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CONSENSUS OF OBSERVED LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS  
OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

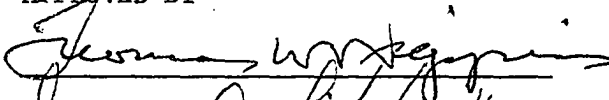
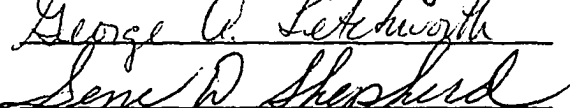
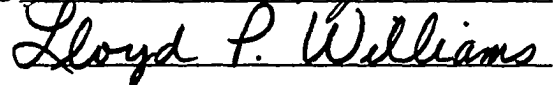
A DISSERTATION  
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degree of  
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

BY  
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Norman, Oklahoma

1970

CONSENSUS OF OBSERVED LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS  
OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

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CONSENSUS OF OBSERVED LEADER BEHAVIOR AND ROLE EXPECTATIONS  
OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The variety of expectations which are focused upon the elementary school principal today can hardly fail to produce conflicting situations for the individual in regard to his leader behavior. On the one hand he is expected by his faculty to see that certain conditions are met which will help to promote an atmosphere conducive to good learning on the part of the pupils. These expectations may or may not be congruent with the superintendent's desire that materials and equipment be used in an economic way. Other sources of possible conflicting expectations may be the parents of the pupils and his own personal role expectations.

The writer has observed that in many cases what the principal says he thinks he should do in regard to various aspects of his job is not congruent with his observed behavior. The principal may be entirely unaware that his behavior is perceived by others in this way and consequently may be regarded by others as rather hypocritical. On the other hand he may be fully aware that this difference exists and may justify it on the grounds that his behavior must also reflect the expectations others have for his role.

Statement of the Problem

The problem with which this investigation is concerned is:  
What relationship exists between the leader behavior of the elementary

school principal as perceived by his faculty and (1) his self-expectations, and (2) his perception of the expectations of his faculty.

### Review of Related Literature

A survey of studies relating to the topics of role perception, role expectations, role-conflict resolution and leader behavior revealed several studies with particular relevance to this investigation. The Ohio State Studies of Leadership at Ohio State University covered a ten year period. Leader behavior and group behavior were studied in military, business, and educational organizations and the results have been reported in a number of monographs and other publications. Most of the studies were concerned with describing individual and organizational behavior rather than evaluating it. The principal disciplines involved were economics, psychology, and sociology. In general the studies followed a paradigm in which leader behavior was the central factor as shown in Figure 1.

Hemphill and Coons<sup>1</sup> constructed the original form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and Halpin and Winer<sup>2</sup> in reporting an Air Force adaptation of this instrument identified Consideration and Initiating Structure as two major dimensions of leader behavior.

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<sup>1</sup>J. K. Hemphill and A. E. Coons, Leader Behavior Description (Columbus, Ohio: Personnel Research Board, Ohio State University, 1950).

<sup>2</sup>A. W. Halpin and B. J. Winer, The Leadership Behavior of the Airplane Commander. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Research Foundation, 1952 (Technical Report III prepared for Human Resources Research Laboratory, Dept. of the Air Force, under Contracts AF 33(038)-10105 and AF 18(600)-27 mimeographed.)

