensions of leader behavior.[7]

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[3]Halpin (1966), p. 39.

[4]Ibid., p. 97.

[5]Ibid., p. 111.

[6]Warren L. Evenson, "Leader Behavior of High School Principals," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, XLIII (September, 1959), pp. 96-101.

[7]Halpin (1966), p. 40.

A similar study involved the use of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII in 170 schools in Alberta, Canada. A basic assumption was:

> . . . that one can learn something of the leadership of a school from the staff perceptions--and judgments drawn therefrom--of the principal. This is so because of a more basic assumption that a perception of another person is a function of both sender and receiver of the percept. A descriptive statement based on such perceptions therefore gives away the nature of the describer as well as the described--sometimes, as with projective materials, to an even greater degree.[8]

The LBDQ XII consists of twelve subscales, which, when factor analyzed load on two factors identified as system orientation and person orientation. Findings in the study indicated that teacher satisfaction and confidence in the principal are sensitive to the perceived leadership of the school but teachers' estimate of the school's performance is not. It was also found that output criteria are most sensitive to variations in the leadership subscales that cluster around the middle of the system-person continuum. These refer to activities that indicate the need for an effective transaction between the institution and the person.[9]

In a paper surveying the recent research in the area of leadership in business and industrial enterprises, Bowers and Seashore, in synthesizing the findings, concluded that:

> These various research programs and writings make it clear that a great deal of conceptual content is held in common. In fact, four dimensions emerge from these studies, which seem to comprise the basic structure of what one may term "leadership":
> 1. Support. Behavior that enhances someone else's feeling of personal worth and importance.

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[8]Alan F. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," Educational Administration Quarterly (Winter, 1967), p. 62.

[9]Ibid., pp. 71-72.

2. Interaction facilitation. Behavior that encourages members of the group to develop close mutually satisfying relationships.
3. Goal emphasis. Behavior that stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting the group's goal or achieving excellent performance.
4. Work facilitation. Behavior that helps achieve goal attainment by such activities as scheduling, coordinating, planning, and by providing resources such as tools, materials, and technical knowledge.[10]

Organizational Climate

The experience with the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire had indicated that it was futile to assign a principal who ranked high on both Consideration and Initiating Structure to a school where the teachers were not ready to accept a leader who was likely to be effective.[11] But to say that a principal is an "effective" leader is to use the term in an evaluative sense, and, in essence, raises a question concerning the most practical means of measuring "effective" leadership. Cattell had proposed a means of assessing leadership based upon group syntality. The term syntality defines for the group precisely what personality does for the individual.[12] Cattell based his contention on the thesis that:

> . . . it is easy to see that in general the existence of the leader is detectable both from the internal organization of the group (i.e., from observations on process and interaction) and from the effectiveness of total performance of the group.[13]

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[10] Bowers and Seashore, pp. 246-247.

[11] Halpin (1966), p. 132.

[12] Raymond B. Cattell, "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership, In Terms of Group Syntality," Human Relations, IV, No. 2 (1951), p. 163.

[13] Ibid., p. 161.

The argument for a syntality evaluation calls for shifting the estimate of the goodness of a leader entirely to measurements of the performance of the group acting under his guidance. Thus, the definition of a leader is "a person who has a demonstrable influence upon group syntality."[14] Leadership is then measured by "the magnitude of the syntality change (from the mean) produced by that person, i.e., by the difference between syntality under his leadership and the syntality under the average or model leader."[15] It was further suggested that a practical procedure for leader measurement is to take a group of individuals constituting a stratified sample of the general population and to substitute a series of leaders in succession, measuring the group performance with respect to each of the known dimensions of syntality at each substitution.[16]

Earlier, Cattell had written that "to arrive at laws governing the development and interaction of groups, we must first have some accurate means of defining a group at a given moment."[17] Research in developing a means of "defining a group" led to the developing of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). Halpin and Croft constructed the OCDQ and applied it to a sample of seventy-one elementary schools in six regions of the United States. By factor analysis, eight subtests were identified and six climate categories were invented and arranged roughly along a continuum with "open" climate at one end and "closed" climate at the other.

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[14] Ibid., p. 175.

[15] Ibid.

[16] Ibid., pp. 174-175.

[17] Raymond B. Cattell, "Concepts and methods in measurement of group syntality," Psychological Review, 55 (1948), p. 48.

Perhaps the major impetus for the research into organizational climate was the observation that schools differ in their "feel." It is this "feel" that one gets upon visiting in different schools that can be termed the "personality" of the school. "Analogously, personality is to the individual what Organizational Climate is to the organization."[18] Also, there had been dissatisfaction with the concept of morale and the manner in which it had been handled in typical studies of schools and school systems. Finally, there was concern with organizational climate as such whether in a school, a hospital, or a business corporation.[19]

The OCDQ was constructed to permit the portrayal of the organizational climate of an elementary school. Its sixty-four Likert-type items can be used by teachers and principals to describe the climate of their school. The instrument consists of eight subtests, four of which pertain to the characteristics of the faculty group as a group and four to characteristics of the principal as a leader. The four tests that are used to characterize the faculty as a group are identified as Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy, while those that delineate the behavior of the leader are Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration. These eight subtests define the particular climate of the school. Six discrete organizational climate types are identified as Open, Autonomous, Controlled, Familiar, Paternal, and Closed. Although all eight subtests contribute to the overall climate, two of the subtests are especially significant in defining the climate: Thrust and Esprit. Esprit refers to what is called, in everyday language, "morale." Thrust refers to behavior of the principal in his

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[18] Halpin (1966), p. 131.

[19] Ibid., p. 132.

effort in trying to "move the organization," and represents a critical attribute of leader behavior which did not emerge from the LBDQ study.[20]

One approach to the study of organizational climate is to attempt to include everything about the climate under the single concept of morale. This can tell how high or how low the morale of an organization is but it cannot provide the basis for diagnosing a problem in the organization.[21] Although the establishing of high group morale is a desirable by-product, it is not the primary task of an organization. There are two points that must be made about the concept of morale:

> First, whatever it is, it is not a unidimensional concept. It has more than a single component, and each component can be defined best only in respect to the operations by which it is to be measured. High morale in respect to one component does not guarantee high morale in respect to another. Secondly, there is no necessary relationship between high morale and high productivity. An increase in morale may or may not be accompanied by an increase in productivity, and even where both rise together it is extremely difficult to establish a causal relationship.[22]

In factor analyzing the scores on the eight subtests of the OCDQ it was determined that three separate factors were being described. Factor I appeared to measure individual Social Needs. Intimacy and Consideration secured high loadings on this factor. Factor II, which appeared to measure the behavior of the group as a group, secured high positive loadings on Esprit and Thrust and high negative loadings on Disengagement and Hindrance and was therefore name Esprit. Factor III, named Social Control, is a leader factor. Aloofness and Production Emphasis, in securing the highest loadings on this factor, represent the principal's behavior in directing and controlling the behavior of his teachers. The

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[20] Ibid., pp. 133-135.

[21] Ibid., p. 141.

[22] Ibid., pp. 33-34.

factor loadings emphasize that the major components of Organizational Climate "are associated with individuals qua individuals, with group qua group, and with the principal as the leader."[23]

After identifying and naming the six types of organizational climate, the next step was to examine the three climate profile factors. It was found that the open and closed climates secured high loadings on Factor I. The open and closed climates are related in that in the open climate the actions of the group members emerge freely and without constraint. Stated differently, the behavior of the group members is genuine or authentic in the open climate. Since it was determined that these loadings were indicative of openness of climate, Factor I was named "Openness." Factor II received high loadings on the Controlled and Familiar climates. Since the Familiar Climate is highly personal but undercontrolled and the Controlled Climate has just the opposite orientation, Factor II was found to pertain largely "to the style of organizational behavior in respect to social control versus social needs satisfaction."[24]

Factor III was considered to be "an index to the latitude within which the group members can initiate leadership acts."[25] The Autonomous and Paternal climates both obtained high loadings on this factor. This led to the conclusion that Factor III "pertains to the source of attempted leadership acts, whether they originate primarily from the group or from the leader."[26]

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[23]Ibid., pp. 161-162.

[24]Ibid., pp. 190-191.

[25]Ibid., p. 191.

[26]Ibid., p. 192.

As a result of this climate profile analysis, three parameters were inferred which could be used to conceptualize the social interaction that takes place within an organization:

1. Authenticity: The authenticity, or openness, of the leader's and the group members' behavior.
2. Satisfaction: The group member's attainment of conjoint satisfaction in respect to task accomplishment and social needs.
3. Leadership Initiation: The latitude within which the group members, as well as the leader, can initiate leadership acts.[27]

OCDQ Validity Studies

Since the origination of the OCDQ by Halpin and Croft, several studies have been conducted with the instrument, including some replications. Brown replicated the original OCDQ study with a sample of eighty-one schools in the St. Paul-Minneapolis area. He found that the pattern of intercorrelations among the subtests were similar to those of the original study. Two major differences were noted, however. In factor-analyzing the intercorrelation matrix, he found a four-factor solution more tenable than the three-factor solution of Halpin and Croft. Also, where the original study revealed six climate types, Brown's study identified eight types. Brown concluded that it is possible to define a climate continuum but dividing the continuum into discrete climate types may be refining the results further than the data justifies.[28]

After conducting a study in which he used the OCDQ in 165 Alberta, Canada, schools, Andrews concluded that:

> . . . present evidence indicates that the subtest scores are good measures of the concepts they purport to measure. Thus

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[27]Ibid., p. 192.

[28]Robert J. Brown, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 2, Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1965, p. 5-10.

> it seems reasonably safe to judge the desirability of the various subtest scores by the descriptions given in the manual of the concepts involved.
>
> This does not appear to be the case, however, for the Climate categories. The present study found no meaning which could be attached to the named Climate categories that added anything to the meaning already present in the subtest scores. Furthermore, the central concept of Organizational Climate was concluded to be somewhat misleading in the breadth it suggested.
>
> In short, it is concluded that the OCDQ does not deal with Organizational Climate broadly but with the more restricted sphere of teacher-principal interaction. It is essentially a measure of leadership.[29]

Using the various studies performed on the sample of 165 Alberta schools, Andrews sought to produce some evidence regarding the construct validity of the OCDQ. The construct validity approach "regards a measure as valid to the extent that it demonstrates relationships with other measures which can be predicted in accordance with theory."[30] Accordingly, relationships between OCDQ scores and other variables were examined with reference to their consistency with established theory. Attention was restricted to the climate as a set of ordered categories, and to the eight concepts corresponding to the subtests. Conclusions, in addition to those reported earlier by Andrews, were that: (1) the concept of "authenticity" was not considered to be ready for validation; (2) the subtests displayed a large number of significant relationships with other variables--a tribute to the theoretical importance of the concepts measured and to the internal consistency of the subtests; and (3) the subtests of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire provide reasonably valid measures of important aspects of the school

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[29] J. H. M. Andrews, "What School Climate Conditions Are Desirable," The CSA Bulletin, IV, No. 5 (July, 1965), pp. 9-10.

[30] John H. M. Andrews, "School Organizational Climate: Some Validity Studies," Canadian Education and Research Digest (December, 1965), p. 318.

principal's leadership, in the perspective of interaction with his staff.[31]

A somewhat different type of validation study sought to cross-validate the pattern of intercorrelations among the four subtests of Factor II, Esprit, of the OCDQ and to check whether criterion-related validity for the OCDQ exists through the correlation of morale and turnover. It was concluded in this study that the relationships among the four subtests of Factor II correlated as predicted and were similar to the Halpin and Croft results. The relationships among the Morale Tendency Score and the four subtests of Factor II were significant in the predicted direction. Although there was no relationship between morale and the discrete climate categories, when the categories were collapsed into divisions of "Openness" and "Closedness," mean differences were found to exist in morale for schools classed as "open" as contrasted with those classed as "closed."[32]

It seems reasonable to conclude that the subtest scores of the OCDQ are good measures of the concepts they purport to measure and that they display a number of significant relationships with other variables.

Teacher-Principal Relationships

Empirical investigations into teacher-principal relationships in the public elementary school indicate that the respective roles of teacher and principal are inextricably bound along several dimensions of the relationship. A study by Becker, which explored the authority

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[31]Ibid., pp. 332-333.

[32]Aldona Sinush Vanderlain, "A Validation of the Factor II Esprit of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Maryland, 1968), pp. 80-85.

dimension of the public school and the teacher's place in it, disclosed that:

> Teachers have a well-developed conception of just how and toward what ends the principal's authority should be used, and conflict arises when it is used without regard for the teachers' expectations. These expectations are especially clear with regard to the teacher's relationships with parents and pupils, where the principal is expected to act to uphold the teacher's authority regardless of circumstances. Failure to do this produces dissatisfaction and conflict, for such action by the principal is considered one of the most efficient defenses against attack on authority, whether from parents or pupils. . . . This is, for the teachers, one of the major criteria of a "good" principal.[33]

Other studies have also reported findings which indicated that the primary concern of teachers was whether the principal would support them in their problems with parents and students. In the junior high school study, Willower observed that the greatest single concern of the teachers was that the principal, who was new to the school, might be "weak on discipline."[34]

Wayson investigated the sources of teacher satisfaction in slum schools in order to differentiate teachers who remain in lower-status schools from those who leave. The sample was divided into white and negro teachers. About one-fifth of the white stayers gave an accommodating principal as one of their motives for staying. It was further found that:

> Although most leavers seemed to like their principal, none expressed this as a reason for gaining satisfaction in schools. The type of principal desired by teachers in this sample . . . was generous with supplies; he protected teachers from

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[33]Howard S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School," Complex Organizations, A Sociological Reader, ed. Amitai Etzioni, (New York, 1961), p. 246.

