THE RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF

THEIR PROFESSIONALISM, THE ORGANIZATIONAL

STRUCTURE OF SCHOOLS, AND THE LEADERSHIP

BEHAVIOR OF THEIR PRINCIPALS

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ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

A growing concern among educational administrators is the changing

role of the principal in the face of such phenomena as the increasing

professionalism of teachers and the increasing size and complexity of

school systems. Erickson, in an article, pointed to changes that are

occurring in the principalship and what these changes mean for the

future.[1] In another article on the same subject, English criticized

the very nature of the principalship.[2] Articles such as these and many

others are raising questions about the future of the principalship as

the role has traditionally been conceived.

The causes for this concern stem from changes taking place within

the educational setting. With the requirements of school districts and

state departments of education for teachers to continue their educa-

tion, a general assumption is that the level of expertise and profes-

sionalism of teachers seems to be rising. Corwin summarized the

situation by saying that, "There is little doubt that the current

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[1]Donald A. Erickson, "Changes in the Principalship: Cause for
Jubilation or Despair," Elementary School Principal, 44:16-20, April,
1965.

[2]Fenwick English, "The Ailing Principalship," Phi Delta Kappan,
50:158-161, November, 1968.

standards of teaching represent a major improvement in its status during the last fifty years."[3] Corwin went on to say that there has been a notable increase in the minimum educational requirements for public school teachers; as a result, teachers have developed a sense of professional unity.

At the same time, the growth of cities concentrating large numbers of people in small areas and consolidation of small districts has led to the growth of large school district organizations. Corwin stated that, "Within this century, educational organizations have grown from the least significant of institutions to one of the most prominent influences in our organizational society."[4] He continued by saying that concentration in public education is real, for only 25 per cent of the public schools educate almost 80 per cent of the public school children.

As teachers become more professional, it seems that they will be asking for greater autonomy and license to control work. Yet, the growth of large district organizations raises questions concerning problems of organizational control and coordination. That these two trends seem to be in conflict is summarized by Corwin:

> On the one hand, school systems are growing larger which increases problems of internal coordination and, in turn, creates greater need for standardization of work, centraliza- tion of decisions, and other regulations over work; these developments tend to reinforce the traditional image of the teacher as an employee.
> On the other hand, teachers are professionalizing and

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[3]Ronald G. Corwin, A Sociology of Education (New York: Meredith Publishing Co., 1965), p. 223.

[4]Ronald G. Corwin, Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, Coopera- tive Research Project No. 2637 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1966), p. 2.

developing professional self-conceptions which include compe-
tence and license to control work. The dual perspectives
divide teachers from administrators and among themselves.[5]

The principalship has developed with a dual role, one role as the

designated leader of teachers and the other role as an official posi-

tion in the school organizational structure.[6] The future of this dual

role seems to be directly involved in the professionalization-

organizational conflict because of the demands placed upon it by both

the teachers and the organizational requirements of schools.

Statement of the Problem

This study focused on the relationship of the professionalization

of teachers, the increasing structuring of school organizations, and

the staff leadership role of the principal. Specifically, the purpose

of this study was to determine if there is a difference in teachers'

perceptions of the leadership behavior of their principals when these

teachers are categorized according to the degree of their professional-

ism and the degree of bureaucratization of schools. In other words,

will teachers view the leadership behavior of their principal differ-

ently depending on how they perceive their professionalism and the

bureaucratization of their school?

[5]Ronald G. Corwin, The Development of an Instrument for Examining
Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, Cooperative Research Project
No. 1934 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1963), pp. 2-3.

[6]Saxe, Richard W., ed. Prospectives on the Changing Role of the
Principal (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1968),
pp. 10-18.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study the following definitions of terms
were applied.

Professionalism. Goode's definition of professionalism was used
as the basic concept for this term. It involves two fundamental
characteristics: (1) prolonged specialized training in a body of
abstract knowledge, and (2) a collectivity or service orientation. In
addition, Goode specified that the profession must be the final arbiter
in any dispute over what knowledge is valid and the behavior of profes-
sionals is guided by an internalized set of norms.[7]

As an operational definition of the term for this study, a score
above the median on the Professional Orientation Scale was used to
denote a person with a high professional orientation while a score
below the median denoted a person with a low professional orientation.[8]
A high professionalism score implied the possession of the characteris-
tics described in Goode's definition stated above while a low profes-
sionalism score implied a lack of a sense of specialized training and
a service orientation. The guides for behavior of the person scoring
high on professionalism are likely to be the body of abstract knowledge
and the norms of the professional group while the guides for behavior
of the person scoring low on professionalism are more likely to be the
rules and standards of the employing organization.

[7]William J. Goode, "The Librarian: From Occupation to Profession?"
Library Quarterly, 3:306-320, October, 1961.

[8]Corwin, Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, pp. 466-469.

Leadership. The concept of leadership as stated by Chase was applied in this study. Chase defined leadership as the function performed by a person in terms of influencing group decision and action by way of contributions to the attainment of group goals and satisfactions.[9] This study focused on the leader behavior of the principal who is in a designated leadership position.

Leader behavior was operationally defined as scores on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).[10] The LBDQ was used to describe both the "ideal" and "real" leader behaviors. The LBDQ-ideal was used to describe the behaviors of the ideal principal or was considered a description of how a principal should behave and the LBDQ-real was used to describe the actual principal or was considered a description of how the principal does behave. Two fundamental dimensions of the LBDQ were examined as defined by Halpin. The first of these is Initiating Structure which refers to the leader's behavior delineating the relationship between himself and members of the group, in trying to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. The second dimension is Consideration which refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and his staff.[11]

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[9]Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, 1:8, March, 1953.

[10]Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, eds., Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Research Monograph No. 88 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957).

[11]Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966), pp. 86-90.

Bureaucratic Organization. This is a structural arrangement for accomplishing administrative tasks in an organization. The definition, developed by Corwin and used as the concept in this study, consists of two principles: (1) specialization, which is the process of breaking work down into standard components through a hierarchy of offices which establish spheres of delegated responsibility, and (2) coordination, which involves the integrating of the specialized activities into a consistent whole. This is accomplished through a centralization of authority by a chain of command and standardization of work by a system of rules and regulations.[12] The School Organizational Inventory was utilized in establishing the operational definition of bureaucratic organization.[13] A score above the median on the School Organizational Inventory was considered high on bureaucratization while a score below the median was considered low on bureaucratization. A rigid structure was considered synonymous with high bureaucratization and a loose structure was considered the same as low bureaucratization.

Authority. Blau and Scott define authority as the ability of one person to evoke compliance from a group to a command or directive; the group willingly obeys because its members consider this ability a legitimate source of control over them. The two criteria of authority are compliance with legitimate commands and suspension of judgement in

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[12]Corwin, A Sociology of Education, pp. 38-39.

[13]Norman Robinson, "A Study of the Professional Role Orientations of Teachers and Principals and Their Relationships to Bureaucratic Characteristics of School Organizations" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966), pp. 194-197.

advance of command.[14] This was the definition that was utilized as the

concept in this study.

Perception. A definition discussed by Dolores was used as the

basic concept for this term. Dolores stated that the modern approach

regards perception as a global phenomenon equating it with the total

cognitive registration of the world about us in its conceptual, value-

oriented, as well as in its sensory aspects. This broader sense,

according to Dolores, connotes intellectual and sensory elements,

conscious and unconscious influences, and has physiological, psycholog-

ical, social, and philosophical implications.[15] Vinacke stated that

perception is related to personality variables which means that infor-

mation is actively related to the concepts, attitudes, and motives of

the person who is perceiving. Perception is a selective process in

which a person tends to see things as they fit into his past experi-

ences.[16] Getzels, Lipham and Campbell pointed out that each individual

structures the presumably common objective situation selectively.[17]

For the purpose of this study, perception was conceptualized as the

complex process by which each person becomes aware of and cognitively

registers his world, taking into consideration all aspects of himself

[14]Peter M. Blau and W. Richard Scott, Formal Organizations: A
Comparative Study (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1960),
pp. 27-45.

[15]Sister Marian Dolores, "Perceptual Research: A Whole With Many
Parts," Perception in Present Day Psychology, William C. Bier, Salvatore
G. DiMichael, and Raymond J. McCall, eds. (Chicago: American Catholic
Psychological Association, 1965), pp. 3-35.

[16]Edgar W. Vinacke, Foundations of Psychology (New York: American
Book Company, 1968), p. 469.

[17]Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, Educa-
tional Administration as a Social Process: Theory, Research, Practice
(New York: Harper Row, Publishers, 1968), p. 86.

as a complete person.

Role. This is the set of expectations assigned to a particular position or status in an organizational structure. According to Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, a role represents a position, office, or status in an organization and it is defined in terms of role expectations. The expectations define what the actor should or should not do under various circumstances while occupying the particular role in the organization. These expectations originate from the organization in the form of rules and norms and from individuals within or even outside the organization. Role-conflict develops when individuals hold conflicting expectations for a particular role or status.[18] This study was concerned with the role expectations which individuals hold for a designated leader within an organization.

Analysis of the Problem

The role of the principal has two dimensions: on the one hand he is the administrator in the formal hierarchy of the organization, and on the other he is to be the leader of his staff and is to work to promote group goals. At the same time, there are two fundamental dimensions of leadership, one concerned with the maintenance of the group and group goals, stressing structure, and the other is associated with the individual's needs and satisfactions, stressing the person. Etzioni identified these as instrumental and expressive activities.[19]

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[18]Ibid., pp. 60-77.

[19]Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press, 1961), p. 91.

Halpin labeled these same basic concepts as Initiating Structure and Consideration.[20]

Chase identified the problem of the role conflict of the principal when he stated that if the principal stresses his organizational role in the hierarchy, he may be neglecting individual needs and satisfactions of individual teachers. On the other hand, if the principal neglects his organizational role in the hierarchy, he may not fulfill role expectations of superiors and subordinates in the organization and his organizational position may be jeopardized.[21]

The increasing professionalism of teachers and the increasing bureaucratic structure of schools raise questions concerning their effect on teacher perceptions of the principal's behavior on the two leadership dimensions. For instance, do the teachers' expectations of the ideal behavior of their principal on the two leadership dimensions differ depending on the degree of those teachers' perceived professionalism and bureaucratization of their school? Do teachers' perceptions of the real behavior of their principal on the two leadership dimensions differ depending on the degree of those teachers' perceived professionalism and bureaucratization of their school? Does the difference between ideal expectations and real descriptions of principal behaviors on either leadership dimension vary among teachers grouped according to the degree of perceived professionalism and school bureaucratization?

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[20]Halpin, pp. 86-90.

[21]Francis S. Chase, "How To Meet Teachers' Expectations of Leadership," Administrator's Notebook, 1:9, April, 1953.

To answer these and similar questions, a sample of teachers from high schools in Kansas were asked to respond to a series of instruments. Teachers from each school were grouped above and below the median on degree of perceived bureaucratic structure and these two groups were each subdivided into two groups above and below the median on the degree of perceived professionalism. Thus, teachers in each school were divided into four basic groups based on their position above and below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and the Professional Orientation Scale. The groups from each school were combined to form the four basic groups of the study.

Using the four groups just described, the following hypotheses were tested in order to attempt to answer the questions stated above.

H.1. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the ideal principal on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of their school and their professionalization.

H.2. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the ideal principal on the dimension of Consideration when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H.3. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the real behaviors of their principal on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H.4. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the real behaviors of their principal on the dimension of Consideration when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived

bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

.H.5. Teachers will not differ significantly in the amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of the principal's behavior on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H.6. Teachers will not differ significantly in the amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of the principal's behavior on the dimension of Consideration when grouped above and below the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

Limitations of the Study

Inferences to other schools in other situations should be made with caution due to the fact that the sample was limited to secondary schools in Kansas and might not apply to other geographical areas. In addition, the results might not be the same for elementary schools as for secondary schools. Certain schools were eliminated from the sample because they had new principals and in addition, teachers with less than one year of service in a school were eliminated. Since the sample was limited to schools with thirty or more teachers, smaller schools were not a part of this study.