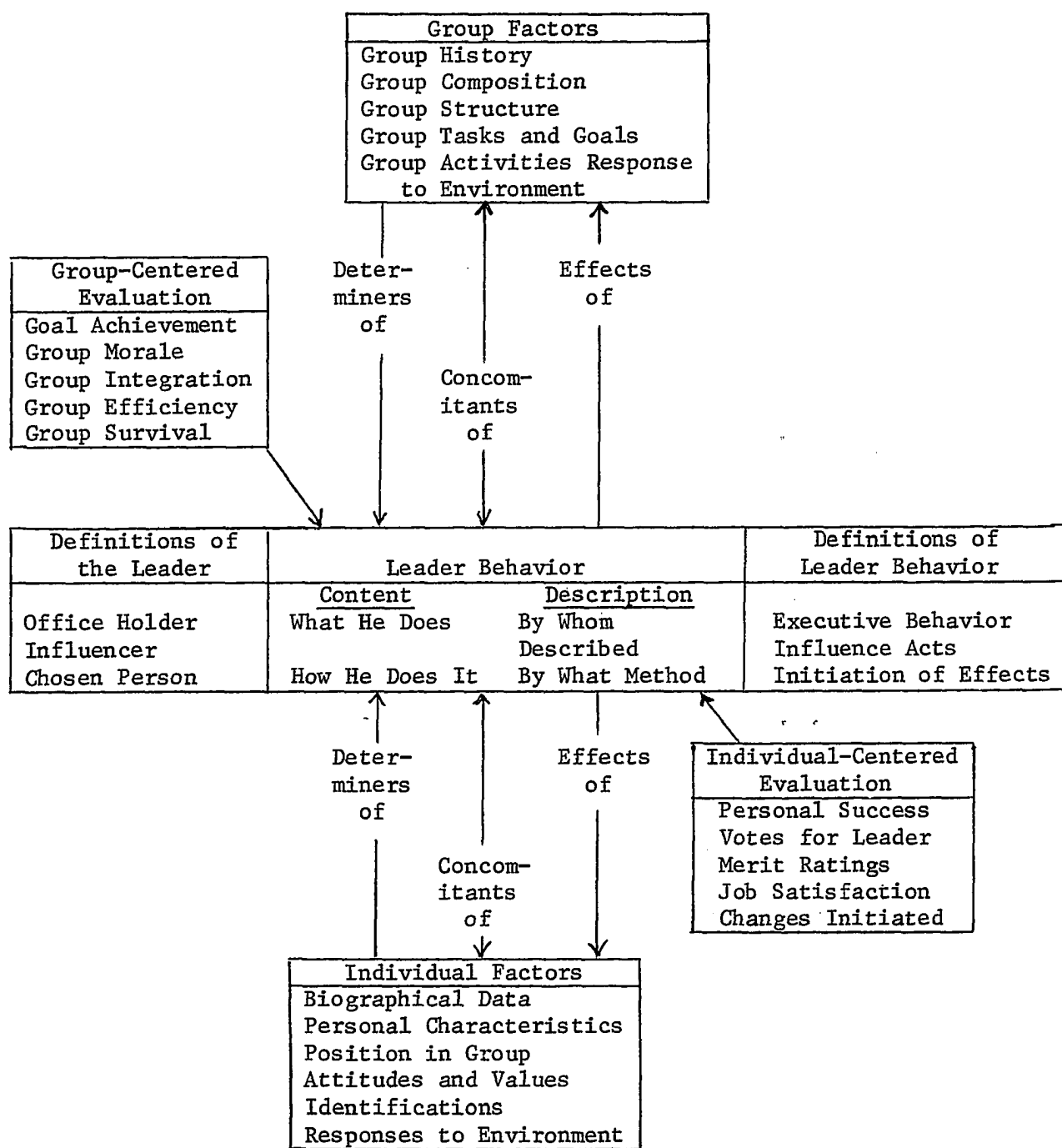


Fig. 1.--Paradigm for the study of leadership.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>R. M. Stogdill and A. E. Coons, Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. Bur. Bus. Res. Monograph 88, Ohio State University, 1957, p. 5.

Halpin<sup>1</sup> utilized the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire in a study of fifty Ohio school superintendents. He attempted to find the relationship between the superintendent's own perception of how he behaves and the board and staff perceptions of his behavior. In addition he looked at the corresponding relationships in regard to beliefs about how the principal should behave.