[34]Donald J. Willower, "Hypotheses on the School as a Social System," Educational Administration Quarterly (Autumn, 1965), p. 46.

belligerent parents and unruly pupils; and he imposed few extra duties or faculty meetings.[35]

The Wayson study identified several groups of teachers who leave slum schools. One group can be identified during the period when the school faces impending change. When new types of pupils begin entering the school or when a new principal arrives on the scene, these teachers re-evaluate the balance of advantages between staying and leaving. Older, more experienced teachers are likely to leave at such times.[36]

Several studies give some insight into the relationship between teacher morale and leadership. In one such study by Chase, over 88 per cent of the teachers in the sample reported dynamic and stimulating leadership by the building principal as contributing greatly to satisfaction in teaching. Teachers in high-morale schools were seeking their satisfactions through increased professional competence, and in promoting pupil growth. They thought of the principal as one who could help them understand children and improve teaching and were dissatisfied with principals who operated at the level of the super-disciplinarian.[37]

Lambert investigated the relationships between teacher morale measured by the Purdue Teacher Opinionaire, and the school principal's leader behavior as perceived by teachers as measured by the Leader

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[35]William W. Wayson, "Sources of Teacher Satisfaction in Slum Schools," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, XIV, No. 9 (May, 1966).

[36]Ibid.

[37]Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, I, No. 8 (March, 1953).

Behavior Description Questionnaire. He concluded that teacher morale and the school principal's leader behavior are significantly and highly related.[38]

There is some support for the idea that teacher satisfaction, effectiveness, and confidence in the leadership of the principal depends on substantial agreement between teacher and principal regarding the teacher's role. In a study by Campbell, it was found that (1) teachers whose wants and needs were in agreement with their principal's expectation expressed significantly higher job satisfaction than those teachers whose wants were in conflict with the principal's definition of the teacher's role; (2) effective teachers were the ones whose wants and needs were similar to the principal's expectation; and (3) teachers whose wants and needs were in agreement with what the principal expected expressed more confidence in the principal's leadership.[39]

Several studies of principal-teacher relationships have been reported that used the Getzels-Guba model as the theoretical framework. One such study was based on the nomothetic and idiographic leadership styles and leader's perceptions of subordinates.[40] These leadership styles are conceptual constructs and may be described in simplified terminology as follows:

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[38]Donald Burton Lambert, "A Study of the Relationships Between Teacher Morale and the School Principal's Leader Behavior," (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Auburn University, 1968), p. vii.

[39]Merton V. Campbell, "Teacher-Principal Agreement on the Teacher Role," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, VII, No. 6 (February, 1959).

[40]Donald J. Willower, "Leadership Styles and Leaders' Perceptions of Subordinates," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXXIV (October, 1960), pp. 58-64.

> In the nomothetic style, the leader expects subordinates to do things "by the book." He expects subordinates to behave in strict conformity to organizational requirements. He sees his office as a center of authority and emphasizes that the same rules and procedures should apply to all subordinates. He is concerned that subordinates behave in a "proper" manner in all their activities. He usually relies for subordinate control on rewards and penalties spelled out in organizational regulations.
>
> In the idiographic style, the leader expects subordinates to work things out for themselves, each in his own way. He expects subordinates to behave in ways which meet their personal needs. He sees his authority as delegated and emphasizes that rules and procedures have to be tailored to the individual subordinates personality. He is concerned only with how subordinates behave on the job. He usually relies for subordinate control, on the individual's sense of right and wrong.[41]

In testing the hypothesis that "principals employing an idiographic leadership style will tend to regard teachers as professionals to a greater extent than will principals employing a nomothetic leadership style,"[42] the only major finding in the study that held for both idiographic and nomothetic groups was that younger principals in both groups had a tendency to regard teachers as being less professional than did older principals within the respective groups.[43]

A study of the behavioral modification of a particular personality type in a public educational bureaucracy used as subjects elementary principals who differed along the personality dimensions of dogmatism or open and closed mindedness.[44] The twenty-eight principals in the study were matched on several variables such as age, sex, experience, size of teaching staff, and social class of the neighborhood served by the

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[41] Ibid., p. 59.

[42] Ibid., p. 60.

[43] Ibid., p. 63.

[44] Edwin M. Bridges, "Bureaucratic Role and Socialization: The Influence of Experience on the Elementary School Principal," Educational Administration Quarterly (Spring, 1965), pp. 19-28.

school. The study indicated that experience has a leveling effect on the personal qualities and performance of elementary principals as perceived by the teachers. A possible explanation for this effect suggests that:

> Apparently personality and role exert different degrees of pressure on the performance of the principal depending upon the amount of experience which the individual has had in the principal's role. Initially the individual may stamp his particular role with the unique style of his own characteristic expressive behavior. However, with increased exposure to the expectations associated with the bureaucratic role, the personality of the principal becomes submerged. Principals, it seems, become more alike with behavioral differences attributable to personality becoming less evident as the principal learns how he is expected to behave in his role.[45]

In an investigation by Lipham[46] relating personality variables to administrative effectiveness, it was hypothesized and substantiated that effective principals would tend to rank higher than ineffective principals in (1) activity in moving forward purposefully, (2) drive to improve their competence through general and specialized study, (3) becoming a leader of groups and operating in a position of power and authority, (4) associating well with others, (5) feeling secure in relationships with family and authority figures, and (6) adjusting well to frustrating situations.

The Principal and Organizational Climate

In considering the variables that act to determine the organizational climate of a school, the impact of the formal leader, the

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[45] Ibid., pp. 26-27.

[46] James Lipham, "Personal Variables of Effective Administrators," Administrator's Notebook, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, IX, No. 1 (September, 1960), pp. 1-4.

principal, must be considered as one of major importance. Concerning this impact, Halpin wrote:

> There is no gainsaying the fact that such influence does operate and that it must be taken into account when we seek to understand the Organizational Climate of a particular school. But this is not a one-way street. The leader influences the behavior of the group members, but the group members also influence the behavior of the leader.[47]

Plaxton, in studying principal personality type and organizational climate, developed his research on the premise:

> . . . that there is a pattern of personality types characteristic of school principals and that the individual types that produce this pattern are related to the leadership behavior of the principal and ultimately to some of the characteristics of the group he leads.[48]

In testing a hypothesis to determine whether the six categories of climate were related to the personality types of the principals, Plaxton found that there was no significant relationship. This would indicate that there was no overall relationship between personality types of principals and climate categories. Some correspondence, however, was found between principal personality and certain OCDQ subtests that describe the principal.[49]

In a similar study designed to investigate the relationships between the organizational climate of elementary schools and selected personal variables of the schools' principals, Anderson administered the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire, the Study of Values, and a biographical inventory to all principals. Schools were divided into three climate categories

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[47] Halpin (1966), pp. 198-199.

[48] R. Plaxton, "Principal Personality and School Organizational Climate," The CSA Bulletin, IV, No. 5 (July, 1965), p. 21.

[49] Ibid., p. 26.

on the basis of their scores on the Esprit subtest, the open climate schools having the highest scores and the closed climate schools, the lowest. Principal performance on the personality and value instruments were compared for the three groups of schools with significant results that revealed:

1. Principals in the closed climate schools were more evasive, more changeable and worrying, and more lacking in frustration tolerance than the principals in either of the other two groups.
2. Principals in the closed climate schools were more submissive, more dependent, more conventional and mild, more easily upset than principals in the open and middle climate schools.
3. Principals in the open climate schools were more confident, self-secure, self-confident, and cheerful than either of the other two groups of principals.
4. Principals in the open climate schools were more resourceful and self-sufficient than their more sociably group dependent counterparts in the middle climate schools.
5. Principals in the open climate schools were more controlled and exacting, more successful in productive organizational activities than were the principals in the closed climate schools.[50]

Other writers have indicated that they believe the major responsibility for openness and closedness of school climate rests with the principal. A paper by Johnson and Marcum concluded that:

> . . . a large burden of the climate for change rests with the school principal, who, as a single individual, has major effect on school climate. He alone is a chief agent in the openness or closedness of the organization. Of the eight dimensions measured by the OCDQ, four are perceptions about the principal's specific behavior and four are teacher behaviors which are largely dependent upon the principal's behavior. It would seem, then, that principal selection, and principal training as well as granting of authority and

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[50]Donald P. Anderson, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 1, Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1964, pp. 3-4.

> responsibility for the structural elements of a school to the principal are basic to the development of a change climate.[51]

There is also evidence that personal variables of teachers, such as attitudes toward children, are related to organizational climate. A study in which the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, a measure of teacher attitude toward children, was tested for relationships with organizational climate disclosed "that the mean MTAI score of teachers in schools with an open climate were significantly higher than the mean MTAI scores of teachers in schools with an intermediate climate and a closed climate respectively."[52]

Leader Succession

If the principal has any effect on the organizational climate of his school, the process of principal succession could be expected to result in some changes in the interaction of the staff. A study involving elementary schools that had recently experienced leader succession concluded that:

> . . . there were, in fact, significant changes in both leader and group behavior after leader succession, and organizational members were able to observe and record these changes in behavior. . . . there were, in fact, significant changes in all dimensions of leader behavior after leader succession. . . . Organizational members perceived that the leader did behave differently in T' and T"; the group affected the leader's behavior.
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> The findings revealed that there were significant associations between esprit, disengagement, and intimacy dimensions of group behavior and the leader dimension of thrust. When

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[51] Homer M. Johnson and R. Laverne Marcum, "Organizational Climate and the Adoption of Educational Innovations," (a paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting of the American Educational Research Association, February 5-8, 1969), p. 6.

[52] Eldon J. Null, Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools, Research Monograph No. 3, Educational Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Inc., 1967, p. 12.

> thrust scores were higher after leader succession, intimacy and esprit scores were also higher. However, changes in disengagement scores were inversely related to changes in thrust scores.[53]

A somewhat different conclusion regarding leader succession was drawn in a study of the relationship between leadership behavior characteristics and organizational climate by Wiggins. In this study, Wiggins defined leader behavior characteristics as interpersonal orientation, organizational orientation, and interpersonal values, and organizational climate was defined as the characteristics of teacher-principal interaction. It was found that leader behavior and organizational climate generally were not shown to be significantly related. The findings further indicated that there existed a compelling organizational climate stability that did not change when principals were replaced. Even a retest after approximately eight months in thirteen of the schools showed the replacement of the principal to have no significant effect on the existing organizational climate. The principal's leader behavior became more significantly related to the organizational climate as the length of his incumbency increased.[54] The study supported:

> . . . the assumption that school functionaries are socialized if not subsumed by their organizations. . . . Apparently large urban school districts and the educational establishment itself carefully prepare principals to behave in a rational, predictable, and uniform manner.[55]

Investigations into leader succession in several instances, both in and out of educational settings, have indicated that the new leader

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[53]Thomas Alan Petrie, "Change in Organizational Climate After Leader Succession," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1966), pp. 154-155.

[54]Thomas W. Wiggins, "Leader Behavior Characteristics and Organizational Climate," (a paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting of the American Educational Research Association, February 5-8, 1969), pp. 2-5.

[55]Ibid., p. 5.

behaves differently in the new setting. Carlson, in his study of the succession of school superintendents, reported a tendency to become preoccupied with rules and rule-making early in their stay in office. The term "rule" is used broadly to include such items as definition of work day, procedures for handling paper, and people and policy statements.[56]

Grusky[57] reported the same tendency in the new supervisor of a prison camp and Gouldner[58] made a similar observation about a successor in an industrial firm. In each of these instances the analysis of the successor's introduction of rules centered on the consequences of the rules for the operation of the organization. The problem concerned the reaction of those affected by the rules.[59]

Theoretical Background

One of the most useful theories in the field of educational administration, if viewed only on volume of completed research, is the theory of administration as a social process which was developed by Getzels and Guba.[60] This model of administration is described in psychological and sociological terms which define the process of administration as dealing:

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[56]Richard O. Carlson, Executive Succession and Organizational Change, Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago (Chicago, 1962), p. 23.

[57]Oscar Grusky, "Role Conflict in Organization: A Study of Prison Camp Officials," Administrative Science Quarterly, III (March, 1959), pp. 464-465.

[58]Alvin W. Gouldner, Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy (Glencoe, Illinois, 1954), pp. 59-69.

[59]Carlson, p. 24.

[60]James M. Lipham, "Organizational Character of Education: Administrative Behavior," Review of Educational Research, XXXIV, No. 4 (October, 1964), p. 435.

> . . . essentially with the conduct of social behavior in a hierarchical setting. Structurally, we may conceive of administration as a series of superordinate-subordinate relationships within a social system. Functionally, this hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles, personnel, and facilities to achieve the goals of the system.[61]

The term "social system" as used in the model is conceptual and does not refer to "society" or "state" or only to large aggregates of human interaction but, rather, depending on the purpose, to a single school, or a single classroom in a school. It is applicable regardless of the level or size of the unit under consideration.[62]

According to the model, social systems involve two dimensions. First, there is the institutional dimension with certain roles and expectations that are designed to fulfill the goals of the system; and second, individuals inhabiting the system with certain personalities and need dispositions, the interaction of which comprise what is called social behavior. Social behavior is seen as a function of the institution, the role, and the expectation, which together constitute the nomothetic dimension of social behavior while the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition together constitute the idiographic dimension of behavior.[63]

Social behavior in an organization can be more readily understood when it is seen that a given act derives:

> . . . simultaneously from both the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions. That is to say, social behavior results as the individual attempts to cope with an environment composed of

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[61] Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), p. 424.

[62] Ibid.