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions formed the basis of the rationale for this study. First, the principal's behavior as a leader can be divided for conceptual purposes into Initiating Structure and Consideration

dimensions. Second, the way a teacher judges the leadership of a principal depends upon how that teacher perceives the behavior of that principal. A third assumption was that teachers' perceptions of their professionalism, the bureaucratic structure of the school, and the principal's leadership behavior vary within each school, yet remain relatively constant for an individual teacher over a period of time. An assumption was also made that the selected instruments reliably measured the variables of this study. Finally, an assumption was made that the teachers taking part in this study were able to respond in a threat-free environment that allowed them to answer the questions honestly and authentically.

Significance of the Study

Before definite decisions are made about eliminating, enhancing, or redefining the leadership role of the principal, more should be known about the factors that influence teacher perceptions of that leadership. For instance, the principal himself might be able to take steps to enhance his leadership effectiveness if he has some under-standing of how professionalism affects his staff's perceptions of his leadership behavior. In addition, an understanding of how teacher perceptions of organizational structure affect their perceptions of their principal's leadership behavior might suggest organizational changes to enhance the effectiveness of the principal's leadership. The results of this study could shed some light on the question of the future leadership role of the principal at least in terms of teacher expectations of behavior of the ideal principal.

Organization of the Study

A general description of the problem under investigation has been provided in this chapter. The problem involved a determination of differences (and similarities) in teachers' perceptions of the leadership behavior of their principals when these teachers were categorized according to the degree of their professionalism and the degree of bureaucratization of their schools. Definitions were provided for leadership behavior, professionalism, and bureaucracy. Hypotheses were listed concerning the problem, considering both ideal and real leadership behaviors of the principal.

A review of the literature concerning professionalism, bureaucracy of schools, and leadership of the principal is presented in Chapter II. In Chapter III are presented a description of the sample population, a description of the instrumentation, and the procedure utilized in the study. An analysis of the data is presented in Chapter IV. A brief summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further study are included in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is an examination of the development of the major

concepts used in this study as well as an overview of research involv-

ing those concepts. A detailed analysis is made of the leadership role

of the principal. Lastly, this chapter deals with research suggesting

interrelationships among the variables examined in this study.

Professionalism of Teachers

The rise in professionalism among teachers has been explained in

many different ways. Boyan analyzed the situation one way when he

said:

> Teachers bring to their work increased levels of prepa-
> ration and expertise. The availability of new and enlarged
> public and private resources has spurred them to pursue con-
> tinuous upgrading of their professional preparation.[1]

Corwin stated that the growth of systematic knowledge in teaching and

a firm sense of responsibility for students' welfare supports the

teachers' claim to an exclusive monopoly over certain aspects of teach-

ing which is the basis of a professional image.[2]

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[1]Norman J. Boyan, "The Emergent Role of the Teacher in the Author-
ity Structure of the School," Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus
on Schools, Fred D. Carver and Thomas Sergiovanni, eds. (New York:
McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969), p. 202.

[2]Ronald G. Corwin, "Professional Persons in Public Organizations,"
Educational Administration Quarterly, 1:1-20, Autumn, 1965.

With the rise of their professionalism and expertise, indications
are that teachers are asking a greater share in certain aspects of the
decision-making process. This is supported by Perry and Wildman who
reported the increasing use of collective negotiations by teachers to
achieve this goal.[3] Also, Bell concluded that professional training
improves technical competence and this competence increases discretion-
ary skills which produce expectations of freedom from supervisory con-
trol.[4]

Bureaucracy in Schools

Parallel to the development of professionalism of teachers is a
change in the organizational structure of schools. Organizational
structure is necessary to control individuals within the organization
to insure that the goals of that organization are met. According to
Morphet, Johns, and Reller, the tendency in formal organizations is to
develop a pyramidal, hierarchical structure with superordinate-
subordinate relationships among the actors in the organization.[5]

Corwin stated that while size in itself is not a cause of bureauc-
racy, some of the most bureaucratic organizations are large. He con-
tinued by saying that other causes of bureaucratic growth are the

[3]Charles A. Perry and Wesley A. Wildman, "A Survey of Collective
Activity Among Public School Teachers," Educational Administration
Quarterly, 2:131-167.

[4]Gerald D. Bell, "Formality Versus Flexibility in Complex Organi-
zations," Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools, Fred D.
Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, eds. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book
Co., 1969), p. 73.

[5]Edgar L. Morphet, Roe L. Johns, and Theodore L. Reller, Educa-
tional Organization and Administration: Concepts, Practices, and Issues
(Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), p. 92.

economy gained from large organizations, the expanding scope of

American education, and social forces such as the increasing mobility

of the population.[6] Abbott concluded that American schools have been

particularly receptive to the bureaucratic ideology because bureaucrat-

ic principles such as specialization, clearly defined rigid hierarchy

of authority, use of general rules to control behavior of members, and

formalistic impersonality have been incorporated into the structure of

schools.[7]

Professionalism Versus Bureaucracy

Thus, there are forces at work bringing on increasing bureaucrati-

zation of schools and at the same time other forces are bringing on

increasing professionalism of teachers. These two trends are consid-

ered to be a source of role-conflict for teachers and a source of

conflict in public schools. Vollmer and Mills pointed to at least part

of the problem by stating that,

> A great many studies indicate that professionals are uncom-
> fortable with bureaucratic authority, at least to the extent
> of expressing dissatisfaction with supervisory arrangements
> and complaining about managerial interference.[8]

Corwin found that bureaucratization of less professional organizations

reduced conflict whereas when more professional schools became

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[6]Ronald G. Corwin, A Sociology of Education (New York: Meredith
Publishing Co., 1965), pp. 39-40.

[7]Max G. Abbott, "Hierarchical Impediments to Innovation in Educa-
tional Organizations," Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on
Schools, Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, eds. (New York:
McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1969), pp. 44-45.

[8]Harold M. Vollmer and Donald L. Mills, eds., Professionalization
(Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966), p. 273.

bureaucratized, conflict increased.[9] Brown reported that professional

employees in a government laboratory resisted rules made for them by

persons outside their professional group.[10] Hall found that with the

exception of the technical competence dimension, a generally inverse

relationship existed between levels of bureaucratization and degree of

professionalization. Hall qualified his findings by stating that in

some cases an equilibrium may exist between levels of professionaliza-

tion and bureaucratization in the sense that a particular level of

professionalization requires a particular level of bureaucratization to

maintain social control. He concluded by saying that conflict occurs

within an organization only to the degree that specific aspects of

bureaucratization and professionalization vary enough to conflict.[11]

In fact, Moeller found in his study that bureaucratic rules actually

helped to increase the teachers' sense of power.[12] Basically then,

all bureaucratic structure does not cause conflict, it is only when the

bureaucratic structure interferes with professional standards that con-

flict arises.

The Leadership Role of the Principal

The conflict arising from disagreement over jurisdiction of

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[9]Ronald G. Corwin, Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, Cooper-
ative Research Project No. 2637 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University,
1966), p. 286.

[10]Paula Brown, "Bureaucracy in a Government Laboratory," Social
Forces, 32:259-269, March, 1954.

[11]Richard H. Hall, "Professionalization and Bureaucratization,"
American Sociological Review, 33:92-104, February, 1968.

[12]Gerald H. Moeller, "Bureaucracy and Teachers' Sense of Power,"
Administrator's Notebook, 11:3, November, 1962.

bureaucratic and professional standards has an influence on the status

of the principal because of his dual role as a leader of teachers and

an administrator of the school. Gross and Herriott summarized the

development of the principalship by saying that the concept of instruc-

tional leader or "head" teacher developed historically and that as

administrative duties increased, the principal retained and increased

the expectations as the leader of the instructional program.[13] Jerrems

stated that the principal is in the line authority of the organization

and has been selected on the basis of criteria which imply that he is

more competent to make decisions concerning the children than are his

subordinates. He continued by saying that certain aspects of the

traditional role of the principal are being questioned in the light

of increased teacher training and specialization.[14]

Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen concluded that current liter-

ature in school administration leaves the impression that "leadership"

and "administration" are synonymous.[15] However, many times distinctions

are made between administration and leadership for Goldman pointed out

that a leader is one who innovates and works to initiate change while

an administrator is viewed as a stabilizing force.[16] Lipham defined

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[13]Neal Gross and Robert E. Herriott, Staff Leadership in Public
Schools: A Sociological Inquiry (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.,
1965), pp. 2-3.

[14]Raymond L. Jerrems, "The Principal and the Pupils," Perspectives
on the Changing Role of the Principal, Richard W. Saxe, ed. (Spring-
field, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publishers, 1968), p. 37.

[15]John K. Hemphill, Daniel E. Griffiths, and Norman Frederiksen,
Administrative Performance and Personality (New York: Teachers College,
Columbia University, 1962), p. 345.

[16]Samuel Goldman, The School Principal (New York: The Center for
Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1966), p. 89.

leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing organizational goals while the administrator may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve organizational goals.[17] In fact, Thompson concluded that modern social scientists are coming to the conclusion that "headship" and "leadership" are incompatible or their consolidation in the same hands is unlikely.[18] This is basically one of the problems facing the principalship today. Are the leadership and administrative functions to be separated?

Many writers argue that the leadership function cannot be separated from the organizational setting. Lane, Corwin, and Monahan stressed this point when they said:

> It is fashionable to discuss leadership as a separate topic apart from the nature of the organization itself, but this is a misleading, if not warped perspective of the process. It is an inescapable fact that the nature of leadership is conditioned by the nature of the organization and of society. Educational leadership cannot be understood apart from its complex, bureaucratic context and the "power" environment.[19]

Lipham stated that except for a few complex institutions of very large size, the leadership functions and administrative functions are usually combined in a single position. He continued by saying that the methodology and findings of leadership studies of small unstructured groups

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[17]James M. Lipham, Leadership and Administration," Behavioral Science and Educational Administration, Sixty Third Yearbook of the National Society for Study of Education, Daniel E. Griffiths and Herman G. Richey, eds. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 122.

[18]Victor A. Thompson, Modern Organization (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1961), pp. 118-121.

[19]Willard R. Lane, Ronald G. Corwin, and William G. Monahan, Foundations of Educational Administration: A Behavioral Analysis (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967), p. 301.

is of limited value in studying organizational leadership.[20] Hemphill,

Griffiths, and Frederiksen stated in their study that there was no

reason to question the need for principals to be leaders and concluded

that leadership should be an important part of the principal's work.[21]

Thus, from this standpoint, the study of the leadership role of the

principal should take into account the organizationally established

dual role of administration and leadership.

Authority Base of the Principal

To focus on the conflict arising from disagreement over the juris-

diction of organizational and professional standards as they relate to

the leadership role of the principal, it seems necessary to examine the

authority base for the principalship. There essentially are two

sources of authority for the principal. According to Campbell,

Corbally, and Ramseyer, the principal is, in most forms of administra-

tive organization, the line authority in his building. This authority

devolves from the state, the board, and the superintendent and is his

traditional source of power. They continued by saying that, to operate

successfully within his school, the principal must possess an authority

based on competence.[22] According to Boyan, one source of authority is

the social control of organizational discipline and the other is the

social control of expertness. Boyan also stressed the fact that

[20]Lipham, pp. 123-125.

[21]Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen, p. 345.

[22]Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, and John A. Ramseyer,
Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon,
Inc., 1966), p. 227.

professional authority presumes a collegial rather than hierarchical relationship in which the distribution of authority rests on demonstrated knowledge or competence.[23] Another way to look at the sources of authority involves the realization that one comes from the organization and the other comes from group acceptance. The group has to accept the principal's authority of expertise in order for him to be a leader. The principal's authority of expertise based on his ability as a "master teacher" is being challenged, yet he can still have an expertise based on his opportunities for leadership.

The principal's leadership expertise for group acceptance should come from his ability to help the group achieve its goals. The 1960 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development contained a description of the leader's expertise which stated that no person is a leader unless his behavior affects group action which must be approved by the group.[24] Etzioni termed this type of leadership informal leadership which comes from the personal qualities of the leader.[25] Thus, assignment to a leadership position does not necessarily make a person a leader, for a leader is one whom the group perceives as helping its members achieve the group goals. Chase, in discussing a leader's competence, stated that leadership takes on an added meaning when conceived as the function performed by a person in terms of influencing a group's decision and action and at the same time contributing

[23]Boyan, p. 202.