Staff respondents tended to agree in their description of the superintendent's behavior and board respondents tended to agree in their description of the superintendent's behavior. The two groups did not, however, agree with each other. The superintendents did not see themselves as either their boards or their staffs saw them in respect to the Consideration dimension. There was a significant correlation between the superintendent's self-perception and his staff's perception of his leader behavior in respect to the Initiating Structure dimension. The boards tended to perceive the superintendents' behavior as higher on both dimensions than either the superintendents themselves or their staffs perceived it.

There were significant differences between the boards and staffs about how the superintendent should behave in respect to Consideration. There was general agreement between the two groups on how much Initiating Structure the superintendent should show. All three groups characterize an ideal superintendent as one who scores high on both dimensions.

The superintendents believed they should show more Consideration

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<sup>1</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, "How Leaders Behave," Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools, ed. by Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni (New York: McGraw Hill, 1969), pp. 287-313.

than either the staffs or the boards. Both the staffs and the superintendents believe that the superintendent should show less Initiating Structure than did the boards. The perceived leadership behavior of the superintendents differed significantly from the ideal behavior of a superintendent according to each of the three groups.

Halpin's study<sup>1</sup> of 132 B-29 and B-50 aircraft commanders compared the air crews' description of their commanders' leader behavior with the commanders' description of how they felt they should behave. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Ideal), (LBDQ-I) and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Real), (LBDQ-R), were used to gather the information. A total of 1,103 questionnaires was completed by the crew members involved.

The correlation between the LBDQ-R and the LBDQ-I Consideration scores was .17. This barely achieved significance at the .05 level. The LBDQ-I and LBDQ-R Initiating Structure scores had a correlation coefficient of .14 which was not significant. Halpin concluded that the aircraft commander's belief about how he should behave as a leader has little relationship to how his crew perceives his leader behavior.

Latimer's study<sup>2</sup> was an attempt to identify certain behavior roles of the elementary school principal and to make comparisons between the principal's and faculty's perception as to the relative worth of the

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<sup>1</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, "The Leadership Ideology of Aircraft Commanders," Journal of Applied Psychology, XXXIX (April, 1955), pp. 82-84.

<sup>2</sup>Lowell Francis Latimer, The Role of the Elementary School Principal as Perceived by the Faculty and Principal Through Selected Role Behaviors, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at the University of North Dakota, 1966.

selected behaviors. Consideration was given to four major areas of principal responsibility: (1) improving the educational program; (2) selecting and developing personnel; (3) working with the community; and (4) managing the school.

A significant correlation was found between the principal's and teacher's valuations of behavior roles in each of the major areas except working with the community. Latimer concluded that the principal and his teachers are in general agreement in assessing the role of the principal in selected responsibility areas.

Gorton's study<sup>1</sup> at Stanford University in 1966 dealt with another aspect of role perception in that he also gathered data on the principal's perceptions of the expectations of his faculty and looked for a relationship between the principal's behavior as reported by his faculty and his perception of how he thought they expected him to act. The study was done with a sample of one hundred high school principals from selected California High Schools. Pearson product-moment correlational analysis on total scores revealed that the principals' personal role orientations and their perception of their faculty's expectations were significantly related to the principals' behavior.

Hunt<sup>2</sup> utilized the LBDQ-R and the LBDQ-I to study the expectations

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<sup>1</sup>Richard Arnold Gorton, Factors Which Are Associated With the Principal's Behavior in Encouraging Teacher Participation in School Decision Making, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at Stanford University, 1966.

<sup>2</sup>James Edmund Hunt, Expectations and Perceptions of the Leadership Behavior of Elementary School Principals, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at St. John's University, 1967.

and perceptions of the elementary school principal as seen by himself and his faculty. The leader behavior of fifty New York State elementary school principals was measured along the two dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure. The principal's behavior was measured with respect to these two dimensions by the LBDQ-R. The leader ideology of both the principal and his faculty was measured by the LBDQ-I.