[63] Ibid.

patterns of expectations for his behavior in ways consistent with his own independent pattern of needs.[64]

The model may be represented graphically as indicated in Figure 1, where the nomothetic dimension consists of the institution, the role, and the expectation. The idiographic dimension consists of the individual, the personality, and the need-disposition. Each term is the analytic unit for the term immediately preceding it. For example, the social system is defined by its institutions; each institution by its constituent roles; and each role by the expectations attached to it.[65]

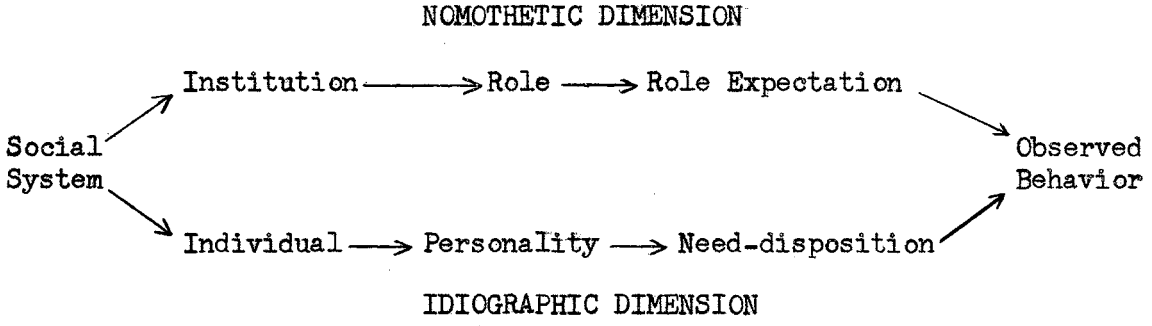

Figure 1. General Model Showing the Nomothetic and Idiographic Dimensions of Social Behavior

Every organization is concerned with the effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction of the role incumbents. This model makes possible clear-cut distinctions between the terms by relating them to the behavior in the organization which is a function of role-expectations and

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[64] Ibid., p. 429.

[65] Ibid., pp. 428-429.

personality dispositions. Effectiveness is seen as a function of the congruence of behavior with expectations. Efficiency is a function of the congruence of behavior with need-dispositions. Satisfaction is a function of the congruence of institutional expectations with individual need-dispositions.[66]

Morale in an organization can be seen as an affective pattern underlying effectiveness, efficiency, and satisfaction. It generally refers to a feeling-tone of belongingness in a group and identification with the goals of the group. In addition to the two elements of belongingness and identification often included in the literature on morale, a third element, rationality, is thought to be equally important. Morale can then be understood as a function of the variables of belongingness, rationality, and identification.[67]

Belongingness refers to the feeling of the role incumbent that he will be able to achieve satisfaction in the role-set because the role-expectations of the institution appear to be congruent with his personal needs. Rationality refers to the extent that role expectations are thought to be logically appropriate to achieving the professed goals of the system. Identification has to do with the degree to which the goals of the system are integrated with the goals of the individual.[68]

Morale cannot be high if one of these elements is low. The task of the administrator in seeking to develop high morale is to establish reasonable levels of congruence among the expectations of roles, the needs

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[66] Ibid., pp. 433-435.

[67] Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Ronald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process: Theory, Research, Practice (New York, 1968), pp. 129-133.

[68] Ibid.

of the role incumbents, and the goals of the system. Concomitants to the maintenance of high morale will be the maintenance of satisfaction, effectiveness, and efficiency.[69]

Roles are the most important analytic subunit of the institution. They are the "dynamic aspects" of the positions, offices, and statuses within an institution that define the behavior of the role incumbents. They are defined in terms of "role expectations," or certain normative obligations and responsibilities, and when the role incumbent puts obligations and responsibilities into effect, he is said to be performing his role.[70]

Roles are complementary and interdependent:

> . . . in that each role derives its meaning from other related roles in the institution. In a sense, a role is a prescription not only for the given role incumbent but also for the incumbents of other roles within the organization, so that in a hierarchial setting the expectations of one role may to some extent also form the sanctions for a second interlocking role.[71]

Behaviors associated with a role are not rigidly defined. They may be conceived of as lying along a continuum from "required" to "prohibited." Between these two extremes lie behaviors that are more or less permissible. It is this range of permissible behavior that permits individuals with different personalities to fulfill the same role and stamp it with their own individual style of behavior.[72]

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[69] Ibid.

[70] Jacob W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," Administrative Theory in Education, ed. Andrew W. Halpin (New York, 1967), p. 153.

[71] Ibid.

[72] Getzels and Guba, p. 426-427.

The proportion of role and personality involved in a behavioral act will vary with the specific role, act, and personality involved. The nature of this interaction can be seen in Figure 2 where a given behavioral act is conceived of as occurring at a line cutting diagonally through the rectangle. A given act may be largely role-expectation dominated or the personality may dictate the behavior.[73]

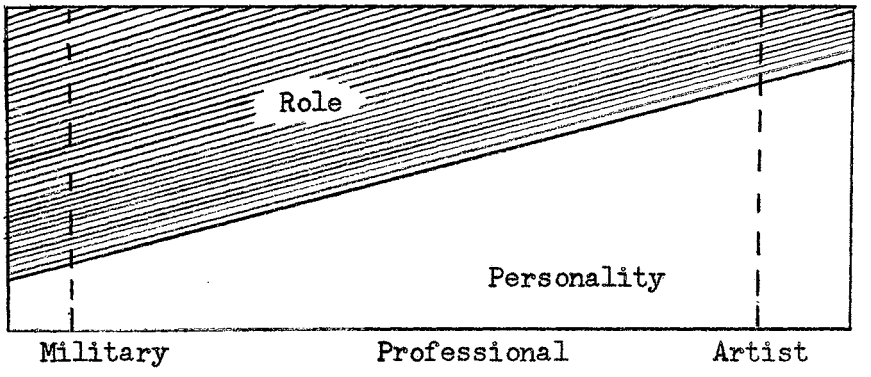

Figure 2. The Interaction of Role and Personality in a Behavioral Act (B = f[R x P]).

In any event, since roles are filled with real, flesh-and-blood people no two of whose are exactly alike, each individual can be expected to stamp "the particular role he fills with the unique style of his own characteristic pattern of expressive behavior."[74] This, in

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[73]Getzels, p. 158.

[74]Getzels and Guba, p. 427.

effect, suggests that under certain circumstances, if the individual role incumbent is changed, the definition of the role is changed with him.[75]

This general model of administration becomes relevant for administrative theory and practice:

> . . . when it is seen that the administrative process inevitably deals with the fulfillment of both nomothetic role-expectation and idiographic need-dispositions while the goals of a particular social system are being achieved. The unique task of administration, at least with respect to staff relations, is just this: to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling.[76]

Carrying the model one step further, Getzels suggests a simple derivation involving interpersonal perception and superordinate-subordinate consensus. The administrative relationship always functions at two levels of interaction, the first of which, the nomothetic dimension, derives from the particular offices or statuses in the social system and is determined by the nature of the roles involved in the interaction. The second level, the idiographic dimension, derives from the particular people or individuals in the social system and is determined by the personalities involved in the interaction. The publicly prescribed nomothetic relationship is enacted in two separate private idiographic situations; one by the subordinate and one by the superordinate. The functioning of the administrative process will depend on the nature of the overlap, i.e., on the relative congruence or discrepancy between the separate perceptions of the expectations in the two situations.[77]

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[75]Ibid.

[76]Ibid., p. 430.

[77]Getzels, p. 159.

In an effort to provide an explanation for a wider range of phenomena associated with organizational behavior, Abbott modified the Getzels-Guba model to include an understanding of the effects of certain intervening variables.[78] As a member of a formal organization, each individual functions in two separate situations, one imbedded in the other: (1) the official definition of the position and (2) the individual's own role concept. The interaction of these two situations, a perceptual process, represents each individual's cognitive orientation to role or his perceptual response to the organization's codified behavior system.

At the same time that the individual is developing a rational understanding of his place in the organization, he also develops feelings and attitudes regarding his position referred to as an affective response to role. The concepts of cognitive orientation to role and affective response to role may be used to replace the single concept of motivation in predicting the behavior that might occur under specified circumstances.

It is meaningful to speak of the individual's cognitive orientation only at a given point in time because it is subject to shifts and reformulations. These shifts are caused by organizational forces, such as the reward system and the norms of the reference group system, which serve as feedback mechanisms. A pictorial representation of the Abbott modification can be seen in Figure 3.

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[78]Max G. Abbott, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior," Educational Administrative Quarterly (Winter, 1965), pp. 1-13.

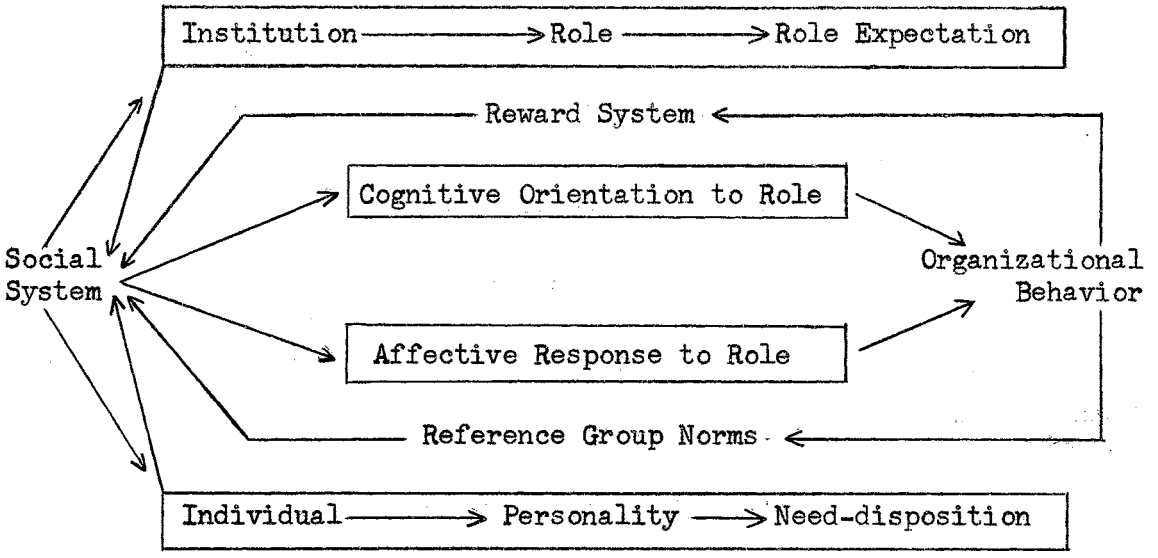

Figure 3. The Abbott Modification of the Getzels-Guba Model Showing How Organizational Forces and Feedback Mechanisms Can Affect Organizational Behavior

Sound theoretical formulations should serve primarily as a guide to research. The ultimate purpose of research in administration, of course, is to promote the development of a theory of administration. As a guide for research on administrator behavior, Halpin designed a paradigm, the primary purpose of which is to identify the relationships that exist between the behavior of the administrator and changes in the organization achievement.[79] The paradigm consists of four panels identified as (1) the organizational task, defined in terms of desirable behavior and behavioral products; (2) administrator behavior; the behavior of the officially designated leader in his administrative role; (3) the variables associated with administrator behavior, including behavior of group members other than the leader, products of the behavior of group

[79]Halpin (1966), p. 62.

members, etc.; and (4) criteria of administrator effectiveness. These criteria include changes in both organizational maintenance and organizational achievement. A differentiation has been made between these two kinds of changes:

> . . . because they do not necessarily parallel each other. It is doubtful, for example, whether a desirable change can take place in the organization's achievement without a corresponding change in its maintenance. On the other hand, a favorable change in its maintenance--for example, increased morale--does not guarantee a corresponding change in the organization's achievement.[80]

The paradigm recognizes that "behavior and the events associated with behavior take place through time" consequently "a time line is extended horizontally across the paradigm.[81] It is therefore possible to assess the several aspects of the administrative process at two or more points in time in order to determine changes in a particular administrative situation or in comparing the effectiveness of two different administrators.[82]

A condensed version of the paradigm is shown in Figure 4 indicating the relationships of the contents of the four panels.[83] According to Halpin, in this simplified version of the paradigm, the arrows indicate the relationships that exist between the behavior of the administrator (Panel II) and changes in the organization achievement (Panel IV-B). Arrows point from Panel IV to Panel I because the task defines the purpose of the organization. Since the focus of the research is upon the administrator and the purpose is to predict changes in organization

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[80] Ibid., p. 53.

[81] Ibid., p. 44.

[82] Ibid., p. 65.

[83] Ibid., p. 64.