[24]Leadership For Improving Instruction, 1960 Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1960), p. 47.

[25]Amitai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press, 1961), pp. 89-90.

to the attainment of goals and satisfactions prized by members of a group.[26]

The increasing professionalism of teachers raises questions concerning the continued leadership role of the principal on the basis of group acceptance. Becker reported in his study that teachers tried to distinguish between administrative and supervisory authority.[27] Professionalism, as stated earlier, implies a degree of autonomy over work and Bridges found that teachers with a high need for autonomy consistently expressed less favorable attitudes toward their principals. He concluded that teachers with a high need for autonomy viewed the principal as an authority figure capable of thwarting their opportunities to achieve the desired level of autonomy in their work.[28] Chase found that teachers in schools with high morale rated their principal high on leadership because he helped them solve problems in the classroom, contributed to their professional growth, displayed a respect for the teacher's competence, and was friendly and understanding of teachers. Chase concluded by saying that teachers who feel professionally competent and secure are quick to express dissatisfaction with principals who operate at the level of the super-disciplinarian.[29]

The increasing bureaucratization of schools causes further conflicts in the role of the principal. Lane, Corwin, and Monahan in

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[26]Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, 1:8, March, 1953.

[27]H. S. Becker, "The Teacher in the Authority System of the Public School, Journal of Educational Sociology, 2:128-141, November, 1953.

[28]Edwin M. Bridges, "Teacher Participation in Decision-Making," Administrator's Notebook, 8:9, May, 1964.

[29]Chase, p. 8.

reviewing research findings in the area concluded:

> First, they stress the fact that the problems of leader-
> ship become accentuated with bureaucratization. The challenge
> of leadership in the future will increasingly be the problems
> generated by bureaucracy, and as these problems become more
> complex there is little prospect that they will be solved by
> "experience" or with mediocre training. Second, with his
> organization increasing in size, it is difficult for the
> leader to give attention to the special problems of subordi-
> nates. It becomes more difficult to display the special
> leadership qualities of consideration.[30]

Watson stated that conformity to what teachers consider professional

principles requires that they resist certain bureaucratic expectations.

He continued by saying that the principal who has drawn his authority

solely from the nature of the office, rather than from professional and

personal sources will have difficulty surviving the pressures of his

changing authority structure.[31] Corwin focused on the problem when he

said:

> The office itself is one locus of authority; that is, a
> teacher may comply with a principal's request because he is
> the principal. Secondly, authority may be granted on the
> basis of the official's competence and leadership; less com-
> petent principals can expect less obedience. These two
> standards of authority are incompatable in some cases.
> Principals who are not respected by teachers for their edu-
> cational leadership must invoke sanctions more frequently
> than an esteemed principal. Generally, a professionally
> oriented faculty stresses competence, while an employee ori-
> ented faculty will concede to the authority of their adminis-
> trators regardless of their competence.[32]

Thus, the pressures of bureaucracy seem to require that the principal

emphasize the system and the pressures of professionalism seem to

require that he emphasize the person or the individuals in the group.

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[30]Lane, Corwin, and Monahan, p. 328.

[31]Bernard G. Watson, "The Principal: Forgotten Man in Negotia-
tions," Administrator's Notebook, 15:2, October, 1966.

[32]Corwin, A Sociology of Education, p. 25.

Leadership and Teacher Expectations

Basically, then, the professionalization of teachers and the bureaucratization of schools seem to be changing the expectations the teachers have of the leadership role of the principal. Studies have shown the relationship of teacher expectations of the principal's leadership to teacher satisfaction. Guba and Bidwell found that the confidence in the principal's leadership which is exhibited by a teacher is a function of the congruence between the teacher's perceptions of administrative expectations and the teacher's idealized version of those expectations.[33] Moyer concluded from the findings of his study that:

> First, they add more credence to the theory which emphasizes the importance of a follower's attitudes toward the leader's role. They indicate that teachers do have a mental picture of an "ideal leader" with whom they would like to work in their school situation and, as their "leader ideal" picture more nearly coincides with the type of leadership they perceive to exist in the situation, their feelings of satisfaction from working in the school are increased. On the other hand, greater dissimilarity between their "ideal" and their perception of reality results in reduced satisfaction.[34]

Chase concluded that a principal must strive to harmonize teacher perceptions of his behavior with their expectations if he is to be an an effective leader.[35]

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[33]Egon G. Guba and Charles E. Bidwell, *Administrative Relationships* (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1957), pp. 65-68.

[34]Donald C. Moyer, "Leadership That Teachers Want," *Administrator's Notebook*, 3:7, March, 1955.

[35]Francis S. Chase, "How To Meet Teachers' Expectations of Leadership," *Administrator's Notebook*, 1:9, April, 1953.

A closer look at the dimensions of leadership can help explain differences between expectations and perceptions of leadership. Leadership studies at Ohio State University centered on describing leader behavior along two dimensions, Initiating Structure and Consideration. The Initiating Structure dimension referred to a leader's behavior that stressed delineating the relationship between himself and the other members of the group, and endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting a job done. Consideration referred to behaviors that reflect friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and group members.[36] Halpin summarized the early leadership studies by pointing out major findings, four of which were: (1) The evidence indicates that Initiating Structure and Consideration are fundamental dimensions of leader behavior, (2) Effective leader behavior is associated with high performance on both dimensions, (3) Superiors are more concerned with Initiating Structure and subordinates are more concerned with Consideration, (4) Changes in attitudes of group members toward each other, and group characteristics such as harmony, intimacy, and procedural clarity, are significantly associated with the leadership style of the leader.[37]

In later studies, Fleishman and Harris found that low Consideration and high Initiating Structure go with high grievances and turnover. These authors went on to say that foremen can compensate for high

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[36]Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, eds., Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Research Monograph No. 88 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957).

[37]Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966), p. 9.

Structure by increased Consideration but low Consideration foremen

cannot compensate by decreasing their Structuring behavior.[38] Brown

reported that school staffs, by their responses, appear to accept the

fact that strength on both dimensions is difficult to achieve and

express satisfaction and confidence in the principal who exhibits

strength on either factor. Weaknesses on both dimensions or a weakness

in one without a corresponding strength in the other generate reactions

of low teacher satisfaction and low estimates of principal effective-

ness.[39] Sergiovanni, Melcus, and Burden concluded that, upon analysis,

research generally suggests that the two dimensions of leadership

behavior, focusing on people and focusing on the job, are not at oppo-

site ends of the same continuum, but that they are mutually exclusive

and effective leadership depends on both. They continued by saying

that the proportions of the two dimensions of leadership depend on the

situation. The proportion that may be effective in one situation may

not be effective in another.[40] This is supported by a conclusion made

by Corwin (quoted earlier in this chapter) which said that the type of

leadership that is effective in any situation is dependent on the

orientations of the members of the group.[41] In addition, the findings

of Sergiovanni, Melcus, and Burden supported the concept that the ideal

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[38]Edwin A. Fleishman and Edwin F. Harris, "Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover," Personnel Psychology, 15:43-56, Spring, 1962.

[39]Alan F. Brown, "Reactions to Leadership," Educational Administration Quarterly, 3:62-73, Winter, 1967.

[40]Thomas J. Sergiovanni, Richard Melcus, and Larry Burden, "Toward A Particularistic Approach to Leadership Style: Some Findings," American Educational Research Journal, 6:62-79, January, 1969.

[41]Corwin, A Sociology of Education, pp. 39-40.

leader must be strong on both dimensions even for teachers with different needs of leadership styles.

Even though ideal descriptions of leader behavior showed high emphasis on both dimensions, Halpin found discrepancies between ideal and perceived behavior of school superintendents. Teachers described superintendents as showing less Consideration than the superintendents themselves described themselves as showing. The superintendents and staffs were in closer agreement on their descriptions of the superintendent's Initiating Structure.[42] This again stressed the importance of the Consideration dimension from the subordinates' point of view. However, the most ineffective leaders were judged to be those low on both dimensions which indicates that a certain amount of Initiating Structure was necessary. Brown and Anderson found that faculty consensus with respect to satisfaction with all aspects of the teaching situation was greater in schools whose principals exhibited person rather than system oriented leader behavior.[43]

Professionalism and Bureaucracy
Related to Leadership

A specific attempt to examine the relationship between principals' leader behavior and the professionalism of teachers was reported by Robinson in one phase of his research study. Robinson was concerned only with the degree of autonomy in decision making which teachers in school felt the principal allowed them to have. To investigate this,

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[42]Halpin, pp. 111-127.

[43]Alan F. Brown and Barry D. Anderson, "Faculty Consensus As A Function of Leadership Frequency and Style," Journal of Experimental Education, 36:43-49, Winter, 1967.

he developed the Advisory Authority Scale consisting of seven items. A high score on the Advisory Authority Scale meant that the principal gave the teachers a great deal of autonomy. Robinson found that even though there was a trend for high Advisory Authority Scores to be associated with a high staff professional scores, the relationship was not significant. He attributed the lack of significance to a lack of discriminating power on the part of a number of items and to the limited total number of items in the Advisory Authority instrument.

In addition, Robinson found that schools do differ in the degree of staff professionalism. He also found a trend to indicate that schools with high professional scores de-emphasized certain aspects of bureaucratic organization such as hierarchical authority, procedural specifications, and impersonality. Robinson did emphasize that a great deal of the variation of scores between schools was unexplained and could be caused by many factors.[44]

Punch tied teacher observations of principal leadership specifically to bureaucracy along dimensions of hierarchy of authority, rules for members, procedural specifications, and impersonality. He found that the person orientation of the principal as viewed by teachers and the level of bureaucracy as viewed by teachers correlated negatively and that bureaucracy and system orientation of the principal were positively correlated. Punch indicated that the relationships existed but he did not identify the causal factors; nevertheless he did demonstrate that there was a relationship between how teachers view their

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[44]Norman Robinson, "A Study of the Professional Role Orientations of Teachers and Principals and Their Relationship to Bureaucratic Characteristics of School Organizations" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966), pp. 181-204.

principal's behavior and how they view the organizational structure of

a school. Again, Punch indicated that other factors accounted for

variation between schools in bureaucratization and leader behavior such

as system size, time the principal and staff had been in a school, as

well as actual differences in the principals' behavior.[45]

Summary

This chapter considered the professionalism of teachers and the

bureaucratization of schools and their relationship to teacher percep-

tions of the leadership role of the principal. The professionalism of

teachers would seem to stress the importance of the Consideration

dimension of leadership with its focus on the person while the bureauc-

ratization of schools puts pressure on the principal to stress the

system or Initiating Structure dimension of leadership. An examination

of the authority base of the principal revealed that his authority is

rooted in both the system and the individuals in the group. The type

of leadership that is effective depends on the orientations of the

members of the group. However, effective leadership is associated with

strength on both dimensions, yet descriptions of actual leader behavior

of principals indicate that they vary widely. Discrepancies between

expected and perceived leader behavior tend to be sources of dissatis-

faction among teachers. Studies have indicated a possible relationship

between teacher professionalism and perceived principal leader behavior

and a probable relationship between bureaucratization and principal

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[45]Keith F. Punch, "Bureaucratic Structure in Schools and Its Rela-
tionship to Leader Behavior: An Empirical Study" (unpublished Ph.D.
dissertation, University of Toronto, Toronto, 1967), pp. 189-199.

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leader behavior. In both cases a great deal of between school varia-
tion remained unexplained.

Thus, the literature seemed to point to a need to determine if
teachers differ in their descriptions of the leader behavior of their
principal based on their professional orientations and their percep-
tions of the bureaucratization of their school.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research procedure utilized in the study. Specifically, a description of the design of the study and sample used is included in the chapter. The last part of the chapter deals with a description of the instruments employed and the statistical procedures followed.