The investigation sought to answer the question of what kinds of relationships exist between: (1) the principals' expectations for their own behavior and their staffs' expectations for the principal's behavior; (2) the principals' perception of their own behavior and the perception held by the faculties for the principals' behavior; (3) the expectations of the staffs for the principals' behavior and the perception by the staffs of the principals' behavior; and (4) the expectations of the principals for their own behavior and the principals' perception of their own behavior.

Analysis of the results did not show a significant difference between the expectations of the principal and his faculty on the Initiating Structure dimension. However, the mean level for the principal's expectations on the Consideration dimension was significantly higher than the staff's expectations. Although there was a considerable variation from school to school, when taken as a total group, the principals' perception of their own behavior was in agreement with the staff's perception of the principals' behavior. The staffs' expectations for the principals' behavior was higher than their perception of the principals' behavior on both dimensions. The same relationship was observed with the principals' expectations and the principals' self-perceptions.

Koch's study<sup>1</sup> investigated Executive Professional Leadership, which he defined as the effort of an executive of a professionally staffed organization to conform to a definition of his role that stresses his obligation to improve the quality of staff performance. The sample consisted of twenty-eight randomly selected elementary school principals who had participated in the program of educational administration at the University of Illinois. Perceptions of the principals' leader behavior were obtained from 377 teacher respondees via the Guba-Bidwell Teacher Behavior Questionnaire, Halpin's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, and the Measure of Executive Professional Leadership. Principals responded to a background data questionnaire and Fiedler's Least Preferred Colleague Description Questionnaire. Results based on correlating and comparing Executive Professional Leadership with ten variables of its possible determination and six variables utilized in past leadership studies included the following findings and conclusions: As the number of teachers to be supervised increases, the principal's Executive Professional Leadership score decreases. Lack of contact and thus communication may very well be an obstacle to the establishment of congruent expectations on the part of the principal and the teacher.

Cook<sup>2</sup> studied the relationships between the leadership behavior of elementary school principals and the organizational climate of the

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<sup>1</sup>David Frederick Koch, A Comparative Study of the Leader Behavior of Elementary School Principals, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at the University of Illinois, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>Edward Vance Cook, Leadership Behavior of Elementary School Principals and the Organizational Climate of the Schools Which They Administer, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at Rutgers - The State University, 1965.



schools they administer. The LBDQ and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire, (OCDQ), were used to gather the data. A sample of 303 teachers in twenty elementary schools responded to the two questionnaires.

An analysis of variance was used to test the hypotheses of no significant difference in mean scores on the Initiating Structure subtest and in mean scores on the Consideration subtest among groups of schools classified according to climate type. The analysis of variance was also used to test the hypotheses of no significant difference in the size of teaching staffs among the groups of schools classified according to climate.

Significantly higher Initiating Structure scores were found in the Controlled Climate schools than in any other climate. The Consideration mean score was significantly higher in the Open Climate than in any other climate. The mean size of teaching staff was significantly smaller in the Open Climate than any other climate and it was significantly larger in the controlled schools. Teachers in open schools were significantly older than any other climate.

Cook concluded that leadership behavior of elementary principals differs from situation to situation. Contributing factors to organizational climate may be the size of the school and the age of the teachers on the staff.

Robert E. Maxwell<sup>1</sup> tested the idea that the principal's concept

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<sup>1</sup>Robert Earl Maxwell, Leader Behavior of Principals: A Study of Ten Inner-City Elementary Schools of Flint, Michigan, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at Wayne State University, 1967.

of his behavior as a leader of a teaching staff is related to his behavior as perceived by his teaching staff which in turn affects the behavior of the teaching staff. He studied ten elementary principals and a selected sample of 129 teachers from ten Flint, Michigan elementary schools.