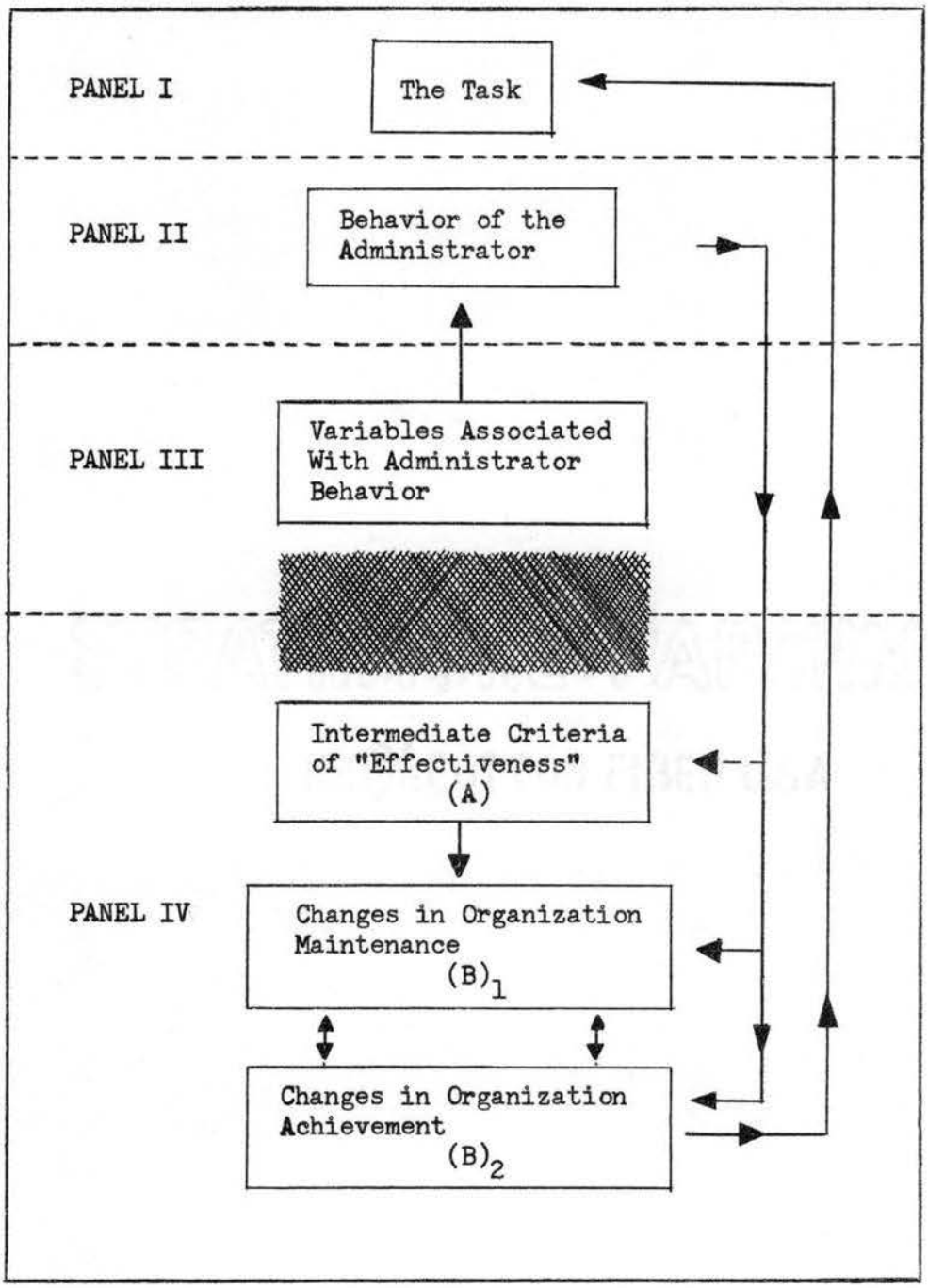

Figure 4. Condensed Version of the Paradigm for Research on Administrator Behavior

achievement from his behavior, the arrow points from Panel II to Panel IV. The problem is to predict events in Panel IV-B on the basis of variables identified in Panel II. The identification of variables in Panel III is intended to increase the accuracy of the predictions made from the variables in Panel II. The arrow therefore points from Panel III to Panel II. There is no direct connection between Panels III and IV because the flow between these two panels must always be mediated through Panel II.[84]

Rationale for Hypotheses

In interpreting the prototypic climate profiles in their original study, Halpin and Croft emphasized the impact of the behavior of the principal upon the climate of his school. They hastened to add, however, that although the leader influences the behavior of the group members, the group members also influence the behavior of the leader.[85]

Principals differ in the manner in which they perform the functional aspects of the administrative process of allocating and integrating roles, personnel, and facilities to achieve the goals of the system. This difference will be more obvious to the teachers following succession when comparisons between the leadership styles of the predecessor and his successor are more readily drawn. It has been found in studies of succession, both in and outside of educational settings, that successors behave differently in the new setting,[86] that is, they engage in rule-making and rule enforcement behavior more so than did their

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[84] Ibid., pp. 62-65.

[85] Ibid., pp. 198-199.

[86] Carlson, p. 23.

predecessor. Furthermore, the educational bureaucracy has socializing influences on individuals which tend to alter the behavior of the role incumbent as the length of his incumbency increases.[87] It seems logical to assume, then, that successor principals not only behave in a manner different from that of their predecessor, they behave in a manner that differs somewhat from the way they themselves behaved in their prior position.

Roles within a social system are seen as complementary and interdependent to the extent that one role may form the sanctions for a second interlocking role.[88] When a successor principal employs a method or a manner of allocating and integrating roles which differs from that of his predecessor, he essentially is re-interpreting the principal's role somewhat by stamping it with his own characteristic style of expressive behavior. At the same time, he holds a somewhat different perception of the role-expectations of the teachers on the staff than did his predecessor. This re-allocation and re-integration of roles following succession would, within limits, redefine the behavior expected of role incumbents. The system to which the teachers react assumes a slightly different character.

Not only does the principal hold certain role-expectations for the teachers in his school, the teachers hold role-expectations for the principal which, if fulfilled, contribute to the teachers' satisfaction with their job.[89] In order for morale to be high among teachers they must feel that they will be able to achieve satisfaction in the role-set

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[87] Bridges, pp. 19-20.

[88] Getzels and Guba, p. 427.

[89] Campbell.

(belongingness), that the role expectations are logically appropriate for achieving the goals of the system (rationality), and to be able to integrate the goals of the system into their own goals (identification). The administrator's task in maintaining high morale is to establish reasonable levels of congruence among the expectations of roles, the needs of the role incumbents, and the goals of the system.[90] Successor principals will differ from their predecessor in the role-expectations that they hold for teachers as well as their ability to maintain the previous level of congruence between role-expectations, need dispositions, and the goals of the system. Morale in a school will change if any one of the three elements of belongingness, rationality, and identification changes.

Hypotheses

The general question explored in this study was concerned with changes in group interaction that occurred in the sample of elementary schools between the spring of 1968 (T_1) and the spring of 1969 (T_2). The general hypothesis was proposed that changes in group interaction as perceived by the group will be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools having leader succession than in those not having leader succession. In order to test the general hypothesis, three major hypotheses and seven corollary hypotheses were proposed as follows:

1. Changes in leader behavior as perceived by the group, as measured by the leader-behavior subtests of the OCDQ, will be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools having leader succession than in those not having leader succession.

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[90] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, p. 133.

a. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ leader-behavior dimension of aloofness will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

b. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ leader-behavior dimension of production emphasis will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

c. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ leader-behavior dimension of thrust will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

d. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ leader-behavior dimension of consideration will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

2. Changes in group behavior as perceived by the group, as measured by the teacher-behavior subtests of the OCDQ, will be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

a. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ dimension of hindrance will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

b. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ teacher-behavior dimension of disengagement will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

c. Between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ teacher-behavior dimension of intimacy will be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

3. Changes in teacher morale as perceived by the group as measured by the OCDQ subtest, esprit, will be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession.

Summary

The effort to delineate the behavior associated with effective leadership led to the development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). The LBDQ identified two dimensions of leader behavior called Initiating Structure and Consideration which parallel the group goals of group achievement and group maintenance. In addition to identifying four dimensions of leader behavior called Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration, the OCDQ also identified four dimensions of group behavior called Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy. The OCDQ was also used to identify six climate categories arranged roughly along a continuum from Open to Closed.

Validity studies have concluded that the subtest scores of the OCDQ are good measures of the concepts they purport to measure and that they display a large number of significant relationships with other variables --a tribute to the theoretical importance of the concepts measured and to the internal consistency of the subtests. The six climate categories appear to add little to the meaning already present in the subtests.

Research into teacher-principal relationships in public elementary schools indicate that teachers expect principals to uphold the teacher's authority in relationships with parents and pupils regardless of the circumstances. Failure to do so results in dissatisfaction and conflict. Definite relationships have been found between teacher morale and the teacher's perception of the principal's leader behavior. Teacher satisfaction, effectiveness and confidence in the leadership of the principal depend on substantial agreement between the teacher and the principal regarding the teacher's role.

Younger principals, regardless of whether they employed an idiographic or a nomothetic leadership style, were found to perceive teachers as being less professional than did older principals. Older principals were found to be more and more alike as perceived by teachers, as their experience in the principal role increased, with behavioral differences attributable to personality becoming less evident as they learned how they were expected to behave in their role.

Leaders are thought to influence the behavior of the group, and, reciprocally, the group affects the behavior of the leader. Studies of leader succession have indicated that the new leader's behavior has a definite effect on the behavior of the group. One study of leader succession in urban elementary schools which used the OCDQ to measure changes in behavior, concluded that there were significant changes in both leader and group behavior following succession. Another study which also used the OCDQ found that climates did not change following leader succession.

The theoretical foundation for this study was the Getzels-Guba model of administration as a social process and the Halpin paradigm for

guiding research on administrator behavior. The rationale for the hypotheses is based on the concept of roles as outlined in the Getzels-Guba model and the concept of morale as embodied in the elements of belongingness, rationality, and identification. The general hypothesis proposed that changes in group interaction will be significantly greater in schools having leader succession than in those schools not having leader succession.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In order to investigate the organizational responses to leader succession in urban elementary schools, it was necessary to conduct a longitudinal study in an urban school system. The sample of elementary schools participating in the study had to be sufficiently large to insure the probability that the number of principal replacements occurring during the study would constitute an adequately sized sample of schools exposed to the condition of leader succession.

A research project in progress in an Oklahoma urban school system fulfilled the requirements for the study satisfactorily. Thirty-four of the system's eighty-eight elementary schools were involved in the project. The thirty-four schools had originally been two groups of schools used as samples in two separate doctoral studies in the spring of 1968 in a study involving Organizational Climate. The two groups of schools were subsequently combined to form the sample for a three-year longitudinal study of Organizational Climate under the sponsorship of the Oklahoma State University Research Foundation. The OSU Research Foundation became involved in the project in late 1968 and early 1969.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered in each of the thirty-four schools for the first time (T_1) in March and April of 1968, and the second time (T_2) in each of the schools in March and April of 1969. This pattern of timing resulted in the OCDQ

being administered shortly before and seven to eight months after leader succession had occurred.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered in each of the schools by a trained administrator, either immediately before school opened for the day (approximately 8:10 a.m.) or immediately after school closed for the day (approximately 3:30 p.m.), as the principal suggested. The principal was asked to respond to his questionnaire in his office or in a room separated from the group in order to eliminate the possibility that his presence might affect the responses of the teachers on the questionnaire. Individual teachers remained anonymous. No identification was placed on the questionnaire that could be traced to any specific teacher in the expectation that anonymity would encourage greater honesty in responding to the instrument. Individual teachers did, however, respond to an information sheet that accompanied the questionnaire on which they gave such information as their age, sex, grade-level assignment, total years of teaching experience and total years of teaching under the present principal.

After each session with the staff of each school during the second administration of the questionnaire in the spring of 1969, the questionnaire administrator held a short interview with the principal. The purpose of the interview was to determine (1) the total length of administrative experience of the principal; (2) the length of incumbency as principal in the building; (3) staff size for the previous (1967-68) and present (1968-69) school years; (4) the number of teachers new to the staff since March and April, 1968; (5) the progress toward the racial integration of the staff; and (6) if any significant changes had occurred in the student population served by the school since the spring of the

preceding year. This was an effort to isolate and identify possible intervening variables.

None of the principals indicated that there had been significant changes in the pupil population served by the school since the preceding school year. All of the twenty-three schools ultimately selected as the sample for this study had remained stable with respect to racial integration of the staff.

Since the study was concerned with changes in group perception of group interaction over a period of approximately one year, it was preferable, for purposes of this study, for the groups to remain relatively intact from one school year to the next. While it is possible that adding to or removing even one individual from a group may change its character somewhat, it is thought by some that the group preserves characteristic behavior habits and structure despite the continual replacement of actual individuals.[1] Nevertheless, in order to place some control on group stability and avoid the possibility that large influxes of new group members might affect the characteristic interaction patterns of the group, an arbitrary limit was placed on the number of new members a group could have and still be included in the study. It was determined that at least two-thirds of the group members who were present in March and April, 1968, at the time of the first administration of the OCDQ, should still be members of their respective groups during the second administration of the OCDQ in March and April, 1969.

At the close of the 1967-68 school year, principals were replaced in nine of the thirty-four schools. Stated differently, between the first (T_1) and second years (T_2) of the study, leader succession occurred

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[1] Cattell (1948), p. 51.

in nine schools, leaving twenty-five schools where leader succession did not occur. Each of the thirty-four schools was screened in accordance with the limitation set on staff turnover. It was found that two of the nine schools that had experienced leader succession exceeded the limit of staff turnover set for inclusion in the study and were eliminated. The "experimental" group of schools that had experienced leader succession included seven schools. Sixteen of the remaining twenty-five schools were found to be within the turnover limitation and were included in the study as the "control" group of schools that had not experienced leader succession. The total sample for this study consisted of twenty-three schools.

The seven schools in which leader succession occurred had an average staff-size of 16.8 in 1968 and 17.2 in 1969, a slight gain. The sixteen schools which did not experience leader succession had an average staff-size of 20.1 in 1968 and 19.5 in 1969, a small decrease. The largest school in the sample had a staff of forty-two teachers; the smallest, a staff of eleven teachers. Table I shows the staff-size for each of the twenty-three schools in the sample for both years of the study as well as the number of teachers who were new to each group in 1969, the second year of the study.

The design of the study called for a 100% response from the staff of each school. The principals were asked to have all of their staff members together at the appointed time to respond to the questionnaire. However, due to illness, inservice meetings, and other undetermined causes, all staff members in all schools did not respond to the questionnaire. Table II shows the number of respondents in each of the schools

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE SCHOOLS BY STAFF SIZE[a] AND NUMBER OF NEW STAFF MEMBERS[b]

School	Leader Succession			Non-Leader Succession		
	1968	1969	New	1968	1969	New
01	12	12	1	..	..	..
02	..	..	..	20	20	4
03	..	..	..	13	13	2
04	..	..	..	21	21	7
07	..	..	..	23	19	2
08	..	..	..	13	13	4
11	25	28	8	..	..	..
12	..	..	..	18	16	3
13	26	26	6	..	..	..
14	13	11	2	..	..	..
16	..	..	..	22	22	7
18	13	14	1	..	..	..
19	..	..	..	20	19	3
20	..	..	..	18	18	6
23	..	..	..	42	40	10
24	12	13	3	..	..	..
25	..	..	..	32	32	7
26	..	..	..	13	12	2
27	17	17	2	..	..	..
29	..	..	..	12	11	1
31	..	..	..	17	18	5
32	..	..	..	18	19	5
33	..	..	..	20	20	5
Total	118	121	24	322	313	73

[a]Information obtained from Principal Interview Form; includes only full time staff members.