The Sample

The sample for this study was drawn from a population of all teachers employed in Kansas high schools with a total of thirty or more certified faculty members./The minimum size of thirty was set in order to allow for enough differentiation in perceptions among teachers to allow division into four groups with at least several teachers in each group. The total number of high schools with thirty or more teachers was sixty-six during the 1968-69 school year. The sample consisted of teachers from ten of these high schools selected at random by utilizing a table of random numbers.[1] Schools were not included in the study if the principal had been in his position less than one year. Teachers who had been with a school less than one year were not included because of the limited time for opportunity to observe the principal's behavior.

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[1]W. James Popham, _Educational Statistics: Use and Interpretation_ (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1967), pp. 381-385.

A total of eighteen schools were initially selected. Three of these schools were eliminated because they had new principals and five school principals stated that they did not wish to participate in the study.

A total of 385 response sheets were returned from a possible 439 making a 87.7 per cent return. In a number of cases, some of the biographical data were omitted but the responses to the instruments were complete so they were included in the data analysis. The population distribution by age categories was as follows:

Age	Number	Per Cent
20-34	160	41.5
35-49	123	31.9
50-65	90	23.4
No response	12	3.2
Total	385	100.0

A comparison of age distribution of the sample with the state secondary population was difficult due to different age categories. A survey by the Kansas State Teachers Association indicated that 35 per cent of the state secondary teachers were under thirty-five years of age. This seems comparable to the 41.5 per cent of teachers under thirty-five in the sample. In addition, the Association survey indicated that 23 per cent of state secondary teachers were over fifty years of age while about 27 per cent of the sample were fifty years old or older.[2] These two comparisons indicate a similarity in age distribution of the sample and the secondary teacher population of the state.

The sample included 220 males and 154 females; however, eleven respondents did not designate their sex. The percentage of distribution of males and females in the sample is near the state percentage.

[2]Statistical data obtained by personal correspondence with the Kansas State Teachers Association, Topeka, Kansas.

The percentage of males in the sample was 58 per cent and the percentage of males in the state secondary schools was about 60 per cent. Females accounted for 42 per cent of the sample and 40 per cent of the state secondary teachers.

Presented in Table I is a breakdown by levels of preparation of the teachers in the sample. The largest percentage of teachers in any one category was over 36 per cent with the Master's Degree. This is comparable to the 35 per cent of state secondary teachers holding the Master's Degree as reported by the Association survey. About 31 per cent of the sample of teachers held less than the Master's Degree. This is considerably smaller than the 63 per cent of state secondary teachers holding less than the Master's Degree. A total of 112 or about 29 per cent of the teachers in the sample had earned sixteen or more hours beyond the Master's Degree. Slightly over 4 per cent of the sample had earned degrees beyond the Master's Degree while less than 1 per cent of state secondary teachers had earned degrees beyond the Master's Degree.[3] Generally, the population was distributed throughout the different levels of preparation with a fairly large concentration centering around the Master's Degree. A limited comparison of the preparation of the sample to the preparation of the total secondary teacher population indicated that the level of education of the sample was somewhat higher. A possible explanation for this could be that only teachers from larger schools made up the sample. Generally, larger school systems tend to employ more teachers with advanced degrees.[4]

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[3]Ibid.

[4]NEA Research Bulletin, "Highest Degree Held by Public School Teachers, 1967-68," 46:80-81, October, 1968.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY
LEVEL OF PREPARATION

Degree	Number of Teachers	Per Cent of Teachers
Bachelors	85	22.1
Bachelors + 16	37	9.6
Masters	141	36.6
Masters + 16	44	11.4
Masters + 30	51	13.3
Ed. S.	14	3.6
Ed. D.	3	.8
No Response	10	2.6
Total	385	100.0

A summary of the professional experience of teachers in the sample is presented in Table II. According to the data in Table II, the sample of teachers represented a wide range in years of experience in the present school. In terms of school tenure, 232 or about 60 per cent of the teachers had six or less years experience in their present school. Almost 40 per cent or 144 teachers had three years or less experience in the present school. The median term of service in a school was five years. No comparable data concerning length of service in the present school were found for the state secondary population.

Some comparisons of the total teaching experience of the sample to the total teaching experience of the secondary teacher population are shown in Table III. About 23 per cent of the sample had five years or less experience; however, 40 per cent of the total secondary population had five years or less experience. Almost 26 per cent of the sample

TABLE II

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT SCHOOL
OF TEACHERS IN SAMPLE POPULATION

Years in Present School	Number of Teachers	Per Cent of Teachers
0 - 1	20	5.2
2 - 3	124	32.2
4 - 6	88	22.9
7 -	142	36.8
No Response	11	2.9
Total	385	100.0

TABLE III

TOTAL PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE OF SAMPLE POPULATION
AND STATE POPULATION OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

Years in Teaching	Teachers in State	Per Cent	Teachers in Sample	Per Cent
0 - 5	2655	40.0	88	22.9
6 - 10	1589	24.0	98	25.5
11 - 15	850	12.8	69	17.9
16 -	1528	23.2	120	31.2
No Response			10	2.5
Total	6622	100.0	385	100.0

had six to ten years experience while 24 per cent of the state popula-
tion fell in this category. The eleven to fifteen year category con-
tained about 18 per cent of the sample compared to 13 per cent of the
total secondary population. The sample contained about 31 per cent of
teachers with over 15 years experience, but the state population of
secondary teachers contained about 23 per cent of teachers in the over
15 years experience category. Basically, the sample seemed to be
similar to state secondary teacher population in terms of total years
of teaching experience, except that the sample seemed to have somewhat
more experience than the total population. This is supported by the
fact that the median in terms of years of experience for the sample was
eleven years and for the total secondary population was seven years.[5]

The Instrumentation

Professionalism Measure

The Professional Orientation Scale was the instrument selected to
be used in this study to measure teacher professionalism. This scale,
developed by Corwin, contains sixteen Likert-type items with subscales
of Client Orientation, Colleague Orientation, Monopoly of Knowledge,
and Decision-making.[6] The subscales were not used because only a
single measure of professionalism (the total score) was needed in this
study. The word "teacher" was substituted for the word "professional"

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[5]Report on Kansas Teacher Statistics, 1969-70 (Topeka, Kansas:
Kansas State Teachers Association, 1970), p. 5.

[6]Ronald G. Corwin, Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, Coopera-
tive Research Project No. 2637 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University,
1966), pp. 466-469.

in the title of the instrument. The reason for this is that the word
"professional" might have emotionally charged meanings for some teach-
ers which could bias their responses to certain items on the scale.

Corwin developed the Professional Orientation Scale as part of a
project designed to investigate staff conflicts in public schools. The
development of the scale involved several stages. A large number of
items were constructed after an extensive review of the literature.
The initial items were selected on the basis of face validity judged by
a panel of sociologists for relevance to several dimensions of the
professional concept.

The questionnaire, made up of selected items, was then adminis-
tered to a sample judged as varying in degrees of professionalism.
Those items that yielded a low discriminating power in relation to the
total scale were eliminated. The discriminating power of each item was
determined by a comparison of each test item response from those teach-
ers scoring above the upper quartile and below the lower quartile. The
items finally selected were divided randomly into two sets. The split-
half correlation of the two sets was .48 which when corrected with the
Spearman-Brown formula was .65.

The scale was validated against groups of persons that had reputa-
tions as being good or poor professionals. The high professional group
consisted of teachers with five or more years of teaching who had
published two or more articles, or had held an office in a professional
association, or had been active in professional organizations in other
ways such as actively serving on committees or making presentations at
association meetings. The low professional group consisted of full or
part-time teachers who had subscribed to no more than one professional

journal, who had not published an article, or who were not active in
professional organizations. The two groups differed significantly at
the .01 level on mean scale scores; thus, the scale discriminated
between high and low professional groups.[7]

Bureaucracy Measure

The instrument used to measure the degree of bureaucratization in
the schools was the School Organizational Inventory. This instrument
is a refinement of an instrument first developed by Hall called the
Organizational Inventory.[8] MacKay modified Hall's instrument for use
in schools and renamed it the School Organizational Inventory.[9]
Further modifications were made by Robinson who developed the instru-
ment used in this study.[10]

Hall developed the instrument to measure bureaucracy in commercial
and governmental organizations. He identified six subscales that con-
tributed to a total bureaucratization score for a particular organiza-
tion. The subscales were as follows: (1) Hierarchy of Authority, (2)
Specialization, (3) Rules for Members, (4) Procedural Specifications,

[7]Ronald G. Corwin, The Development of an Instrument for Examining Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools, Cooperative Research Project No. 1934 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1963).

[8]Richard H. Hall, "An Empirical Study of Bureaucratic Dimensions and Their Relation to Other Organizational Characteristics" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1961).

[9]D. A. MacKay, "An Empirical Study of Bureaucratic Dimensions and Their Relation to Other Characteristics of School Organizations" (unpub-lished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1964).

[10]Norman Robinson, "A Study of the Professional Role Orientations of Teachers and Principals and Their Relationships to Bureaucratic Characteristics of School Organizations" (unpublished Ph.D. disserta-tion, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966).

(5) Impersonality, (6) Technical Competence.

The pretest instrument consisted of 146 items and the final item selection was based on item analysis of pretest data to determine clustering of items that worked together to form a unified scale. The final scale consisted of sixty-two short descriptive statements that were to be responded to on a Likert-type scale. Spearman-Brown split-half reliability coefficients for scales ranged between .80 and .90. To validate the instrument, Hall selected organizations which were judged by independent observers to be either high or low along one or more of the six dimensions. A significant relationship (at the .05 level) was found between scale scores and degree of bureaucratization.[11]

MacKay modified the Hall instrument for use in schools by adapting terminology to the educational setting, but he made no major changes in concepts developed by Hall.[12] One of McKay's findings related to instrumentation in this study. He found that the dimensions of Specialization and Technical Competence correlated positively with each other but Technical Competence correlated negatively with the other four dimensions.[13] This was the first indication that the dimensions of Specialization and Technical Competence were measuring a different part of organizations than were the other four dimensions.

Robinson later rewrote some of the items to achieve greater clarity and the sixty-two original items were reduced to forty-eight. He again tested the scales for internal consistency, using correlational

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[11]Hall, 1961.

[12]MacKay, 1964.

[13]Ibid., pp. 167-168.

methods, and the items for discriminating power. He concluded that his

refinements added to the discriminating power of the items and in-

creased the correlational value between each subscale item and total

subscale scores. Robinson confirmed and refined MacKay's findings in

his study when he found that Technical Competence and Specialization

were significantly and positively related and that Hierarchy of Author-

ity, Rules for Members, Procedural Specifications, and Impersonality

were also positively and significantly related, while there was a sig-

nificant and negative correlation between the first two and last four

dimensions.[14]

Still later, Punch confirmed Robinson's findings in his study.

Punch concluded that Specialization and Technical Competence were a

rough measure of professionalization and that the other four dimensions

measure bureaucratization. Thus, Punch felt that professionalization

and bureaucratization are two separate and distinct elements of organi-

zational life and that only the four subscales of Hierarchy of Authori-

ty, Procedural Specifications, Rules for Members, and Impersonality

were measures of bureaucratization.[15] For this reason, only the

thirty-three items making up the four dimensions of bureaucracy were

used in this study. A secondary reason for including only the thirty-

three items was to reduce the over-all length of the research instru-

ment. Since Punch indicated that the subscales of Specialization and

Technical Competence were only rough measures of professionalism,

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[14]Robinson, pp. 194-197.

[15]Keith Francis Punch, "Bureaucratic Structure in Schools and Its
Relationship to Leader Behavior: An Empirical Study" (unpublished
Ph.D. dissertation, University of Toronto, Toronto, 1967), pp. 192-197.

selection of an instrument designed specifically to measure profession-alism was considered necessary.

Leader Behavior Measure

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was the instrument used to describe leader behavior in this study. This in-strument was developed as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. These studies approached the study of leadership by examining and measuring the behavior of leaders rather than identifying the personal-ity traits of leaders.[16] Originally, the LBDQ was developed by Hemphill and Coons for the study of leader behavior in a variety of situations.[17] The instrument was later modified for use in the educa-tional setting and conceptualized along the two fundamental dimensions by Halpin and Winer.[18] Since then many studies of leadership have utilized the LBDQ. The instrument has been used to describe the actual perceived leader behavior of persons in leadership positions as well as the ideal or expected behaviors of those leaders. The estimated relia-bility by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiating Structure scores and .92 for the Consideration scores.[19] The LBDQ has proven to be effective in discriminating between the two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior in a large number of studies.