The teachers and principals completed the OCDQ and the teachers were also asked to complete the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory, (MTAI). The OCDQ subtest scores of Aloofness, Production Emphasis, Thrust, and Consideration were used as measures of the principal's leader behavior. The OCDQ subtest scores Disengagement, Hindrance, Esprit, and Intimacy were used to measure the teachers' behavior. Spearman's Rho was calculated to determine the value of relationships among the variables, with the t test used to test for significance at the  $p < .05$  level.

In Maxwell's study a significant relationship was not found between the principals' and teachers' perceptions of the principals' leader behavior. Aloofness perceived by the teachers in the principal's leader behavior was related in a negative direction to Intimacy perceived in the teaching staff's behavior, although this was not reported as significant. Data concerning pupil achievement was gathered from 1,373 sixth-grade pupils and a significant positive correlation was found between the Consideration perceived by the teachers in the principal's leader behavior and pupil achievement.

Trimble<sup>1</sup> used the LBDQ-R and the Decision-Making Involvement Instrument, (DMII), which he developed, to determine the relationship

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<sup>1</sup>Clifford Trimble, Teachers' Conceptions of Leadership Behavior of Principals as Related to Principal's Perception of His Involvement in the Decision-Making Process, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at Purdue University, 1967.

between the leader behavior of the elementary principal, as reported by his faculty, and the principal's perception of his involvement in making certain kinds of decisions. The DMII measured three dimensions of decision-making in personnel administration, Developmental, Implementive, and Evaluative. No significant relationship was found between either of the dimensions of the LBDQ and the principals' perception of the kinds of decisions they had to make. Teachers did score the principals significantly higher on the Consideration dimension than on the Initiating Structure dimension.

In Campbell's study<sup>1</sup> the leader behavior of forty instructional supervisors was described by 356 teachers. The situational setting in which the leader behavior took place was also described by the teachers. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which relationships exist between the situational factors described and the behavior dimensions of Consideration and Initiating Structure.

Number of years of classroom experience of the supervisor was significantly related to the behavioral dimension of Consideration. Campbell concluded that teachers value highly those behavioral actions of supervisors which tend to signify warmth, mutual trust, friendship, and respect.

#### Definition of Terms

The terms to be used in this study are in rather general use throughout the literature, however, for the sake of clarity, certain of

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<sup>1</sup>Ona Lee Campbell, The Relationships Between Eight Situational Factors and High and Low Scores on the Leadership Behavior Dimensions of Instructional Supervisors, A Doctoral Dissertation Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate College at North Texas State College, 1961.

the terms will be defined.

Position--Position refers to a general location within a social system. Examples of a position would be teachers, lawyers, physicians, businessmen, mothers, or children.

Role--Role is defined as a set of standards, descriptions, norms, or concepts held for the behaviors of an actor or a position.

Role Expectation--Role expectation refers to the anticipated behavior of an actor in a role or position.

Role Perception--Role perception may be either perception by the actor of his own behavior or perception of the actor's behavior by others.

Actor--An actor is the person who is the object of study in a particular role or position.

Other--The term other refers to individuals whose behavior is not the main object of study but whose behavior is related in some way to the actor or actors being studied.

Consensus--Consensus is a term which refers to agreement between two or more sets of role perceptions or role expectations. It is a sameness of opinion.

Role-Conflict--As the name suggests, role-conflict refers to the ambivalence an actor feels because of exposure to real or assumed conflicting behavior expectations. The actor experiences difficulty in choice of responses to apparently conflicting demands from two or more sources.

Role-Conflict Resolution--Role-conflict resolution refers to the process through which an actor attempts to resolve, minimize, or avoid an apparent incompatibility in role expectations.

Sanction--This term is used to describe behavior by a group or an

individual which is designed to reward or punish others for failure to perform according to certain expectations. The possibility of sanctioning behavior on the part of others may have a direct bearing on the direction of role-conflict resolution.