[b]Refers to teachers on the staff in 1969 who were not members of the staff in 1968.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF TEACHERS[a] RESPONDING TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

School	Leader Succession		Non-Leader Succession	
	1968	1969	1968	1969
01	13*	12	..	..
02	..	..	13	18
03	..	..	14*	12
04	..	..	23*	17
07	..	..	26*	17
08	..	..	10	12
11	20	23	..	..
12	..	..	16	16
13	24	22	..	..
14	12	11	..	..
16	..	..	16	20
18	13	14	..	..
19	..	..	16	18
20	..	..	17	17
23	..	..	31	41*
24	12	11	..	..
25	..	..	29	29
26	..	..	13	10
27	12	16	..	..
29	..	..	12	10
31	..	..	18*	16
32	..	..	19*	19
33	..	..	21*	17
Total	106	109	294	289

[a]Does not include principals.

*Number responding exceeds the total full-time staff size in Table I in some instances because a few teachers on half-time assignment responded to the questionnaire.

included in the study for both years of the study. Table III gives a comparison of total teachers, total response to the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and the percentage of response for the leader succession and non-leader succession schools for both years of the study.

The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire consists of sixty-four Likert-type items distributed among eight subtests which can be viewed as a battery of tests.[2] The scale against which each respondent indicates the extent to which each statement characterizes his school is defined by the four categories of (1) rarely occurs, (2) sometimes occurs, (3) often occurs, and (4) very frequently occurs. The four categories of responses can be scored by assigning to the respective categories any four successive integers.[3] In this study, responses on the individual questionnaires were punched on data cards for computer processing. The program used for processing the data was adapted from the original Halpin and Croft study of Organizational Climate. The procedure for scoring the OCDQ by computer was secured from Don B. Croft.

School-mean subtest scores, called climate profile scores, were computed from the raw scores of the individual respondents in each of the schools. These school-mean scores define the average response of the teachers for each respective subtest and indicate how often certain types of behavior occur among the teachers and with the principal.

Before preparing the data for statistical treatment, principals' responses were removed and were not included in computing the school-mean subtest scores. In several instances, research has indicated that

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[2]Halpin (1966), p. 166.

[3]Ibid., p. 146.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF THE TOTAL TEACHERS AND TOTAL RESPONSE TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE SAMPLE SCHOOLS

Factor	Leader Succession	Non-Leader Succession
1968		
Total Teachers	118	322
Total Response	106	294
Percentage of Response	89.82	91.27
1969		
Total Teachers	121	313
Total Response	109	289
Percentage of Response	90.08	92.33

administrators do not perceive the climate of a school in the same way that teachers do. Johnson and Marcum found that in non-innovative schools both teachers and administrators saw the climate as closed. In the innovative schools, although both teachers and administrators viewed the climate as open, administrators viewed the school as more open than did the teachers.[4] A study by Boisen of the relationships among the perceptions and expectations held by principals and teachers for the organizational climate of elementary schools found that principals tended to view the climate more favorably than did teachers.[5]

Since the concern of this study was with how the group perceived their own behavior and their perception of the principal's leader behavior both before and after leader succession, principals' responses were considered irrelevant and a possible contaminant of the relations under consideration.

The type of investigation employed in this study is similar to that referred to by Simon as causal-analysis survey research. This type of research is said to be

> . . . quite analogous to experimentation, with the single (but overwhelmingly important), difference that the independent variable(s) is not controlled and manipulated by the researcher. Instead the research seeks out groups of people that have already been exposed to different levels of the independent variable.[6]

The present study is analogous to the causal-analysis survey method in that the schools or groups were not selected at random and the

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[4] Johnson and Marcum, p. 5.

[5] Angeline G. Boisen, "Relations Among the Perceptions and Expectations Held by Principals and Teachers for the Organizational Climate of Elementary Schools," (unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, University of Maryland, 1966), pp. 71-72.

[6] Julian L. Simon, Basic Research Methods in Social Research (New York, 1969), p. 242.

independent variable was not under the direct control of the researcher. It differs somewhat in that groups were selected and surveyed on the dependent variable (dimensions of group interaction) before the groups had experienced different levels of the independent variable (leader succession). Although the groups were not selected at random, the design called for surveying 100 per cent of the members within the groups composing the sample.

The procedure used in this study is also considered to be analogous to the before and after (pretest-posttest) control group design described by Kerlinger as the "classical design" of research. The groups were surveyed before the introduction of the independent variable and again after the experience. The "control group," of course, did not experience the same level of the independent variable as the "experimental" group. The difference between the two groups is tested statistically by analyzing the difference scores, $Y_a - Y_b = D$, for the two groups. The simplest method for analyzing the D scores is by means of a t test or an F test.[7]

The t test was selected to analyze the D scores for this study. Use of the t test assumes that the population is normally distributed and the sample must be truly representative of the population under consideration. In practice, it is usually considered satisfactory if the sample data do not depart drastically from normality. Also, since one often has difficulty in drawing purely random samples in educational situations, a reasonable guide is to make sure that the sample has not

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[7]Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research: Educational and Psychological Inquiry (New York, 1966), pp. 308-309.

[8]W. James Popham, Educational Statistical: Use and Interpretation (New York, 1967), p. 139.

been drawn in such a manner that it is a biased representation of the population under study.[8] The sample in the present study does not depart from the assumptions underlying the t test so radically as to make it an inappropriate technique for analysis.

School-mean scores, called Climate Profile Scores, were computed on each of the eight subtests of the OCDQ for each school for both the first (T_1) and the second (T_2) year of the study. The Climate Profile Score is the mean of each school on each OCDQ subtest rounded to the nearest whole number. The mean score obtained the first year of the study was subtracted from the mean score obtained the second year ($T_2 - T_1 = D$), subtest by subtest, thus producing a new distribution of difference scores for the two groups of schools in the sample (see Appendixes H and I). Some of the difference scores have a negative value. A difference score with a negative value indicates a decrease in the occurrence of the behavior indicated by the subtest. Conversely, a difference score with a positive value indicates an increase in the behavior indicated by the subtest.

The statistical tests were computed by the Oklahoma State University Computer Center. A t test model was selected from the programmed t-models available for testing unpaired samples for differences in population means of zero. Eight t tests were computed (one for each subtest) in which the distribution of difference scores for the seven schools which had experienced leader succession were compared with the distribution of difference scores for the sixteen schools that did not experience leader succession. Findings were considered statistically

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[8] W. James Popham, Educational Statistics: Use and Interpretation (New York, 1967), p. 139.

significant if the probability associated with their occurrence was equal to or less than .05 ($p \leq .05$).

Summary

As part of a larger study, twenty-three schools were selected from one large urban school system in Oklahoma. Based largely on the criterion of low staff turnover, seven schools were selected as the "experimental" group of schools that had experienced leader succession at the close of the 1967-68 school year. Sixteen schools were selected as the "control" group that had not experienced leader succession. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered twice in each school: (1) just prior to leader succession in the spring of 1968 (T_1), and (2) approximately seven to eight months after leader sucession in the spring of 1969 (T_2). School-mean scores (Climate Profile Scores) were computed on each subtest for each school in the sample. The school-mean score obtained on each subtest for each school on the pretest (T_1) was subtracted from the mean score obtained on the same subtest on the posttest (T_2), producing a difference score ($T_2 - T_1 = D$) for each school on each subtest. These distributions of difference scores were analyzed, subtest by subtest, by means of a $\underline{t}$ test to determine if significantly greater differences ($p \leq .05$) existed in schools that had experienced leader succession than those that had not experienced leader succession.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The results of the changes in the group perception of group interaction associated with leader succession are presented in this chapter. Teachers in twenty-three urban elementary schools had indicated their perception of teacher and leader behavior in the spring of 1968 and again in the spring of 1969 by means of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Leader (principal) succession occurred in seven of the twenty-three schools in the sample at the close of the 1967-68 school year.

It was hypothesized, in general, that changes in group interaction as perceived by the group would be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools having leader succession than in those not having leader succession. Three major hypotheses and seven corollary hypotheses were developed by the investigator in terms of the changes in behavior one might expect as a result of leader succession in a sample of urban elementary schools. The hypotheses were based on the dimensions of behavior described by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire.

The data for leader succession and non-leader succession schools were compared for statistical significance by means of a t test available at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center. Since the hypotheses were directional, the level of significance for the obtained t values was obtained by referring to the t distribution table for a one-tailed test.

The general hypothesis was only partially supported in that the data indicated that some changes in interaction that occurred were significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Changes in interaction in other dimensions of behavior appeared to be not significantly different in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not changing leaders.

Leader Behavior

Hypothesis 1, which predicted that changes in leader behavior as perceived by the group and measured by the leader-behavior subtests of the OCDQ would be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession, was only partially supported. Only two of the four corollary hypotheses, based on the four leader behavior subtests of the OCDQ, were supported by the data.

Hypothesis 1a predicted that between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the leader-behavior dimension of aloofness would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. The data do not support this prediction. Table IV indicates that changes in the group perception of the leader's aloofness behavior were not significantly greater in leader succession schools than in schools where leader succession did not occur. Aloofness refers to behavior by the principal which is formal and impersonal. He prefers to be guided by rules and policies rather than to deal with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. He tends to keep himself "emotionally" at a distance from his staff.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF ALOOFNESS FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	6.39	4.57	1.01[a]
Non-Succession	16	3.93	2.37	

[a]Not significant; (df = 21).

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	4.96	.57	.229[a]
Non-Succession	16	7.04	1.25	

[a]Not significant; (df = 21).

Hypothesis 1b, which predicted that between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the leader behavior dimension of production emphasis would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession, was also not supported by the data. Table V indicates that changes in the group perception of the leader's production emphasis behavior were not significantly different in schools experiencing leader succession than in those schools where leader succession did not occur. Production emphasis behavior by the principal is characterized by close supervision of the staff. He is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss." His communication tends to go in only one direction and he is not sensitive to feedback from his staff.

Hypothesis 1c predicted that between T_1 and T_2 changes in the group perception of the leader behavior dimension of thrust would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. In this instance, the data, presented in Table VI, indicate that changes in the group perception of the thrust behavior of the leader were significantly ($p < .01$) greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Reference to Appendixes H and I will indicate that the mean difference in thrust behavior in leader succession schools was -5.43. This represents a decrease in thrust behavior. The mean difference in thrust behavior in non-leader succession schools was .18, a very small increase. Thrust behavior by the principal is characterized by his evident effort in trying to "move the organization." It is marked not by close supervision, but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. This behavior is

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF THRUST FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	4.86	-5.43	-2.65[a]
Non-Succession	16	4.57	.18	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.01 level, (df = 21).

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	5.20	-7.14	-3.68[a]
Non-Succession	16	3.17	- .68	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.005 level, (df = 21).

starkly task-oriented, but since the principal doesn't ask any more of the teachers than he willingly gives of himself, his behavior is viewed favorably by the teachers.

Hypothesis 1d predicted that between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ leader-behavior dimension of consideration would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Table VII includes the data which indicate that there was a statistically significant ($p < .005$) difference in the change in consideration behavior between the two groups of schools. Reference to Appendixes H and I will show that the mean difference in consideration behavior in leader succession schools was -7.14. This represents a decrease in consideration behavior following leader succession. The mean difference in consideration behavior in non-leader succession schools was -.68. Consideration behavior is characterized by the inclination of the principal to treat the teachers "humanly" and to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms.

Group Behavior

In hypothesis 2 it was predicted that changes in group behavior as perceived by the members of the group and measured by the teacher-behavior subtests of the OCDQ, would be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. This hypothesis was only partially supported in that only one of the corollary hypotheses indicated that changes in behavior between the two groups of schools was statistically significant.

Hypothesis 2a predicted that between T_1 and T_2, changes in the group perception of the OCDQ group-behavior dimension of hindrance would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Analysis of the data, as shown in Table VIII, indicated that the change in hindrance behavior was significantly greater ($p < .01$) in leader succession schools than in non-leader succession schools. Reference to Appendixes H and I will show that the mean difference in hindrance behavior in leader succession schools was 5.71. This represents an increase in hindrance behavior following leader succession. The mean difference in hindrance behavior in non-leader succession schools was .87. Hindrance behavior refers to the feeling on the part of the teachers that the principal burdens them with routine duties, committee demands, and other requirements which the teachers construe as unnecessary "busywork." They perceive the principal as hindering rather than facilitating their work.

Hypothesis 2b predicted that changes in the group perception of the OCDQ teacher-behavior dimension of disengagement would be significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Analysis of the difference scores between the two groups of schools in the sample, as shown in Table IX, indicates that changes in disengagement behavior to be not statistically significant. Disengagement behavior is characterized by the tendency of the teachers to be "not with it." It describes a group which is "going through the motions," but is "not in gear" with respect to the task at hand.

Hypothesis 2c predicted that between T_1 and T_2, changes in the OCDQ teacher-behavior dimension of intimacy would be significantly greater in

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF HINDRANCE FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	5.25	5.71	2.68[a]
Non-Succession	16	3.34	.87	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.01 level, (df = 21).