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[16]Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons, eds., Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, Research Monograph No. 88 (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957).

[17]Ibid., pp. 6-38.

[18]Ibid., pp. 38-73.

[19]Andrew W. Halpin, Manual for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1957), p. 6.

The present form of the LBDQ of forty items contains fifteen items related to the Consideration dimension, fifteen items for the Initiating Structure dimension, and ten filler items. The ten filler items were omitted in this study due to a need to reduce the length of the total instrument.

The final instrument used in this study (see Appendix A) contained the thirty items of the LBDQ twice, once to describe real behaviors and once to describe ideal behaviors of principals. The other two sections of the instrument contained the sixteen items of the Professional Orientation Scale and the thirty-three items of the School Organizational Inventory. The total number of items in the final instrument utilized in this study was 109. Teachers were asked to respond first, to the LBDQ ideal, second, to the Professional Orientation Scale, third, to the School Organizational Inventory, and last, to the LBDQ real.

The Procedure

The procedure of this study was to administer the total instrument to the qualifying teachers in each of the ten selected schools. In eight schools, appointments were made to meet with the faculty in the morning to explain the study and give directions for responding to the instrument. The respondents were asked to complete the forms during the school day and return them to a collection point in the school. About 90 per cent of the completed forms were returned during the school day. The remainder were returned by mail. In two schools, faculty meetings were held at the end of the school day and details of the study as well as directions for responding to the instruments were

given at that time. The respondents were asked to return the completed
forms the next day. About 65 per cent of the completed forms were
returned on the day following the faculty meeting in one school and
about 45 per cent were returned from the other school. The remainder
of the returns were received by mail. In Table IV are presented the
data on the number of teachers in each school, the number of teachers
that met the requirements of the study, and the number and percentage
of returned questionnaires. The percentage of returned questionnaires
was lowest in the three largest schools, but in all schools this per-
centage was above 74 per cent.

After all the schools were visited and all the additional com-
pleted forms were returned by mail, the answer sheets were scored and
tabulated. All of the Likert scales of the instrument were assigned a
zero to four value. Items 10, 15, and 16 of the LBDQ were scored zero
for "always" to four for "never" and the remaining twenty-seven items
were scored four for "always" to zero for "never." Possible responses
were "always," "often," "occasionally," "seldom," or "never." Identi-
cal scoring procedures were used for the LBDQ real and LBDQ ideal. The
responses on the Professional Orientation Scale were "strongly agree,"
"agree," "undecided," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." These
responses were scored four for "strongly agree" to zero for "strongly
disagree." The possible responses on the School Organizational Inven-
tory were "always true," "often true," "occasionally true," "seldom
true," and "never true." Items 3, 7, 8, 11, 12, 14, and 20 were scored
zero for "always true" to four for "never true" and the remainder of
the items were scored four for "always true" to zero for "never true."

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF RETURNED QUESTIONNAIRES BY SCHOOL

School I. D. No.	Total Teachers	Qualifying Teachers	Number of Returns	Percentage of Returns
1	40	35	32	91.4
2	58	41	39	95.1
3	33	25	25	100.0
4	36	26	25	96.2
5	101	79	59	74.7
6	97	71	53	74.6
7	38	30	30	100.0
8	31	25	25	100.0
9	96	71	61	85.9
10	48	36	36	100.0

After scoring and tabulating, the data were prepared for machine processing and statistical analysis. The means by school and total population were computed for the LBDQ real and LBDQ ideal scores on the dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The mean and median by school and total population were also computed for the Professional Orientation Scale and the School Organizational Inventory. In addition, mean differences by school and total population were computed between LBDQ real and LBDQ ideal scores on Initiating Structure and Consideration.

Each school population was then divided into four groups based on scores above and below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and the Teacher Orientation Scale. First, teacher responses from each school were divided into two groups above and below the median on the School Organizational Inventory. Second, each of these two groups

were further subdivided above and below the median on the Professional Orientation Scale. Thus, the responses from each school were divided into four basic groups based on their position above and below the school medians on the two measures. The four groups from each school were combined to form the four basic groups of the study. A point to remember is that this method of division produced groups of varying size.

The first of the four groups, labeled as Group I, consisted of the responses from those teachers who were below the median on both the School Organizational Inventory and the Professional Orientation Scale within each school. The second group, labeled as Group II, comprised the responses from teachers who were below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and above the median on the Professional Orientation Scale within each school. The third group, labeled as Group III, consisted of the responses from teachers who were above the median on the School Organizational Inventory and below the median on the Professional Orientation Scale within each school. The fourth group, labeled as Group IV, comprised the responses from teachers who were above the median on both instruments within each school. An illustration of the basic division of the population and composition of each group is presented in Figure 1.

A single classification analysis of variance was used to determine if there was a significant difference among group means of the four groups on each of the following: (1) LBDQ ideal dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, (2) LBDQ real dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, (3) Difference between LBDQ ideal and LBDQ real on the dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration. The

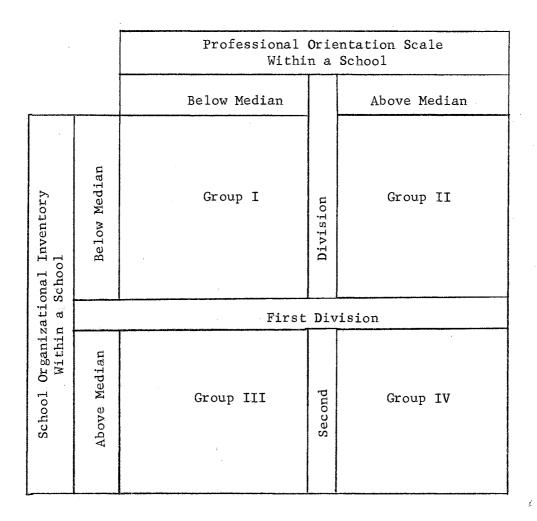|		Professional Orientation Scale Within a School				
		Below Median			Above Median	
School Organizational Inventory Within a School	Below Median	Group I		Division	Group II	
		First Division				
	Above Median	Group III		Second	Group IV	

Figure 1. Composition of the Four Basic Groups Compared in the Study

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was used to determine the location of
significant differences among means.[20]   A single classification analy-
sis of variance was also used to determine if schools varied signifi-
cantly in difference between real and ideal scores.

Procedural Considerations

The total length of the instrument (109 items) at first seemed to
be a factor that influenced some schools to ask not to be included in
the study.   The general reason given by both faculty representatives
and administrators was that they would not ask all faculty to meet just
to complete what they considered a lengthy questionnaire.   These same
schools did consent to having the investigator meet with the faculty to
give instructions and allow staff members to complete the instrument at
their convenience during the school day.   Thus, there seemed to be a
reluctance on the part of either faculty representatives or administra-
tors to commit school staffs for a meeting just to complete the instru-
ment.   In two cases faculty were allowed to vote if they wanted to
participate in the study.   The faculty in one school voted to take part
in the study while the second school faculty voted not to take part.

A number of teachers in the three largest metropolitan high
schools stated either orally or in written statements that the ques-
tions on the LBDQ did not always fit circumstances in a large high
school because administrative responsibilities were assigned to a
number of offices not just the principal.   The teachers in a large high

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[20]James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, Computational Handbook of
Statistics (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968),
pp. 115-117.

school make assessments of their principal's behavior based on inter-
pretations of other administrators such as department heads as well as
supervisors. Therefore, teachers in a number of instances expressed
some doubt about the accuracy of their assessment of the principal's
behavior.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the procedure followed
in this study. Teachers from ten randomly selected high schools in
Kansas were chosen as respondents. The distribution of the sample
population was shown to be comparable to the distribution of the state
secondary population categorized by sex, age, formal education, and
teaching experience. The three instruments described as data gathering
devices for this study were the Professional Orientation Scale, the
School Organizational Inventory, and the Leader Behavior Description
Questionnaire. Scores above and below the median on the School Organi-
zational Inventory and the Professional Orientation Scale were used to
divide the population into four basic groups. A single classification
analysis of variance was identified as the method used to determine if
there were significant differences among the four groups on LBDQ ideal
scores, LBDQ real scores, and differences between LBDQ real and ideal
scores.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data that were
gathered to test the hypotheses of the study. Data concerned with
testing hypotheses involving the LBDQ ideal scores are presented first.
The second section deals with data derived from LBDQ real scores used
to test the third and fourth hypotheses. The last section deals with
an analysis of data dealing with the difference between LBDQ real and
ideal scores used to test the last two hypotheses. The single classi-
fication analysis of variance program that was applied was developed by
the Health Sciences Computing Facility at the University of California
at Los Angeles. The .05 probability level of significance was utilized
to accept or reject the hypotheses in this study.

Each of the hypotheses was tested by a comparison of means of the
four basic groups described in Chapter III. The groups were formed by
dividing teacher responses into four groups based on their position
above and below the school median on first, the School Organizational
Inventory and second, the Professional Orientation Scale. Briefly, the
four groups were composed as follows: Group I - teacher responses that
were below the median on both instruments, Group II - teacher responses
that were below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and
above the median on the Professional Orientation Scale, Group III -

teacher responses that were above the median on the School Organiza-
tional Inventory and below the median on the Professional Orientation
Scale, and Group IV - teacher responses that were above the median on
both instruments.

Ideal Principal Behavior

Two hypotheses were tested dealing with the ideal leader behavior
of the principal.

> H. 1. Teachers will not differ significantly in their
> description of the ideal principal on the dimension of Initi-
> ating Structure when grouped above and below the median on
> the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and
> their professionalization.

A single classification analysis of variance was used to determine
if significant differences existed among the four group means. The
summary data and results of the analysis of variance are presented in
Table V. The computed F-value of 1.60 was not as large as the 2.65
required for significance at the .05 level with 3 and 381 degrees of
freedom. Thus, the four groups did not vary significantly in the way
they described the behaviors of the ideal principal on the dimension of
Initiating Structure; the hypothesis was not rejected.

The test of the second hypothesis yielded some significant find-
ings.

> H. 2. Teachers will not differ significantly in their
> description of the ideal principal on the dimension of Con-
> sideration when grouped above and below the median on the
> degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their
> professionalization.

The summary data and results of the analysis of variance testing
this hypothesis are presented in Table VI. The computed F-value of
3.32 was above the 2.65 required for significance at the .05 level,

which indicated that at least two of the group means were significantly different.

TABLE V

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
THE LBDQ IDEAL INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION
OF THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	46.68	44.94	45.16	45.17
S. D.	6.49	7.52	5.36	6.37

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	197.06	65.69	1.60[*]
Within Groups	381	15644.57	41.06	
Total	384	15841.63		

[*]$p > .05$

TABLE VI

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
THE LBDQ IDEAL CONSIDERATION DIMENSION
OF THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	46.14	44.57	46.33	47.43
S. D.	6.72	6.64	5.06	5.07

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	349.18	116.39	3.32[*]
Within Groups	381	13340.42	35.01	
Total	384	13689.60		

[*] $p < .05$

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was applied to determine which group means differed significantly.[1] The ranking of group means and areas of nonsignificance are presented in Table VII. Only two groups (Groups II and IV) were significantly different from each other.[2]

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[1] James L. Bruning and B. L. Kintz, Computational Handbook of Statistics (Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1968), pp. 115-117.

[2] Critical R-values testing this and other differences resulting from significant F-values are found in Appendix B.

TABLE VII

RANKED GROUP MEANS AND AREAS OF NONSIGNIFICANCE
(p >.05) FOR THE LBDQ IDEAL
CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Group	II	I	III	IV
Mean	44.57	46.14	46.33	47.43

* $\longleftarrow$————————————$\longrightarrow$

* $\longleftarrow$————————————————$\longrightarrow$

*Lines indicate areas of nonsignificance.