Thomas and Biddle<sup>1</sup> present a comprehensive discussion of the common terms used in role theory over the years. They discuss the evolution of the language of role theory, pointing out that it was not until the decade of the 1930's that the term "role" was used to designate a technical concept by the writers on role theory. Mead, Moreno, and Linton are mentioned as theorists who made a significant contribution to the language of role theory during this period.

It wasn't until after World War II, however, that extensive use of role related terms appeared in the titles of empirical studies. Evidence of this may be found by examining the major index categories of Psychological Abstracts. Although this journal first appeared in 1927, it was not until 1944 that "role playing" appeared as a major index category; "role" itself did not appear as such a category until 1945, and "sex role" not until 1959.<sup>2</sup>

Although there has been a progressive refining of terms used in role theory in this relatively short period of time, the authors believe that much remains to be done in clarifying concepts. They took nineteen of the terms and concepts used most frequently in studies of role and compared their common language meanings with selected meanings in role theory. The technical meaning and the popular meanings

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<sup>1</sup>E. J. Thomas and Bruce J. Biddle, "The Nature and History of Role Theory," Role Theory: Concepts and Research, ed. by E. J. Thomas and Bruce J. Biddle (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966), pp. 3-19.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 7.

were not always identical and in some cases the same term was used to refer to more than one concept.

In analyzing the results of the literature reviewed it can be concluded that the school principal is at the focal point of a variety of expectations from different groups. These sets of expectations may or may not be in agreement with each other, but the literature in the field of role and role behavior suggests that the principal will select a course of behavior which seems to be most likely to minimize a conflict, whether it be real or imagined.

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The concept of role has a variety of definitions, depending on the point of view of the author. Many of these differences are merely semantic. They arise because different words are used to define the same sets of actions, behaviors, or prescriptions. For example, what Linton and Newcomb define as a role, Davis defines as a status. What Davis defines as a role, Newcomb calls role behavior and Sarbin calls role enactment.<sup>1</sup> The reader in the field of role theory must be careful to determine how terms are defined by the author.

Linton<sup>2</sup> refers to the term "ideal patterns." These ideal patterns represent the consensus of opinion on the part of members of a society as to how people should act in particular situations. He also makes it clear that the extent to which these ideal patterns are developed varies greatly from culture to culture. Further, even a cursory observation reveals a rather common lack of agreement between the ideal pattern and actual behavior of the role incumbent. Linton suggests that this is because of the failure of the ideal pattern to keep pace with the realities of a changing culture.

Carr<sup>3</sup> uses a definition of role as a specific pattern of

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<sup>1</sup>Neal Gross, Ward Mason, and Alexander McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Ralph Linton, Cultural Background of Personality (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1945), p. 53.

<sup>3</sup>Lowell J. Carr, Situational Analysis (New York: Harpers, 1948), pp. 32-33.

attitude and behavior which one assumes for a specific situation. Social maturation in any culture is the process of acquiring the "proper behavior patterns." Part of growing up is gaining a knowledge of the social role to be assumed in various kinds of situations. It would seem that one aspect of education is developing in the young a repertoire of social roles.

Getzels and Guba refer to role as being the most important subunit of the institution. Roles are the structural elements defining the behavior of the role incumbent or actor.

1. They represent positions, offices, or statuses within the institution.
2. A role has certain rights and responsibilities which may be termed "role expectations." When the role incumbent puts the rights and responsibilities into effect he is said to be performing his role. The expectations define for the actor, whoever he may be, what he should do as long as he is the incumbent of that particular role.
3. Roles are institutional givens. That is, the role expectations are formulated without reference to any specific individual. The expectations may be misperceived, but they nevertheless serve as blueprints and guides for what should be done.
4. Behaviors associated with a role may be thought of as lying along a continuum from required to prohibited. Between these extremes lie certain other behaviors which, although they may be slightly disapproved, are at least permitted. This flexibility makes it possible for role incumbents with different personalities



to fulfill the same role.