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF DISENGAGEMENT FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	7.94	6.85	.96[a]
Non-Succession	16	6.04	3.93	

[a]Not significant, (df = 21).

schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Intimacy behavior is characterized by the enjoyment by the teachers of friendly social relations with each other. This dimension describes a social-needs satisfaction which is not necessarily associated with task-accomplishment.

Reference to Table X shows that the analysis of the data indicates no statistically significant difference in the change in intimacy behavior between the two groups of schools in the sample.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that changes in teacher morale as perceived by the group and measured by the OCDQ teacher-behavior dimension of esprit, would be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. The analysis of the data as shown in Table XI indicates no statistically significant difference in the change in esprit behavior between the two groups of schools in the sample.

Additional Findings

In an effort to probe more deeply into the changes in group interaction associated with leader succession, it was decided to compare the pretest and posttest school-means (Climate Profile Scores) in schools experiencing leader succession to see if behavior as perceived before leader succession (T_1) differed statistically from that observed after leader succession (T_2). This same pretest-posttest comparison of OCDQ subtest school-mean scores was performed on the group of schools that did not experience leader succession. A t test for paired samples was chosen for the statistical analysis of the data from those available at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center. Since no directional

TABLE X

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF INTIMACY FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	3.69	-1.43	.11[a]
Non-Succession	16	3.99	-1.62	

[a]Not significant, (df = 21).

TABLE XI

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF ESPRIT FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS AND NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Succession	7	11.02	-3.71	.63[a]
Non-Succession	16	6.33	-6.00	

[a]Not significant, (df = 21).

predictions were made regarding this analysis, the level of significance of the obtained t values was determined by reference to the t distribution for two-tailed tests.

Hindrance, Thrust, and Consideration

Statistical analysis of the hypotheses indicated that changes in one group-behavior dimension, hindrance, and two leader-behavior dimensions, thrust and consideration, were statistically significant in the predicted direction. Further analysis of these three dimensions supports the findings in the respective hypotheses that changes in behavior were significantly greater in schools experiencing leader succession than in those not experiencing leader succession. Reference to Table XII will show that among leader succession schools, the mean pretest hindrance score was significantly different ($p < .05$) from the mean posttest hindrance score. Table XIII shows a comparison between pretest and posttest means on the dimension of hindrance for non-leader succession schools. It will be observed that the data in Table XIII indicate the probability of no difference in the mean occurrence of hindrance behavior in schools that did not experience leader succession.

An analysis of thrust behavior may be seen in Table XIV where a comparison of the pretest-posttest means indicates a significant ($p < .05$) difference in the occurrence of thrust behavior between pretest and posttest for schools experiencing leader succession. Table XV shows a similar comparison for thrust behavior in schools that did not experience leader succession. The analysis indicates the probability of no statistically significant difference in the occurrence of thrust behavior in these schools.

TABLE XII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF HINDRANCE FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	3.48	52.85	-2.87[a]
Posttest	7	2.76	58.57	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.05 level, (df = 6).

TABLE XIII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF HINDRANCE FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	4.44	54.37	-1.04[a]
Posttest	16	4.25	55.25	

[a]Not significant, (df = 15).

TABLE XIV

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF THRUST FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	3.84	53.85	2.95[a]
Posttest	7	4.42	48.42	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.05 level, (df = 6).

TABLE XV

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF THRUST FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	4.35	50.81	-.26[a]
Posttest	16	3.40	51.12	

[a]Not significant, (df = 15).

Reference to Table XVI will show the comparison of pretest and posttest means for consideration behavior in schools experiencing leader succession. The analysis of the data for these schools shows the occurrence of consideration behavior to be significantly ($p < .02$) different. Analysis of the data on consideration behavior in schools not having leader succession, shown in Table XVII, indicates the probability of no significant difference between pretest and posttest in these schools.

Intimacy and Production Emphasis

When the data for the hypotheses on the group-behavior dimension of intimacy and the leader-behavior dimension of production emphasis were analyzed, it was found that in neither instance was there a statistically significant difference in the changes in behavior between the schools experiencing leader succession and those not experiencing leader succession.

When pretest and posttest means on the group-behavior dimension of intimacy behavior were compared in leader succession schools, as shown in Table XVIII, there was no indication of the probability of a significant difference. Table XIX shows the comparison of pretest-posttest means for intimacy behavior for schools that did not experience leader succession. Again, it will be noted, the analysis showed the probability of no significant difference in intimacy behavior.

Table XX shows the comparison of pretest-posttest means on the leader-behavior dimension of production emphasis for schools experiencing leader succession. Table XXI shows the same comparison for schools that did not experience leader succession. In neither instance, it will be noted, did the analysis indicate the probability of a

TABLE XVI

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	4.39	53.57	3.45[a]
Posttest	7	1.98	46.57	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.02 level, (df = 6).

TABLE XVII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF CONSIDERATION FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	3.86	52.87	.86[a]
Posttest	16	3.72	52.18	

[a]Not significant, (df = 15).

TABLE XVIII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF INTIMACY FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	2.43	53.57	1.02[a]
Posttest	7	2.60	52.14	

[a]Not significant, (df = 6).

TABLE XIX

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF INTIMACY FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	3.65	52.81	1.62[a]
Posttest	16	3.08	51.18	

[a]Not significant, (df = 15).

TABLE XX

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	5.09	45.42	-.30[a]
Posttest	7	1.82	46.00	

[a]Not significant, (df = 6).

TABLE XXI

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	6.15	45.56	-.71[a]
Posttest	16	5.04	46.81	

[a]Not significant, (df = 15).

statistically significant difference in the occurrence of production emphasis behavior.

Aloofness, Disengagement and Esprit

The analysis of data associated with the hypotheses on changes in the leader-behavior dimension of aloofness and the group-behavior dimensions of disengagement and esprit indicated the probability of no significant difference in the changes in these behaviors between leader succession schools and non-leader succession schools. However, the analysis of pretest and posttest means on these dimensions showed a somewhat different picture. The comparison of pretest and posttest school-means for aloofness (Table XXII) in schools having leader succession indicated the probability of no significance. Analysis of the same data for schools that did not experience leader succession (Table XXIII) indicated the probability of a significant ($p < .05$) difference in the occurrence of aloofness behavior by the leader. By comparing the pretest mean of 43.50 with the posttest mean of 45.87, it can be seen that the mean occurrence of aloofness behavior increased in the non-leader succession schools between T_1 and T_2.

Disengagement pretest and posttest means were compared for schools experiencing leader succession and, as shown in Table XXIV, the analysis indicated the probability of no significant difference in disengagement behavior by the staff. A similar comparison for schools that did not experience leader succession indicated the probability of a statistically significant ($p = .02$) difference in disengagement behavior by the staff, as shown in Table XXV. A comparison of the pretest mean of 48.68 with the posttest mean of 52.62 will show that the mean occurrence

TABLE XXII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF ALOOFNESS FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	5.28	42.71	-1.89[a]
Posttest	7	2.92	47.28	

[a]Not significant, (df = 6).

TABLE XXIII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ LEADER DIMENSION OF ALOOFNESS FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	3.26	43.50	-2.41[a]
Posttest	16	2.84	45.87	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.05 level, (df = 15).

TABLE XXIV

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF DISENGAGEMENT FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	8.58	47.00	-2.28[a]
Posttest	7	5.33	53.00	

[a]Not significant, (df = 6).

TABLE XXV

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF DISENGAGEMENT FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	6.57	48.68	-2.60[a]
Posttest	16	5.42	52.62	

[a]Significant at the 0.02 level, (df = 15).

TABLE XXVI

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF ESPRIT FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	7	10.60	54.85	.89[a]
Posttest	7	6.89	51.14	

[a]Not significant, (df = 6).

TABLE XXVII

COMPARISON OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCHOOL-MEANS ON THE OCDQ GROUP DIMENSION OF ESPRIT FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

Group	N	Standard Deviation	Mean	t
Pretest	16	8.22	54.87	3.78[a]
Posttest	16	4.52	48.87	

[a]Significant beyond the 0.01 level, (df = 15).

of disengagement behavior increased in non-leader succession schools between T_1 and T_2.

Table XXVI, which shows the comparison of pretest-posttest means on the dimension of esprit for schools that experienced leader succession, indicates that there was no significant difference between the two means, and the occurrence of esprit behavior among the staff did not change. The analysis of the pretest-posttest school-means for the group-dimension of esprit in schools not experiencing leader succession indicated the probability of a significant ($p < .01$) difference in esprit behavior in the group. The data for non-leader succession schools is presented in Table XXVII, where it can be observed that the mean occurrence of esprit behavior decreased between T_1 and T_2 from 54.87 to 48.87.

Summary

It had been predicted that changes in perceived group interaction as measured by the OCDQ subtests would be significantly greater between T_1 and T_2 in schools having leader succession than in those not having leader succession. A comparison of difference scores ($T_2 - T_1 = D$) on each OCDQ subtest between the two groups of schools by means of a *t* test revealed a statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) difference in behavioral change on three of the OCDQ dimensions. Analysis of the difference scores in two leader-behavior dimensions, thrust and consideration, and one group-behavior dimension, hindrance, indicated the probability of a significantly greater difference in change in behavior in leader succession schools than in non-leader succession schools. The difference in the change in thrust behavior was significant beyond the .01 level. The difference in the change in consideration behavior was

significant beyond the .005 level. The difference in the change in hindrance was significant beyond the .01 level. Both thrust and consideration behavior were perceived to decrease following leader succession and hindrance behavior increased.

Data were further analyzed by comparing pretest and posttest school-means on each of the OCDQ subtests in the leader succession schools. Pretest-posttest school-means were also compared for each of the subtests in non-leader succession schools. Data were analyzed by a t test for paired samples.

Statistically significant differences ($p \leq .05$) were found between pretest-posttest means on the OCDQ dimensions of hindrance, thrust, and consideration in leader succession schools. No significant differences were found between pretest and posttest school-means on these dimensions in non-leader succession schools.

Analysis of pretest-posttest means for the OCDQ dimensions of intimacy and production emphasis found no significant differences in either group of schools in the sample.

In analyzing pretest-posttest school means for the OCDQ dimensions of aloofness, disengagement, and esprit, it was found that no significant differences occurred in these dimensions among the leader succession schools. However, levels of significance beyond the .05 level were found in these three dimensions among non-leader succession schools. In these schools, aloofness and disengagement behavior increased and esprit behavior decreased.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Organizations are thought to undergo change as they strive toward goal achievement, although the exact nature of such change is not known. It has been suggested that sources of change in the organization might be the size, the maturation process, the succession of people through key offices, and evolutionary changes that occur as the organization adapts to forces within or conditions of its environment.[1]

This study investigated one of the possible sources of change, that of leader succession in urban elementary schools. On the premise that, as Cattell[2] suggested, the existence of the leader is detectable from the internal organization of the group, the assumption was made that different leaders should affect the same group in a sufficiently different manner as to produce some changes in the interaction or internal organization of the group. It was also considered probable that all organizations are subject to the evolutionary type of change or "organizational drift," and that some of this type of change might be expected in urban elementary schools. But it was assumed that the principal, as the formal leader of his school, could be expected to influence the behavior of his group in a manner such that his replacement by a new leader would be clearly reflected in changes in group

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[1] Carlson and Goldhammer, p. v.

[2] Cattell, p. 163.

interaction over and above those that might occur normally in the ongoing activity of the organization. If this assumption was correct, a sample of schools that had experienced leader succession compared with a sample of schools that had not experienced leader succession should display a significantly different amount of change in behavior or interaction over a given period of time. Only in those instances where a change in behavior between the two groups of schools was shown to be significantly greater in the leader succession schools, could it be concluded with any confidence that the change in formal leaders was responsible for the change in the behavior of the group.

Another aspect of the change in group interaction associated with leader succession has to do with the ability of the group members to perceive a difference between the behavior of the successor and his predecessor. A study by Bridges has suggested that the educational bureaucracy tends to socialize the role incumbent in the position of elementary principal to the point where increased experience has a leveling effect on the personal qualities and performance of elementary principals as perceived by teachers.[3] If this is true, teachers might have little reason to react differently to a new principal following leader succession.

Twenty-three elementary schools from an Oklahoma urban school system served as the sample in this study. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered in each school in the spring of 1968 (T_1) and again in the spring of 1969 (T_2). Between T_1 and T_2, leader succession occurred in seven of the schools. The remaining sixteen schools where leader succession did not occur served as a

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[3]Bridges, p. 23.

"control" group. School-mean scores were computed on each subtest for each school in the sample. The school-mean scores obtained on each subtest for each school on the pretest (T_1) were subtracted from the mean score obtained on the same subtest on the posttest (T_2), producing a difference score ($T_2 - T_1 = D$) for each school on each subtest. The distribution of difference scores was analyzed subtest by subtest by means of a t test to determine if significantly greater differences in behavior existed in schools that had experienced leader succession than those that had not experienced leader succession.

The analysis of the data in this study indicated that teachers do perceive some differences in the behavior of the successor and his predecessor. Teachers in the schools in the sample that had experienced leader succession tended to perceive that the new principal's thrust behavior was different from that of his predecessor. Moreover, the tendency was to view the successor's thrust behavior as lower, or as occurring less frequently than did the thrust behavior of the predecessor. It seems reasonable to assume that the teachers perceived that the new principal didn't work as hard as his predecessor or that they did not find the example that he personally set as motivating to them as that of the predecessor. It may also be true that teachers perceived the new principal to be not as interested in their welfare as his predecessor.

Teachers in the sample of schools that experienced leader succession also tended to view the consideration behavior of the new principal as occurring at a lower level or less frequently than the predecessor's consideration behavior. This would indicate that the teachers perceived the new principal as being less concerned about treating them "humanly"

or in doing anything extra for them in human terms. This may be due to the possibility that the new principal had not had time to become as well acquainted with his staff as a principal with a longer incumbency in the building. The teachers may also have perceived the new principal as less concerned with their social needs and as less considerate than his predecessor.