Teachers scoring high on bureaucracy and high on professionalism
(Group IV) had a higher mean ideal Consideration score than teachers
scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism (Group II). The
two groups scoring low on professionalism (Groups I and III) did not
differ significantly from each other or from the high professional
groups (Groups II and IV). Both groups scoring high on bureaucracy
(Groups III and IV) tended to have higher mean ideal Consideration
scores than the two groups which scored low on bureaucracy (Groups I
and II), but this was only a trend and was not significant.

Real Principal Behavior

Two hypotheses were tested dealing with the real or perceived
leader behavior of the principal.

H. 3. Teachers will not differ significantly in their
descriptions of the real behaviors of their principal on the
dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and

below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

The summary data and results of the analysis of variance for the four group means are presented in Table VIII. The computed F-value of 2.92 was greater than the 2.65 required for significance at the .05 level which indicated that at least two group means were significantly different.

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
THE LBDQ REAL INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION
OF THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	39.84	38.11	36.73	39.02
S. D.	8.54	8.67	7.50	7.59

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	571.61	190.54	2.92[*]
Within Groups	381	24853.94	65.23	
Total	384	25425.54		

[*]$p < .05$

By means of the Duncan's New Multiple Range Test, a determination was made as to which group means differed significantly. The ranking of group means and areas of nonsignificance are presented in Table IX. Only two groups (Groups I and III) were significantly different from each other.

TABLE IX

RANKED GROUP MEANS AND AREAS OF NONSIGNIFICANCE
(p >.05) FOR THE LBDQ REAL INITIATING
STRUCTURE DIMENSION

Group	III	II	IV	I
Mean	36.73	38.11	39.02	39.84

* Lines indicate areas of nonsignificance.

Teachers scoring low on bureaucracy and low on professionalism (Group I) had a higher mean real Initiating Structure score than teachers scoring high on bureaucracy and low on professionalism (Group III). The two groups scoring high on professionalism (Groups II and IV) did not differ significantly from each other or from the two groups scoring low on professionalism (Groups I and III).

A test of the fourth hypothesis, the second concerning perceived behaviors of the real principal, revealed a number of significant differences among groups.

> H. 4. Teachers will not differ significantly in their description of the real behaviors of their principal on the dimension of Consideration when grouped according to the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

The summary data and results of the analysis of variance for the four group means are presented in Table X. The computed F-value of 4.48 was greater than the 3.88 required for significance at the .01 level which indicated that at least two group means were significantly different.

Duncan's New Multiple Range Test was again applied to determine which group means differed significantly. The ranking of group means and areas of nonsignificance are presented in Table XI. Significant differences occurred between three pairs of groups (Groups II and IV, Groups I and IV, and Groups II and III).

Two groups of teachers, one scoring high on bureaucracy and high on professionalism (Group IV) and the other scoring high on bureaucracy and low on professionalism (Group III), had higher mean real Consideration scores than the group scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism (Group II). Therefore, both groups which viewed the structure as rigid had mean real Consideration scores significantly above the mean of the high professional group which viewed the bureaucratic structure as loose. The greatest difference in means occurred between the two high professional groups (Groups II and IV). The third set of significantly different group means involved the teachers who scored high on bureaucracy and high on professionalism (Group IV), with
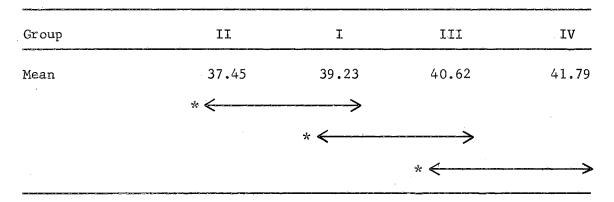
TABLE X

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
THE LBDQ REAL CONSIDERATION DIMENSION OF
THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	39.23	37.45	40.62	41.79
S. D.	8.63	8.93	8.04	6.91

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	900.47	300.16	4.48[*]
Within Groups	381	25517.61	66.98	
Total	384	26418.07		

[*]$p < .01$

TABLE XI

RANKED GROUP MEANS AND AREAS OF NONSIGNIFICANCE
$(p > .05)$ FOR THE REAL CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Group	II	I	III	IV
Mean	37.45	39.23	40.62	41.79

[*] $\longleftrightarrow$

[*] $\longleftrightarrow$

[*] $\longleftrightarrow$

[*]Lines indicate areas of nonsignificance.

a higher mean real Consideration score than the teachers who scored low

on bureaucracy and low on professionalism (Group I).

The data in Table XI do not indicate clear breaks in areas of

nonsignificance, but each pair of significantly different groups varied

in position above and below the median on bureaucracy. In each case,

when two groups varied significantly in mean real Consideration scores,

they were also in opposite positions in relation to the median on

bureaucracy with the high bureaucracy group having the higher mean

Consideration score. In fact, the two high bureaucracy groups had

higher mean Consideration scores than the two low bureaucracy groups

even though all mean differences were not significant. This same trend

also occurred with the ideal Consideration scores.

Difference Between Ideal and Real
Principal Behavior

The last two hypotheses tested dealt with the difference between

ideal and real scores on the two leadership dimensions.

> H. 5. Teachers will not differ significantly in the
> amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of
> their principal's behavior on the dimension of Initiating
> Structure when grouped above and below the median on the
> degree of perceived bureaucratization of their school and
> their professionalization.

The summary data and results of the variance testing this hypoth-

esis are presented in Table XII. The computed F-value of 1.47 was not

as large as the 2.65 required for significance at the .05 level; the

hypothesis was not rejected. Thus, the four groups did not vary sig-

nificantly in the mean amount of difference between ideal and real

scores assessing principal behaviors on the dimension of Initiating

Structure.

TABLE XII

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE LBDQ IDEAL AND REAL
SCORES OF THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS ON
THE INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	-6.84	-6.83	-8.43	-6.14
S. D.	9.34	8.25	8.59	8.35

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	332.25	110.75	1.47*
Within Groups	381	28740.98	75.4	
Total	384	29073.23		

*$p > .05$

A test of the last hypothesis yielded an even smaller F-value.

H. 6. Teachers will not differ significantly in the
amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of
their principal's behavior on the dimension of Consideration
when grouped above and below the median on the degree of
perceived bureaucratization of the school and their profes-
sionalization.

The summary data and results of the analysis of variance testing

this hypothesis are presented in Table XIII. The computed F-value of

0.43 was well below the 2.65 required for the .05 level of significance;

thus, this hypothesis was not rejected. Therefore, the four groups did

not differ significantly in the mean amount of difference between ideal

and real scores assessing the principal behaviors on the dimension of
Consideration.

TABLE XIII

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE LBDQ IDEAL AND REAL
SCORES OF THE FOUR COMPARISON GROUPS ON
THE CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

Group	I	II	III	IV
Size	107	83	111	84
Mean	-6.91	-7.12	-5.71	-5.64
S. D.	14.20	8.92	7.92	6.96

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	3	130.23	43.41	0.43[*]
Within Groups	381	38830.13	101.92	
Total	384	38960.36		

[*]$p > .05$

Since no significant differences in means were found among the
four groups, an analysis of variance was used to determine if signifi-
cant differences in means occurred among the ten schools of the sample.
The reason for this check was to locate a possible source of variance
distinct from that among the four groups. The summary data and results

of the analysis of variance of the ten schools on difference between

ideal and real Initiating Structure scores are presented in Table XIV.

The computed F-value of 14.03 was far more than the 2.50 required for

significance at the .01 level with 9 and 375 degrees of freedom.

Summary data and results of the analysis of variance of the ten schools

on difference between ideal and real Consideration scores are presented

in Table XV. The computed F-value of 5.03 is greater than the 2.50

required for significance at the .01 level. Based on these data, a

source of significant variation in difference between ideal and real

behaviors of the principal was in the different schools.

Summary

Presented in this chapter are the results of the analyses of

variance used to test the hypotheses of the study. The first hypothe-

sis was not rejected in that no significant differences existed among

the four group means. The second hypothesis was rejected in that

teachers who were high on bureaucracy and high on professionalism had

a significantly higher mean ideal Consideration score than teachers who

were low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism. The third hypoth-

esis was also rejected in that teachers scoring low on bureaucracy and

low on professionalism had a significantly higher mean real Initiating

Structure score than the group scoring high on bureaucracy and low on

professionalism.

The fourth hypothesis was rejected for three separate comparisons

between group means, that is, three differences between group means

were found to be significant. The greatest difference in mean scores

on real Consideration occurred between the group scoring high on

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN LBDQ IDEAL AND REAL SCORES OF THE TEN SCHOOLS
ON THE INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION

School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Size	32	39	25	25	59	53	30	25	61	36
Mean	-3.41	-3.95	-11.96	-6.68	-2.92	-4.85	-2.83	-7.80	-12.67	-14.83
S. D.	5.82	6.55	10.37	8.55	5.97	7.33	7.30	5.83	8.84	8.96

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	9	7325.50	813.94	14.03[*]
Within Groups	375	21747.91	57.99	
Total	384	29073.41		

[*]$p < .01$

TABLE XV

SUMMARY DATA AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE DATA FOR DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN LBDQ IDEAL AND REAL SCORES OF THE TEN SCHOOLS
ON THE CONSIDERATION DIMENSION

School	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Size	32	39	25	25	59	53	30	25	61	36
Mean	0.22	0.46	-7.76	-7.24	-4.71	-9.49	-5.50	-6.28	-8.00	-8.50
S. D.	7.38	18.40	9.77	6.43	7.79	7.13	7.90	7.23	9.44	8.22

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Groups	9	4193.52	465.95	5.03^{*}
Within Groups	375	34767.13	92.71	
Total	384	38960.64		

*p $<$ .01

bureaucracy and high on professionalism and the group scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism. In each instance of a significant difference, the mean real Consideration score of the high group on perceived bureaucratization was higher than the mean of the low group on perceived bureaucratization.

The last two hypotheses were not rejected because no significant differences were found among group means. However, an analysis of variance to test for significant variation among schools in mean difference between ideal and real scores on the two dimensions yielded a significant F-value. This did indicate that significant variation occurred among schools and not among the four groups of the study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The first part of this final chapter contains a brief summary of
the research including the findings of the study. The second section
contains conclusions made from the findings as well as implications
drawn from those conclusions. The last part of the chapter focuses on
recommendations for further study.

Summary of the Study

The focus of this study was on the staff leadership role of the
principal as it is perceived by teachers categorized on the basis of
their professionalism and the perceived bureaucratization of their
schools. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine if
there is a difference in teachers' perceptions of the leadership behav-
ior of their principals when these teachers are grouped according to
the degree of their professionalism and the degree of perceived bureauc-
ratization of their schools. The measure for professionalism used in
this study was the Professional Orientation Scale. The measure for
bureaucratization that was used was the School Organizational Inventory.
The leadership behavior of the principal was measured by the Leader
Behavior Description Questionnaire.

The sample for this study was drawn from a population of all
teachers employed in Kansas high schools with a total of thirty or more

certified faculty members. The sample consisted of teachers from ten of these high schools selected at random. The measurement instruments for this study were administered to all teachers in each of the ten selected schools who had taught in that school at least one year. The total number of usable returns was 385. Each school population was then divided into two groups based on scores above and below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and each of these two groups was further subdivided into two groups above and below the median on the Professional Orientation Scale.

Group I consisted of teacher responses from all schools scoring below the median on both instruments. Group II consisted of those teacher responses from all schools scoring below the median on the School Organizational Inventory and above the median on the Professional Orientation Scale. Group III comprised those teacher responses from all schools scoring above the median on the School Organizational Inventory and below the median on the Professional Orientation Scale. The last group, Group IV, comprised those teacher responses from all schools scoring above the median on both instruments.

The following hypotheses were tested by means of a single classification analysis of variance to determine if significant differences existed among means of the four groups:

H. 1. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the ideal principal on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H. 2. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the ideal principal on the dimension of Consideration when

grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H. 3. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the real behaviors of their principal on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H. 4. Teachers will not differ significantly in their descriptions of the real behaviors of their principal on the dimension of Consideration when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H. 5. Teachers will not differ significantly in the amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of the principal's behavior on the dimension of Initiating Structure when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

H. 6. Teachers will not differ significantly in the amount of difference between ideal and real descriptions of the principal's behavior on the dimension of Consideration when grouped above and below the median on the degree of perceived bureaucratization of the school and their professionalization.