5. Roles are complementary. They are interdependent to the degree that each derives its meaning from other related roles. This makes it possible for us to conceive of an institution as having a characteristic structure.<sup>1</sup>

Brookover, in his research done with teacher and administrator roles, assumes that behavior involving role and role taking is meaningful only in a social interaction situation. He believes that role expectations of others are varied in interaction with others in the particular situation.

One of the significant characteristics of behavior in interaction with others is that it is always in process; it is not fixed or static. It may involve continuous redefinition of both the role expectations and the actor's perception of those expectations as interaction between the actor and others occurs.<sup>2</sup>

It seems reasonable to assume that the degree to which an individual's behavior is influenced as a result of interaction in a group is determined by the individual's involvement in that group whose expectations are being considered. In addition, the accuracy of the actor's perception of the group expectations may have a bearing on any modification of his behavior.

Studies conducted by Foskett at the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration were designed to provide information on how the elementary school teacher and the elementary school

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

<sup>2</sup>Wilbur B. Brookover and David Gottlieb, A Sociology of Education (New York: American Book Company, 1964), p. 324.

principal view their own positions and their perception of the views of others.

From a sociological perspective there are two basic dimensions to the conception that individuals have of their position in a given social system. One dimension consists of what the individual himself regards as proper behavior and the other dimension consists of the perception he has of the views of relevant others regarding proper conduct for one in his position.<sup>1</sup>

He goes on to say that the way of acting we come to accept for ourselves is partly a result of the internalization of what we think others expect of us. If this be true, then the importance of making an accurate perception of the views of those to whose views we attach significance can hardly be overestimated.

The conceptual paradigm shown in Figure 2 shows the relationship between role behavior, role perception, need disposition, self-involvement, and related concepts that have been used in role theory.<sup>2</sup>

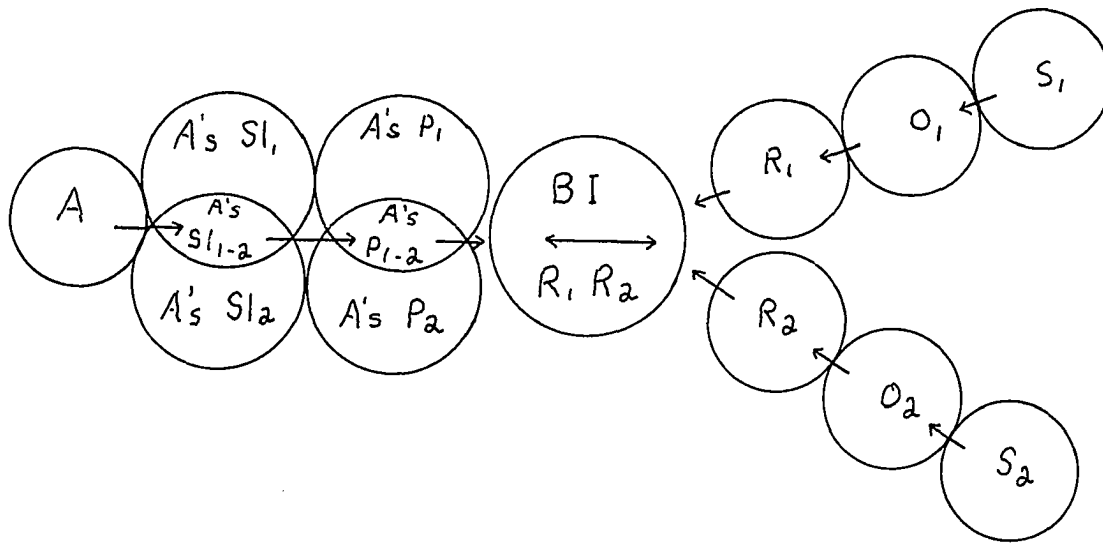
An actor's behavior in a specific role is influenced by other's expectations according to the actor's perception of those expectations. His perception of other's expectations may, in turn, be influenced by his own self-involvement in the group.<sup>3</sup> If an individual perceives that those whose views are important to him have the same normative views that he holds this will tend to support his views and strengthen his present behavior. Conversely, the individual may be tempted to

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<sup>1</sup>John M. Foskett, The Normative World of the Elementary School Principal (Eugene, Oregon: Univ. of Oregon Press, 1967), p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>Brookover and Gottlieb, A Sociology of Education, p. 325.