Along with their perception of a decrease in the principal's thrust and consideration behavior, teachers in the sample of schools that experienced leader succession perceived an increase in hindrance behavior within the group. They perceived the new principal as being more inclined than the predecessor to burden them with routine duties, committee demands, and an excessive amount of paper work which they construed as unnecessary "busywork." It may very well be that activity which the new principal believed necessary in order for him to "get hold" of the organization and move it forward was perceived by the teachers as unnecessary and a hindrance to the achieving of goals which they already had well in mind. The teachers may have felt that the new principal had not set up adequate procedures and regulations to facilitate their task. For example, they may have been unsure about the procedure for getting books and supplies or the procedure may have been unnecessarily complicated and time consuming.

Since changes in the aloofness and production emphasis behavior of principals during the study were not significantly greater in the schools that had experienced leader succession than in those that had not, it might be assumed that principals in both groups of schools are very much alike in the degree to which they run the school in a businesslike, impersonal manner and in the level of "close supervision" and one-way

communication employed by the principals in dealing with the staff. Since all schools in the study were part of the same school system, it is possible that principals are socialized by the system to behave in a consistent, predictable manner in these areas of leader behavior.

Aside from their perception of being hindered by the new principal, the staffs of the leader succession schools did not perceive any other differences in the level of group behavior beyond the chance variation that might occur over a period of time in any school. The occurrence of disengagement behavior, as a general tendency among the leader succession schools, did not appear to hinge on behavioral differences between the new principal and his predecessor. Intimacy behavior, the enjoyment of friendly social relations among the staff, also appeared to be unaffected by the change in leadership in the school. There was also no change in the esprit behavior of the staff. The teachers did not feel, apparently, that the new principal's leader behavior was affecting their sense of social needs satisfaction or their sense of accomplishment on the job.

It should be suggested at this point that behavior associated with the dimensions of disengagement, esprit, and intimacy may be affected by sources other than the principal. Intimacy behavior may well stem from the informal organization of the group. As long as the informal structure remains relatively intact, intimacy behavior may remain relatively stable regardless of changes in the formal leadership of the school. In this instance, the feedback mechanisms suggested by Abbott,[4] particularly the reference group norms, may operate to maintain a given level of intimacy behavior within the group. Disengagement and esprit

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[4] Abbott, pp. 12-13.

may well respond to the forces in the larger school system, i.e., the total formal organization, and to forces in the community, both in the immediate school community and in the larger community of the school district. For example, threats of withholding support from the school by the patrons of the school district may have a devastating effect on teacher morale and the zest with which they approach their task.

The rationale set forth in the beginning to account for some of the hypothesized changes in behavior expected in response to leader succession suggested that the successor principal would differ from his predecessor in the manner in which he performed the functional aspects of the administrative process of allocating and integrating roles, personnel, and facilities to achieve the goals of the system. It seems reasonable to believe that the group reaction to this performance by the new principal was what the group perceived as higher hindrance behavior in the group as compared with that which they had perceived under the predecessor. It seems probable that the new principal did not perform up to the role expectation to which the staff had grown accustomed under the former principal. Their response, therefore, was to indicate that the new principal was less considerate and they felt themselves more hindered in the pursuit of their goals by certain of his requirements.

Although a rationale was developed to support a hypothesis of expected change in morale associated with leader succession, no general tendency toward change in morale was observed that could be attributed to leader succession. The rationale for morale was based on the Getzels-Guba conceptualization of morale as a function of belongingness, rationality, and identification. The explanation for no change in morale may lie in the possibility that the building principal has little or no

effect on the factors contributing to morale in this sense. Teachers may enter the profession prepared by their professional training to expect to achieve satisfaction (belongingness) in their role-set. The larger formal organization may define the role-expectation in a manner logically appropriate (rationality) for achieving the goals of the system. The teacher who remains in the profession may be predisposed by personality to being able to integrate the goals of the system into his own goals (identification). Another possible explanation for no general tendency toward a change in morale under the rationale presented lies in the possibility that the OCDQ dimension of esprit does not tap the kind of behavior implied by the Getzels-Guba conceptualization of morale.

In reporting the difference in the changes in behavior between leader succession and non-leader succession schools, it must be remembered that some change occurred between the pretest-posttest school-means of the OCDQ dimensions within the two groups of schools. Significant differences between pretest-posttest means were observed in the OCDQ dimensions of hindrance, thrust, and consideration among the leader succession schools, while no differences were observed in these dimensions among non-leader succession schools. This observation lends support to the hypotheses which predicted that changes in behavior would be significantly greater in leader succession schools than in non-leader succession schools. Significant differences were also noted between pretest-posttest means in the OCDQ dimensions of aloofness, disengagement, and esprit among non-leader succession schools, while significant levels of mean differences were not observed in these dimensions among leader succession schools, although the observed t value of mean pretest-posttest difference in the dimension of disengagement among leader succession schools reached a significance level between .05 and .10.

Although the changes in aloofness, disengagement, and esprit in non-leader succession schools were not sufficient to appear significantly greater than changes in leader succession schools in these dimensions, they are worthy of some comment. If schools have a "compelling organizational climate stability"[5] as some writers have suggested, such changes in interaction would not be expected to occur. If, however, organizations are subject to "evolutionary change" or organizational drift as they strive toward goal achievement,[6] some change in interaction would be expected to occur.

The teachers in the non-leader succession schools perceived an increase in the aloofness behavior of principals in these schools. At the same time, they perceived an increase in their own disengagement behavior and a decrease in esprit. It seems logical to assume that principals may have a tendency to become more aloof and impersonal as their incumbency in the building increases. As tasks and procedures become routinized, the principal may tend to give less attention to the routine daily operation of the school. As a result, his "face-to-face" informal dealings with his teachers may decline.

Another possible explanation for the perceived increase in aloofness lies in the bureaucratic nature of the school. In a bureaucracy, officials are expected to be impersonal in their contact with clients and other officials. The principal "is expected to minimize personal relations and ignore the peculiarities of individual cases."[7] The principal is likely to encounter conflict in the bureaucratic setting if

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[5]Wiggins, p. 5.

[6]Carlson and Goldhammer, p. v.

[7]Bridges, p. 25.

he substitutes personalized relationships for impersonal ones. Consequently, he guards against displays of favoritism and conforms to his bureaucratic role to protect himself. Over a period of time he forms the habit of playing certain roles and of exhibiting certain attitudes.[8] As a principal becomes more adept at playing his role and exhibiting certain attitudes, his staff may tend to perceive him as more aloof and impersonal.

Teachers may perceive this increase in aloofness as a lack of effectiveness on the part of the principal in directing the activities of the teachers. If their behavior became more disengaged and their ability to work together declined, the teachers would likely perceive an increase in disengagement behavior within the group. A decline in esprit might be expected to occur under such circumstances reflecting low job satisfaction among the members of a disengaged group.

Another possible explanation for the changes in aloofness, disengagement, and esprit lies in the possibility that sources of change were operating in this sample of urban elementary schools that were not associated with leader succession. Intervening variables from the larger formal organization, the school district, and from the environment are possible sources of these variables.

Mean differences in pretest-posttest means were found to be not significant for either group of schools on the dimensions of intimacy and production emphasis.

Thus far, the discussion has dealt with the general change in behavior that occurred across schools that had or had not experienced leader succession. An examination of the distribution of difference

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[8]Ibid., p. 25.

scores in Appendixes H and I indicates that the amount of difference in change in the OCDQ dimensions varied considerably from school to school. For example, more change appears to have occurred in leader succession schools 14, 18, and 24 than in the others. Similarly, non-leader succession schools 16, 20, 32, and 33 appear to have changed more than the others in the group. Implications for further research include a study in depth of such schools to determine, if possible, the sources of change in those schools which appear to have changed in group interaction beyond that normally might be expected.

The implications for administration, at least in the school system from which the sample was drawn are that leader succession does appear to have some changes in group interaction associated with it. The nature of such change can possibly be determined for individual principals and individual schools by a sustained research program in which individual principals are assessed by the impact they produce on the behavior of different staffs as they are transferred from school to school and the impact that different staffs have on the behavior of the individual principal. Only then can the superintendent and the school board hope to gain enough knowledge of the change processes involved in leader succession to be able to predict the results of placing a given principal in a given school.

There were three questions posed at the beginning of this research study: Do elementary teachers perceive any difference between the behavior of the former principal and his successor? Do elementary teachers perceive any differences in their own behavior following leader succession? Are there any changes in "morale" among elementary teachers in schools that have experienced leader succession? The first two

questions may be answered with a qualified "yes", the third, "no". This is not to say that all schools that experienced leader succession in the sample displayed or didn't display such differences. It is only to say that tendencies observed among the teachers in schools that experienced leader succession suggested certain perceived differences in leader and group behavior. There was no tendency toward a change in "morale" in these schools.

Implications for Further Research

Some writers such as Andrews[9] have concluded that the OCDQ does not deal with the Organizational Climate in the broad sense but only with the more restricted sphere of teacher-principal interaction. Kenney,[10] on the other hand, concluded that:

> . . . something beyond what the items literally <u>say</u> is being projected into the interpretation that teachers <u>in different settings</u> place upon the items; and whatever is being projected into the interpretation appears to be associated with the situational context within which the teacher works; e.g., "noise" from outside the school.

In another study involving the educational climate of high schools, it was concluded that "one community level factor which does appear to function as a source of climate effects is the extent of involvement and interest by parents in school policies and in their children's academic performance."[11] It is suggested that parental involvement and

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[9]Andrews (July, 1965), pp. 9-10.

[10]James B. Kenney, "Factor Structure of 'The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire' for Teachers in Five Urban Areas," (a paper presented at the Los Angeles meeting of the American Educational Research Association, February, 1969), p. 6.

[11]Edward L. McDill, Leo C. Rigsby, and Edmund D. Meyers, Jr., "Educational Climates of High Schools: Their Effects and Sources," <u>The American Journal of Sociology</u>, LXXIV (1969), p. 576.

commitment in the school may be an important factor in the organizational climate of elementary schools.

A fruitful avenue of research might involve investigating the relationships of certain variables from the larger environment with the dimensions of interaction as defined by the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. Suggested variables include the "climate" of the larger formal organization of which the elementary school is a part and the involvement of parents of the neighborhood in the school. This would involve a procedure for operationalizing teachers' and principals' attitudes toward the central administration, i.e., the "climate" of the larger formal organization, and their attitudes concerning the parents of the immediate neighborhood served by the school and their involvement and commitment to the school. It would also be necessary to operationalize the level of involvement and commitment of the parents in the immediate school neighborhood.

In the context of leader succession, it would become necessary to know something of the commitment of the principal toward involving parents in the school and his effectiveness in promoting such involvement.

Another avenue of possible research on the relationships between the OCDQ and the factors in the larger environment might be a "critical incidents" approach in which, after an initial administration of the OCDQ in a sample of elementary schools, it would be administered again following any incident in the community which might conceivably affect teacher performance on the job. Such "critical incidents" may include threats of an impending teacher strike; threats of parents to fail to approve sources of money necessary for operating the school; racial or other civil disorder in the community, etc.

Another possibility for research on the changes in group behavior associated with leader succession lies in studying the effects of contrasting extremes in certain personal variables between the predecessor and his successor. For example, two of the schools involved in leader succession in this study offer possible clues to what might be expected. Schools 14 and 18 (see Appendix H) are two of three schools in this group that displayed more change in the OCDQ dimensions than the others. In one of these schools the predecessor was Caucasian; the successor was Negro. In the other school, the predecessor was a man of some eleven years administrative experience; the successor was a first year administrator. In this latter instance, it appears that there may be implications for a study of leader succession based on the findings in the Bridges study that the educational bureaucracy tends to have socializing influences on the role incumbent in the office of principal. If a principal with several years of experience in the role of principal is succeeded by one who has had no experience, greater changes in the organization might be expected than if he were succeeded by a principal of long experience.

It is not known whether changes in behavior associated with leader succession are linear or curvilinear. Does morale, for instance, maintain a constant level; decline and then regain its former level; or decline to a lower level and remain there following leader succession? A longitudinal study in which the OCDQ is given several times, at regular intervals, starting before succession and continuing during the first year or two of the successors incumbency may provide an answer to this question. Statistical techniques of trend analysis applied to the data would give a more complete picture of the behavioral changes involved in leader succession.

In order to study more accurately the change processes in individual schools associated with leader succession, individual teachers would need to be identified by name or code number so that changes in the perceptions of individual teachers before and after succession can be analyzed statistically. It is in the studying of the individual school where relationships between the leader and his work group affect the education of boys and girls that research of this sort bears the greatest implications for the administration of public schools.

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APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE DESCRIPTION

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM IV

INSTRUCTIONS:

Following are some statements about the school setting. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by circling the appropriate response at the right of each statement.