The first hypothesis was not rejected in that significant differences among the four group means did not exist. Thus, the four groups did not vary significantly in the way they described the behaviors of the ideal principal on the dimension of Initiating Structure.

The second hypothesis was rejected because a significant difference was found to exist between two group means. The group scoring

high on bureaucracy and high on professionalism had a significantly higher mean ideal Consideration score than the group scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism. A rank ordering of means indicated that the two groups scoring above the median on bureaucracy had higher mean ideal Consideration scores than the two groups scoring below the median on bureaucracy even though those differences were not significant.

The third hypothesis was rejected because a significant difference was also found to exist between two group means. The group scoring low on bureaucracy and low on professionalism had a significantly higher mean real Initiating Structure score than the group scoring high on bureaucracy and low on professionalism. The two groups scoring high on professionalism did not differ significantly from each other or from the two low professional groups.

The fourth hypothesis was rejected because three significant differences were found among group means. Both groups scoring high on bureaucracy (groups scoring high and low on professionalism) had mean real Consideration scores significantly higher than the group scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism. The group scoring high on both bureaucracy and professionalism also had a significantly higher mean real Consideration score than the group scoring low on both bureaucracy and professionalism. In each case of a significant difference between group means, the group which scored high on bureaucracy had a higher mean real Consideration score than the group which scored low on bureaucracy. Also, the greatest difference in means occurred between the two high professional groups.

The last two hypotheses were not rejected in that no significant differences among the group means existed. Since no significance in variation in the amount of difference between ideal and real scores was found among the four groups, a single classification analysis of variance was utilized to determine if significant variation in difference existed among the ten schools. The results indicated that a significant variation did exist among the ten schools on mean difference between ideal and real scores on both leadership dimensions.

Conclusions and Implications

Since the first hypothesis was not rejected, this seemed to indicate that teachers tend to describe their ideal principal on the Initiating Structure dimension the same regardless of their professional orientation or their perception of the degree of bureaucratization of the school. That is, if teachers do describe the ideal principal differently on the Initiating Structure dimension, this difference would be derived from factors other than their professionalism or the bureaucratization of their school.

Rejection of the second hypothesis as a result of one significant difference between groups scoring high on professionalism indicated that perhaps the way teachers describe the ideal principal on the Consideration dimension might differ depending on their perceptions of the bureaucracy of their school only when their professionalism is high. Considering the two high professional groups, when bureaucratization of the school was high, expectations of Consideration were highest.

This is basically supported by the literature in that high profes-
sionals tend to expect greater person orientation or Consideration than
low professionals and that this expectation will be greater if the
bureaucratic structure is perceived as rigid. The reason is that the
bureaucratic structure would interfere with professional autonomy. A
highly professional person in a low bureaucratic school may feel that
he can satisfy his professional needs without interference from the
bureaucratic structure of the organization; thus, he tends to expect
less Consideration from the principal.

Since the low professionals did not vary significantly from each
other or from the high professional groups, perhaps the low profession-
als' needs or expectations of Consideration from their ideal principal
are based on factors other than their professionalism or the bureaucra-
cy of their school. These data suggest that a teacher's image of the
ideal principal is not a constant, but depends on the situation in
which the teacher finds himself. This might be an indication that as
professionalism of the faculty increases and if bureaucratization of
the school increases, principals will be faced with greater expecta-
tions of Consideration.

Rejection of the third hypothesis as a result of a significant
difference between groups scoring low on professionalism would indicate
that teachers perceive their principals differently on the real Initi-
ating Structure dimension depending on their perceptions of the bureauc-
racy of their school only if their perceived professionalism is low.
The fact that the low professional, viewing the bureaucracy as rigid,
perceived the principal as low on Initiating Structure is difficult to
explain from a conceptual standpoint. The literature suggests that

when the bureaucratic structure of a school is perceived as rigid, the principal would be viewed as being high on the system orientation or Initiating Structure dimension of leadership.

Perhaps these findings indicate that low professionals do not necessarily see the principal as representing the bureaucratic structure of the school. That is, the low professional would tend to disassociate the Initiating Structure dimension of the principal's behavior from the bureaucratic organization. It may be that the low professional would tend to see increasing bureaucracy of the school as reducing the Initiating Structure of the principal.

The fact that the high professional groups did not vary between themselves or the low professional groups would tend to indicate that increasing professionalism of teachers reduces the effect that the bureaucratization of a school has on teachers' perceptions of the Initiating Structure of the principal.

Since the fourth hypothesis was rejected as a result of three significant differences among group means, a stronger relationship seemed to exist among teacher professionalization, school bureaucratization, and teacher perceptions of their principal's behavior on the real Consideration dimension than the other dimension.

The fact that the high professional, high bureaucratic structure group perceived their principal as higher on Consideration than the high professional, low bureaucratic structure group seems like a contradiction, from a conceptual standpoint. The reason for this is that the literature suggests that a high professional, with expertise and a need for individual autonomy, in a high bureaucratic structure would perceive a principal as low on Consideration because the bureaucratic

structure would interfere with professional autonomy. Thus, the prin-
cipal, having a role in this organizational structure, would be per-
ceived by the teachers as showing them low Consideration.

Moeller's study on bureaucracy and teachers' sense of power might
serve as a basis for an explanation of why teachers in the high profes-
sional, high bureaucratic structure group would perceive their princi-
pal as being high on Consideration. Moeller found that teachers' sense
of power increased with bureaucratization. He explained this by saying
that teachers who understood the bureaucratic procedures could use
those procedures to help them accomplish whatever they wanted. In
addition, bureaucratic rules and regulations served as a shield against
parents, students, and other groups that might threaten the status of a
teacher.[1]

Applying Moeller's explanation to the findings of this study, one
may speculate that teachers scoring high on professionalism would per-
ceive a principal as high on Consideration when the degree of bureauc-
ratization was high because adherence to bureaucratic characteristics
tended to shield the high professional teacher from threats to his
professional autonomy. As Moeller suggested, the possibility exists
that teachers may consider the major threats to their professionalism
or their autonomy to be from outside the organization and not from
within.

If this is true, the principal who stresses bureaucratic authority
and rules in support of teachers when their professional status is
threatened would be perceived as being high on Consideration. In

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[1]Gerald H. Moeller, "Bureaucracy and Teachers' Sense of Power,"
Administrator's Notebook, 11:3, November, 1962.

addition, when bureaucratic authority and rules are well established, teachers know what procedures must be followed to achieve their individual goals. In this way, the bureaucratic procedures could be the means of satisfying their needs; thus, they would view the principal as high on Consideration.

Application of Moeller's explanation to the findings of this study is further supported by the fact that in each case of significant differences between groups, the groups scoring high on bureaucracy (both high and low professional groups) had higher mean real Consideration scores than the group scoring low on bureaucracy and high on professionalism. In addition, the group scoring high on both bureaucracy and professionalism had higher mean real Consideration scores than the group scoring low on both measures. This would indicate that teachers see the principal high on Consideration when bureaucracy is high regardless of the level of professionalism, but that the difference between high bureaucratic groups is greater when professionalism is high. If this analysis of the findings of this study based on Moeller's explanation is correct, a principal wishing to improve teachers' assessments of his behavior on the Consideration dimension may find himself supporting and increasing rather than opposing or reducing bureaucratic structure in his school.

Failure to reject the last two hypotheses indicated that professionalism of teachers and bureaucratization of schools were not related to difference between ideal and real assessments of principals on the two leadership dimensions. It would seem to follow from this that changes in professionalism and bureaucratization would not necessarily change (increase or decrease) the amount of difference between ideal

and real behaviors of the principal on the two leadership dimensions.

As noted in the literature in Chapter II, teachers tend to have certain expectations of the principal and if those expectations coincide with the actual perceived behaviors of the principal, their level of satisfaction is high. On the other hand, if the expectations are different from the actual perceived behaviors of the principal, their level of satisfaction is low. Based on data concerning the last two hypotheses, the level of dissatisfaction caused by differences between ideal and real behaviors of the principal appears to be caused by factors other than teacher professionalism or bureaucratization of schools.

Since a significant variation in difference between ideal and real behaviors of the principal was found among the ten schools, a source of at least some systematic variation was identified. This seems to indicate that conditions in the individual schools caused teachers to perceive a difference between ideal and real behaviors of their principal. A logical source or cause of the variation could be the principals themselves. In other words, the principals themselves are the cause of the perceived difference between ideal and real behaviors and not the professional orientations of the teachers or the bureaucratic structure of the school.

In summary, it may be said that the relationship of teacher professionalism and school bureaucracy to the staff perceptions of the leadership behaviors of their principal is far from clear. With respect to the expected behaviors of the ideal principal, two conclusions were made. First, if teachers do describe the ideal principal differently on the Initiating Structure dimension, this difference would be derived from factors other than their professionalism or the

bureaucratization of their school. Second, when professionalism is high, teachers tend to expect greater Consideration if the bureaucracy of the school is rigid than when it is loose. As suggested in the literature, the apparent reason for this is that high professionals tend to expect greater person orientation or Consideration when they perceive the bureaucratic structure as rigid because the bureaucratic structure would interfere with their professional autonomy. Highly professional persons in a loose bureaucratic structure may feel that they can satisfy their professional needs without interference from the bureaucratic organization; thus, they tend to expect less Consideration from the principal. This tends to indicate that a teacher's image of the ideal principal is not a constant, but depends on conditions in which the teacher finds himself.

With respect to the real descriptions of the principal's behavior, several conclusions were made. When professionalism is low, teachers tend to perceive the principal as high on Initiating Structure if they view the bureaucracy of the school as low. A suggested reason is that the low professional tends to disassociate the Initiating Structure of the principal from the bureaucratic organization of the school.

The strongest relationship seemed to exist between teacher professionalism, school bureaucratization, and teacher perceptions of the principal's behavior on the real Consideration dimension. When professionalism is high, teachers tend to perceive the principal as showing greater Consideration if the bureaucracy of the school is rigid. The apparent reason seems to be that teachers tend to view the bureaucratic structure as facilitating to their professional needs because procedures to accomplish tasks are outlined. In addition, bureaucratic authority

and rules can be used to support the teachers' professional status.

When considering difference between ideal and real behaviors of the principal, one basic conclusion was made. That is, factors other than teacher professionalism or the bureaucratic structure of the school account for variation in difference between ideal and real principal behaviors on both leadership dimensions.

Recommendations for Further Study

One of the first possibilities of further research suggested by this study is a replication in the elementary school or in other sections of the country. Another possibility would be to conduct a similar study using different operational measures of the variables.

Another source of research might be a more detailed analysis of the professionalism of teachers and the bureaucracy of schools. Perhaps men teachers have a different concept of professionalism and bureaucracy than do women teachers. It may be that teachers' concepts of professionalism and bureaucracy change as they get older or as they earn more college credits.

A study of ideal and real bureaucratization might help shed light on the teachers' felt need for bureaucratic structure in the school. Perhaps one bureaucratic dimension might be more important to teachers than the other dimensions.

A study relating the School Organizational Inventory to another organizational measure such as the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire might provide further insight as to what factors are measured by the six dimensions of the School Organizational Inventory.

Another suggestion for research would involve isolating the source of variation in difference between ideal and real principal behaviors as perceived by the teachers in the individual schools. A possible source of the variation might be in how much teachers expected the principal to defend them against threats to their professional status.

In summary, the findings and conclusions of this study do not support the current educational literature concerning the conflict between the professionalism of teachers and the bureaucratization of schools. The leadership role of the principal may be closely tied to school bureaucratization, not separated from it, as far as teachers are concerned. In any event, more research could provide a clearer understanding of the relationship of the variables examined in this study.

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APPENDICES

THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER PERCEPTION

INVENTORY

Dissertation

Research Project

Oklahoma State University

Stillwater, Oklahoma

William J. Oborny
Research Director

Dr. Kenneth St. Clair
Committee Chairman

General Information

You are being asked to participate in this project by answering the enclosed questions on the answer sheet provided. We ask you to complete the biographical information and answer each question as honestly and frankly as possible.

We are indebted to you for your cooperation and plan to do everything possible to insure that your efforts will contribute to knowledge in the field of educational administration. Although your responses will become a part of the project data, they will remain strictly confidential.

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Andrew W. Halpin

Bureau of Business Research
College of Commerce and Administration
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
1957

SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL INVENTORY

D. A. Mackay and Norman Robinson

Department of Educational Administration
University of Alberta
Edmonton
1966

TEACHER ORIENTATION SCALE

Ronald G. Corwin

Cooperative Research Project Number 1934
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio
1966

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (IDEAL)

On the following pages a number of statements about your school are presented. Our purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are interested only in your frank opinion of them.

Instructions: Please respond to the items by describing the behavior of the "ideal" principal or the way you feel a principal should behave. Think about how frequently the ideal principal should engage in the behavior described by the item. Decide whether he Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, or Never should act as described by the item. Circle the letter representing the answer that you have selected.

1. He does personal favors for staff members.

2. He makes his attitudes clear to the staff.

3. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.

4. He tries out his new ideas with the staff.

5. He is easy to understand.

6. He rules with an iron hand.

7. He finds time to listen to staff members.

8. He criticizes poor work.

9. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.

10. He keeps to himself.

11. He looks out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.

12. He assigns staff members to particular tasks.

13. He schedules the work to be done.

14. He maintains definite standards of performance.

15. He refuses to explain his actions.

16. He acts without consulting the staff.

17. He backs up the staff members in their actions.

18. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.

19. He treats all staff members as his equals.

20. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.

21. He is willing to make changes.

22. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by staff members.

23. He is friendly and approachable.

24. He asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.

25. He makes staff members feel at ease when talking with them.

26. He lets staff members know what is expected of them.

27. He puts suggestions made by the staff into operation.

28. He sees to it that staff members are working up to capacity.

29. He gets staff approval in important matters before going ahead.

20. He sees to it that the work of staff members is coordinated.

SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL INVENTORY

Instructions: In this series of statements, you are asked to indicate how well each one describes the organizational characteristics of your school. For each statement, circle the answer on the answer sheet which you feel comes closest to describing your own school organization. The five possible choices are: Always True, Often True, Occasionally True, Seldom True, and Never True.

1. A person who wants to make his own decisions would quickly become discouraged in this school.

2. Rules stating when teachers arrive and depart from the building are strictly enforced.

3. The use of a wide variety of teaching methods and materials is encouraged in this school.

4. We are expected to be courteous, but reserved, at all times in our dealings with parents.

5. Staff members of this school always get their orders from higher up.

6. The time for informal staff get-togethers during the school day is strictly regulated by the administration.

7. In dealing with student discipline problems teachers are encouraged to consider the individual offender, not the offense, in deciding on a suitable punishment.

8. Staff members are allowed to do almost as they please in their classroom work.

9. The teacher is expected to abide by the spirit of the rules of the school rather than stick to the letter of the rules.

10. We are to follow strict operating procedures at all times.

11. The administration sponsors staff get-togethers.

12. Nothing is said if you get to school just before roll call or leave right after dismissal occasionally.

13. Going through proper channels is constantly stressed.

14. Teachers are encouraged to become friendly with groups and individuals outside the school.

15. There can be little action until an administrator approves a decision.

16. The teachers are constantly being checked for rule violations.

17. Teachers who have contact with parents and other citizens are instructed in proper procedures for greeting and talking with them.

18. The school has a manual of rules and regulations for teachers to follow.

19. Each staff member is responsible to an administrator to whom the member regularly reports.

20. A person can make his own decisions without checking with anyone else.

21. There is only one way to do the job--the Principal's way.

22. In dealing with student behavior problems the school has standard punishments for standard offenses regardless of the individual involved.

23. I have to ask the principal before I do almost anything.

24. No one can get necessary supplies without permission from the principal or vice-principal.

25. Written orders from higher up are followed unquestioningly.

26. The same procedures are to be followed in most situations.

27. Students are treated within the rules of the school, no matter how serious a problem they have.

28. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.

29. Teachers are expected not to leave their classroom without permission.

30. Whenever we have a problem, we are supposed to go to the same person for an answer.

31. No matter how special a pupil's or parent's problem appears to be, the person is treated the same way as anyone else.

32. Any decision I make has to have my superior's approval.

33. Red tape is often a problem in getting a job done in this school.

TEACHER ORIENTATION SCALE

Instructions: Following are sixteen statements about schools, teachers, and students. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by circling the appropriate response on the answer sheet which has been provided. The five possible choices are: Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

1. It should be permissible for the teacher to violate a rule if he/she is sure that the best interests of the students will be served in doing so.

2. Unless she is satisfied that it is best for the student, a teacher should not do what she is told to do.

3. A good teacher should not do anything that he believes may jeopardize the interests of his students regardless of who tells him or what the rules state.

4. Teachers should try to live up to what they think are the standards of their profession even if the administration or the community does not seem to respect them.

5. One primary criterion of a good school <u>should</u> be the degree of respect that it commands from other teachers around the state.

6. A teacher <u>should</u> try to put his standards and ideals of good teaching into practice even if the rules or procedures of the school prohibit it.

7. Teachers <u>should</u> subscribe to and diligently read the standard professional journals.

8. Teachers <u>should</u> be an <u>active</u> member of at least one professional teaching association, and attend most conferences and meetings of the association.

9. A teacher <u>should</u> consistently practice his/her ideas of the best educational practices even though the administration prefers other views.

10. A teacher's skill <u>should</u> be based primarily on his acquaintance with his subject matter.

11. Teachers <u>should</u> be evaluated primarily on the basis of their knowledge of the subject that is to be taught, and their ability to communicate it.

12. Schools <u>should</u> hire no one to teach unless he holds at least a 4-year bachelors degree.

13. In view of the teacher shortage, it <u>should</u> be permissible to hire teachers trained at non-accredited colleges.

14. A teacher <u>should</u> be able to make his own decisions about problems that come up in the classroom.

15. Small matters <u>should</u> <u>not</u> have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.

16. The ultimate authority over the major educational decisions should be exercised by professional teachers.

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (REAL)

Instructions: Read each item carefully. Think about how frequently your principal engages in the behavior described by the item. Decide whether he Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, or Never acts as described by the item. Draw a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

1. He does personal favors for staff members.

2. He makes his attitudes clear to the staff.

3. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.

4. He tries out his new ideas with the staff.

5. He is easy to understand.

6. He rules with an iron hand.

7. He finds time to listen to staff members.

8. He criticizes poor work.

9. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.

10. He keeps to himself.

11. He looks out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.

12. He assigns staff members to particular tasks.

13. He schedules the work to be done.

14. He maintains definite standards of performance.

15. He refuses to explain his actions.

16. He acts without consulting the staff.

17. He backs up the staff members in their actions.

18. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.

19. He treats all staff members as his equals.

20. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.

21. He is willing to make changes.

22. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by staff members.

23. He is friendly and approachable.

24. He asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.

25. He makes staff members feel at ease when talking with them.

26. He lets staff members know what is expected of them.

27. He puts suggestions made by the staff into operation.

28. He sees to it that staff members are working up to capacity.

29. He gets staff approval in important matters before going ahead.

30. He sees to it that the work of staff members is coordinated.

ANSWER SHEET

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (IDEAL)

A-Always   B-Often   C-Occasionally   D-Seldom   E-Never   Please circle
the appropriate response on the basis of the key provided above.

1. A B C D E	11. A B C D E	21. A B C D E
2. A B C D E	12. A B C D E	22. A B C D E
3. A B C D E	13. A B C D E	23. A B C D E
4. A B C D E	14. A B C D E	24. A B C D E
5. A B C D E	15. A B C D E	25. A B C D E
6. A B C D E	16. A B C D E	26. A B C D E
7. A B C D E	17. A B C D E	27. A B C D E
8. A B C D E	18. A B C D E	28. A B C D E
9. A B C D E	19. A B C D E	29. A B C D E
10. A B C D E	20. A B C D E	30. A B C D E

SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

AT-Always True   OFT-Often True   OCT-Occasionally True   ST-Seldom True
NT-Never True   Please circle the appropriate response on the basis
of the key provided.

1. AT OFT OCT ST NT	12. AT OFT OCT ST NT	23. AT OFT OCT ST NT
2. AT OFT OCT ST NT	13. AT OFT OCT ST NT	24. AT OFT OCT ST NT
3. AT OFT OCT ST NT	14. AT OFT OCT ST NT	25. AT OFT OCT ST NT
4. AT OFT OCT ST NT	15. AT OFT OCT ST NT	26. AT OFT OCT ST NT
5. AT OFT OCT ST NT	16. AT OFT OCT ST NT	27. AT OFT OCT ST NT
6. AT OFT OCT ST NT	17. AT OFT OCT ST NT	28. AT OFT OCT ST NT
7. AT OFT OCT ST NT	18. AT OFT OCT ST NT	29. AT OFT OCT ST NT
8. AT OFT OCT ST NT	19. AT OFT OCT ST NT	30. AT OFT OCT ST NT
9. AT OFT OCT ST NT	20. AT OFT OCT ST NT	31. AT OFT OCT ST NT
10. AT OFT OCT ST NT	21. AT OFT OCT ST NT	32. AT OFT OCT ST NT
11. AT OFT OCT ST NT	22. AT OFT OCT ST NT	33. AT OFT OCT ST NT

TEACHER ORIENTATION SCALE

SA-Strongly Agree A-Agree U-Undecided D-Disagree DS-Strongly Disagree   Please circle the appropriate response on the basis of the key provided above.

1. SA A U D SD	7. SA A U D SD	12. SA A U D SD
2. SA A U D SD	8. SA A U D SD	13. SA A U D SD
3. SA A U D SD	9. SA A U D SD	14. SA A U D SD
4. SA A U D SD	10. SA A U D SD	15. SA A U D SD
5. SA A U D SD	11. SA A U D SD	16. SA A U D SD
6. SA A U D SD		

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (REAL)

A-Always B-Often C-Occasionally D-Seldom E-Never   Please circle the appropriate response on the basis of the key provided above.

1. A B C D E	11. A B C D E	21. A B C D E
2. A B C D E	12. A B C D E	22. A B C D E
3. A B C D E	13. A B C D E	23. A B C D E
4. A B C D E	14. A B C D E	24. A B C D E
5. A B C D E	15. A B C D E	25. A B C D E
6. A B C D E	16. A B C D E	26. A B C D E
7. A B C D E	17. A B C D E	27. A B C D E
8. A B C D E	18. A B C D E	28. A B C D E
9. A B C D E	19. A B C D E	29. A B C D E
10. A B C D E	20. A B C D E	30. A B C D E

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Age (to the nearest year)   1._____

2. Sex (1=male, 2=female)   2._____

3. Formal Preparation Completed (Master's degree=1,   3._____
    Master's+16=2, Master's+30=3, Ed.S.=4, Ed.D.=5)

4. Experience in years (include this year)
    a. Total Teaching (0-5=1, 6-10=2, 11-15=3, 16+ =4)   4a._____
    b. In present position (0-1=1, 2-3=2, 4-6=3, 7+ =4)   4b._____

CRITICAL DIFFERENCE VALUES (R) AT THE .05
SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL FOR THE DUNCAN'S
NEW MULTIPLE RANGE TEST APPLIED TO
HYPOTHESES WITH SIGNIFICANCE

Comparison Range	Hypothesis II	Hypothesis III	Hypothesis IV
R_2	1.69	2.30	2.33
R_3	1.78	2.42	2.46
R_4	1.86	2.51	2.54

VITA

William Joseph Oborny

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR
PROFESSIONALISM, THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF SCHOOLS,
AND THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF THEIR PRINCIPALS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Durham, Kansas, October 30, 1934; parents -
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Marie.

Education: Attended elementary school at Merry-Go-Round Grade
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in 1948; received the Bachelor of Science degree from the
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Professional Experience: Secondary teacher at Tampa Rural High
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