RO--Rarely Occurs OO--Often Occurs

SO--Sometimes Occurs VFO--Very Frequently Occurs

1.	Teachers' closest friends are other faculty members at this school	RO	SO	OO	VFO
2.	The mannerisms of teachers at this school are annoying	RO	SO	OO	VFO
3.	Teachers spend time after school with students who have individual problems	RO	SO	OO	VFO
4.	Instructions for the operation of teaching aids are available	RO	SO	OO	VFO
5.	Teachers invite other faculty members to visit them at home	RO	SO	OO	VFO
6.	There is a minority group of teachers who always oppose the majority	RO	SO	OO	VFO
7.	Extra books are available for classroom use . .	RO	SO	OO	VFO
8.	Sufficient time is given to prepare administrative reports	RO	SO	OO	VFO
9.	Teachers know the family background of other faculty members	RO	SO	OO	VFO
10.	Teachers exert group pressure on non-conforming faculty members	RO	SO	OO	VFO

11. In faculty meetings, there is the feeling of "let's get things done" . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

12. Administrative paper work is burdensome at this school . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

13. Teachers talk about their personal life to other faculty members . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

14. Teachers seek special favors from the principal . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

15. School supplies are readily available for use in classwork . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

16. Student progress reports require too much work . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

17. Teachers have fun socializing together during school time . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

18. Teachers interrupt other faculty members who are talking in staff meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

19. Most of the teachers here accept the faults of their colleagues . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

20. Teachers have too many committee requirements . RO SO OO VFO

21. There is considerable laughter when teachers gather informally . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

22. Teachers ask nonsensical questions in faculty meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

23. Custodial service is available when needed . . . RO SO OO VFO

24. Routine duties interfere with the job of teaching . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

25. Teachers prepare administrative reports by themselves . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

26. Teachers ramble when they talk in faculty meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

27. Teachers at this school show much school spirit . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

28. The principal goes out of his way to help teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

29. The principal helps teachers solve personal problems . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

30. Teachers at this school stay by themselves . . . RO SO OO VFO

31. The teachers accomplish their work with great vim, vigor, and pleasure . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

32. The principal sets an example by working hard himself . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

33. The principal does personal favors for teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

34. Teachers eat lunch by themselves in their own classrooms . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

35. The morale of the teachers is high . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

36. The principal uses constructive criticism . . . RO SO OO VFO

37. The principal stays after school to help teachers finish their work . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

38. Teachers socialize together in small select groups . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

39. The principal makes all class-scheduling decisions . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

40. Teachers are contacted by the principal each day . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

41. The principal is well prepared when he speaks at school functions . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

42. The principal helps staff members settle minor differences . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

43. The principal schedules the work for the teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

44. Teachers leave the grounds during the school day . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

45. The principal criticizes a specific act rather than a staff member . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

46. Teachers help select which courses will be taught . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

47. The principal corrects teachers' mistakes . . . RO SO OO VFO

48. The principal talks a great deal . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

49. The principal explains his reasons for criticism to teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

50. The principal tries to get better salaries for teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

51. Extra duty for teachers is posted conspicuously . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

52. The rules set by the principal are never questioned . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

53. The principal looks out for the personal welfare of teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

54. School secretarial service is available for teachers' use . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

55. The principal runs the faculty meeting like a business conference . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

56. The principal is in the building before teachers arrive . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

57. Teachers work together preparing administrative reports . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

58. Faculty meetings are organized according to a tight agenda . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

59. Faculty meetings are mainly principal-report meetings . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

60. The principal tells teachers of new ideas he has run across . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

61. Teachers talk about leaving the school system . RO SO OO VFO

62. The principal checks the subject-matter ability of teachers . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

63. The principal is easy to understand . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

64. Teachers are informed of the results of a supervisor's visit . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

65. Grading practices are standardized at this school . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

66. The principal insures that teachers work to their full capacity . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

67. Teachers leave the building as soon as possible at day's end . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

68. The principal clarifies wrong ideas a teacher may have . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

69. Schedule changes are posted conspicuously at this school . . . . . RO SO OO VFO

APPENDIX B

RESPONDENT INFORMATION SHEET

Instructions:

Please complete this form by checking the appropriate boxes and filling in blanks where indicated.

1. Sex

   ( ) Male ( ) Female

2. Present grade level assignment

   ( ) K
   ( ) 1
   ( ) 2
   ( ) 3
   ( ) 4
   ( ) Secondary_____
   (Please state area)

   ( ) 5
   ( ) 6
   ( ) 7
   ( ) 8
   ( ) Principal
   ( ) Other_____
   (If special area or level, please specify.)

3. Marital Status

   ( ) Single
   ( ) Married
   ( ) Widowed
   ( ) Divorced

4. Education

   ( ) Less than Baccalaureate
   ( ) Baccalaureate Degree
   ( ) Graduate work (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Master's degree (or equivalent)
   ( ) Graduate work beyond Master's (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Sixth Year Degree
   ( ) Graduate work beyond Sixth Year Degree (no advanced degree)
   ( ) Doctorate

5. What is your average class size? _____

6. Age (nearest birthday): _____

7. Number years teaching experience in this district (including this year): _____

8. Total number years teaching experience
   (including this year): _____

9. Number of children (your own): _____

10. How many years have you taught under the present principal
    (including this year): _____

APPENDIX C

PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW FORM

FSC/OC Project
Spring, 1969

_____
School

Principal

1. How many years have you served as a principal? . . . . . _____

2. How many years teaching experience have you had? . . . . . _____

3. How long have you been principal of this building? . . . . . _____

4. How long have you served as a principal in the _____ System? . . . . . _____

Faculty

1. What was the racial balance (in numbers) on your staff in this building last year? (April, 1968)_____Negro, _____White, _____Other.

2. What is the present racial balance (in numbers) on your staff? (April, 1969) _____Negro, _____White, _____Other.

3. How many negro teachers are new to your building this year? _____

   (a) How many came to you from another school in ___ ___? _____

   (b) How many are new to the district this year? . . . . . _____

4. How many white teachers are new to your building this year? _____

   (a) How many came to you from another school in ___ ___? _____

   (b) How many are new to the district this year? . . . . . _____

5. How many teachers of other races are new to your building this year? . . . . . _____

   (a) How many came to you from another school in ___ ___? _____

   (b) How many are new to the district this year? . . . . . _____

School

1. How many students do you serve? . . . . . _____

2. Which grade levels do you have? . . . . . _____

3. How many teachers do you have? _____Full Time; _____Part Time.

4. Have you had a significant change in the student population you serve other than what might be expected normally? . . _____

   (a) If so, please describe on back.

APPENDIX D

DISTRIBUTION OF OCDQ SCHOOL-MEAN GROUP BEHAVIOR SUBTEST SCORES BETWEEN T_1 AND T_2 IN LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Subtests							
	DISEN		HIND		ESPR		INTM	
	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2
01	45	47	54	60	65	59	53	47
11	56	56	58	56	42	46	51	54
13	61	62	54	57	47	47	52	51
14	38	57	53	63	65	47	57	52
18	39	56	50	60	66	47	53	53
24	43	50	47	59	55	63	57	53
27	47	49	54	55	44	49	52	55
$\bar{X}$	47.00	53.85	52.85	58.57	54.85	51.14	53.57	52.14
s^2	73.66	28.47	12.14	7.62	112.47	47.47	5.95	6.81
s	8.58	5.33	3.48	2.76	10.60	6.89	2.46	2.60
SE_m	3.24	2.01	1.31	1.04	4.00	2.60	.92	.98

APPENDIX E

DISTRIBUTION OF OCDQ SCHOOL-MEAN LEADER BEHAVIOR SUBTEST SCORES BETWEEN T_1 AND T_2 IN LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Subtests							
	ALOO		PRD		THRU		CONS	
	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2
01	37	46	40	47	57	52	52	46
11	50	43	45	46	52	54	50	49
13	44	52	50	46	48	42	49	46
14	44	48	38	45	52	45	58	48
18	35	48	48	43	52	51	60	46
24	42	45	45	46	58	45	56	43
27	47	49	52	49	58	50	50	47
$\bar{X}$	42.71	47.28	45.42	46.00	53.85	48.43	53.57	46.57
s^2	27.90	8.57	25.95	3.33	14.81	19.62	19.28	3.95
s	5.28	2.93	5.09	1.82	3.85	4.43	4.39	1.99
SE_m	1.99	1.10	1.92	.69	1.45	1.67	1.66	.75

APPENDIX F

DISTRIBUTION OF OCDQ SCHOOL-MEAN GROUP BEHAVIOR SUBTEST SCORES BETWEEN T_1 AND T_2 IN NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Subtests							
	DISEN		HIND		ESPR		INTM	
	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2
02	48	53	51	56	57	49	53	50
03	42	51	57	51	64	53	51	53
04	53	57	61	58	46	44	52	51
07	52	53	52	56	48	46	50	51
08	56	57	50	51	41	42	53	54
12	50	46	61	61	53	56	51	55
16	56	59	58	57	45	43	47	45
19	56	55	58	60	55	50	51	52
20	40	42	52	54	66	56	58	48
23	47	49	54	55	50	47	51	54
25	56	55	50	49	47	46	53	47
26	54	58	60	62	57	48	47	48
29	49	53	48	56	57	50	60	55
31	44	45	48	47	59	56	55	55
32	37	48	55	53	66	50	56	51
33	39	61	55	58	67	46	57	50
$\bar{X}$	48.68	52.62	54.37	55.25	54.87	48.87	52.81	51.18
s^2	43.29	29.45	19.71	18.06	67.58	20.51	13.36	9.49
s	6.58	5.42	4.44	4.25	8.22	4.52	3.65	3.08
SE_m	1.64	1.35	1.11	1.06	2.05	1.13	.91	.77

APPENDIX G

DISTRIBUTION OF OCDQ SCHOOL-MEAN LEADER BEHAVIOR SUBTEST SCORES BETWEEN T_1 AND T_2 IN NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire Subtests							
	ALOO		PRD		THRU		CONS	
	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2	T_1	T_2
02	44	45	45	45	54	52	53	54
03	38	47	41	41	53	52	59	56
04	49	45	45	44	46	52	50	52
07	42	47	50	46	54	51	55	55
08	46	47	55	55	51	48	53	51
12	46	46	50	49	47	44	46	46
16	49	46	57	43	41	53	51	57
19	40	45	41	46	53	51	49	46
20	44	41	34	50	54	58	54	55
23	45	50	44	46	56	50	57	53
25	42	48	51	57	50	48	55	54
26	45	47	48	43	47	50	45	47
29	38	41	45	41	49	53	57	55
31	42	41	45	48	58	57	53	56
32	42	50	31	54	52	48	54	49
33	44	48	37	41	50	51	55	49
$\bar{X}$	43.50	45.87	45.56	46.81	50.81	51.12	52.87	52.18
S^2	10.66	8.11	37.86	25.49	18.96	11.58	14.91	13.89
S	3.26	2.85	6.15	5.04	4.35	3.40	3.86	3.72
SE_m	.81	.71	1.54	1.26	1.08	.85	.96	.93

APPENDIX H

DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENCE SCORES[a] ON THE OCDQ SUBTESTS FOR LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	OCDQ Subtests							
	Teacher Behavior				Leader Behavior			
	DIS	HIN	ESP	INT	ALO	PRD	THR	CON
01	2	6	-6	-6	9	7	-5	-6
11	0	-2	4	3	-7	1	2	-1
13	1	3	0	-1	8	-4	-6	-3
14	19	10	-18	-5	4	7	-7	-10
18	17	10	-19	0	13	-5	-1	-14
24	7	12	8	-4	3	1	-13	-13
27	2	1	5	3	2	-3	-8	-3
$\bar{X}$	6.85	5.71	-3.71	-1.43	4.57	.57	-5.43	-7.14
s^2	63.14	27.57	121.57	13.62	40.95	24.62	23.62	27.14
S	7.94	5.25	11.02	3.69	6.40	4.96	4.86	5.21
SE_m	3.00	1.98	4.16	1.39	2.42	1.87	1.83	1.97

[a]School-mean scores, $T_2 - T_1 = D$, on each subtest.

APPENDIX I

DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENCE SCORES[a] ON THE OCDQ SUBTESTS FOR NON-LEADER SUCCESSION SCHOOLS

School	OCDQ Subtests							
	Teacher Behavior				Leader Behavior			
	DIS	HIN	ESP	INT	ALO	PRD	THR	CON
02	5	5	-8	-3	1	0	-2	1
03	9	-6	-11	2	9	0	-1	-3
04	4	-3	-2	-1	-4	-1	6	2
07	1	4	-2	1	5	-4	-3	0
08	1	1	1	1	1	0	-3	-2
12	-4	0	3	4	0	-1	-3	0
16	3	-1	-2	-2	-3	-14	12	6
19	-1	2	-5	1	5	5	-2	-3
20	2	2	-10	-10	-3	16	4	1
23	2	1	-3	3	5	2	-6	-4
25	-1	-1	-1	-6	6	6	-2	-1
26	4	2	-9	1	2	-5	3	2
29	4	8	-7	-5	3	-4	4	-2
31	1	-1	-3	0	-1	3	-1	3
32	11	-2	-16	-5	8	13	-4	-5
33	22	3	-21	-7	4	4	1	-6
$\bar{X}$	3.93	.87	-6.00	-1.62	2.37	1.25	.18	-.68
s^2	36.59	11.18	40.13	15.98	15.45	49.66	20.96	10.09
s	6.05	3.34	6.33	3.99	3.93	7.05	4.58	3.17
SE_m	1.51	.83	1.58	.99	.98	1.76	1.14	.79

[a]School-mean scores, $T_2 - T_1 = D$, on each subtest.

VITA

Charles Wayne Bland

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: AN INVESTIGATION OF CHANGES IN GROUP INTERACTION RELATED TO LEADER SUCCESSION IN SELECTED URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Waldron (Scott County), Arkansas, May 7, 1929, the son of Hemp J. Bland and Mildred M. Holland Bland.

Education: Graduated from Indiahoma High School, Indiahoma, Oklahoma, in May, 1947; attended Cameron State Agricultural College, Lawton, Oklahoma, and Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma; received the Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Central State College in July, 1950, with a major in biology and general science; received the Ed. M. degree from the University of Oklahoma in July, 1954, with a major in Secondary School Administration; additional graduate work at Tulsa University; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree in July, 1970.

Professional Experience: Teacher of high school and junior high school science at Lone Wolf, Oklahoma, 1950-1954; principal of elementary and junior high school at Lone Wolf, Oklahoma, 1954-55; teacher of general science at Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1955-58; teacher of biology at Edison Senior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1958-1960; assistant principal and boys' counselor at Bell Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1960-1965; principal of Bell Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1965-68; graduate assistant in University Placement Services, Oklahoma State University, 1968-69.