<sup>3</sup>Wilbur B. Brookover, "Research on Teacher and Administration Roles," Journal of Educational Sociology, (Sept., 1955), pp. 2-13.



- A = Actor's personality brought to a situation (previous experiences, needs, et cetera).  
 SI = Self-involvement - Actor's image of the ends anticipated from participation in the status. A projection of his self-image into the role.  
 P = Actor's perception of what he thinks others expect of him in a particular role.  
 R = Other's expectations of Actor A. The incumbent in a specific situation.  
 O = Other's expectations of any actor in a specific situation.  
 S = Other's expectations of any actor in a broadly defined position.  
 BI = Behavior in interaction with others in which P and R are constantly reevaluated and redefined.

Fig. 2.--Paradigm showing various aspects of role behavior.<sup>1</sup>

change his own views or behavior if he perceives that those whose views have significance for himself or his position hold conflicting views. It follows that when one's perceptions of the views of others are accurate, any modification of one's own views or behavior will probably lead to more effective relationships. On the other hand, if perceptions of the views of others are inaccurate, then modification of behavior to

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

fit the misperception will in all likelihood lead to conflict.

When individuals first come together as a group, their expectations may or may not be similar but there is one condition which can reasonably be assumed: They will not know what the expectations of the others are. As they perceive the expectations which are held by those with whom they interact, their own expectations may be modified.<sup>1</sup>

Many, if not all, researchers in the area of role perception and role behavior agree that an individual's behavior is influenced both by role expectations and by his own personality needs. To understand behavior it simply is not enough to know the nature of the roles and role expectations. We must also know the nature of the individuals inhabiting the roles and reacting to the expectations. The individual and the institution also exist in a culture with attendant prescriptions and values. Figure 3 represents graphically the nomothetic and idiographic dimensions of a given act as perceived by Getzels.<sup>2</sup> The model helps us to identify a possible source of several types of conflict.

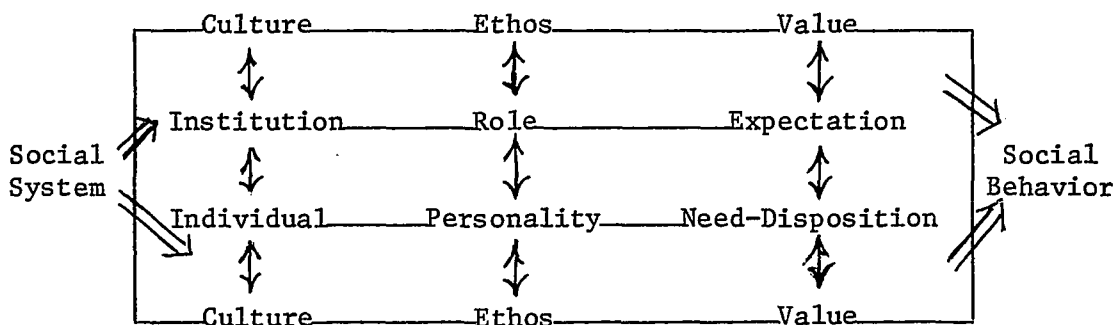


Fig. 3.--Nomothetic and idiographic dimension of social behavior in a cultural society.

<sup>1</sup>Gross, Mason, and McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis, p. 176.

<sup>2</sup>Jacob W. Getzels, "Conflict and Role Behavior in the Educational Setting," Society and Education, ed. by Robert J. Havighurst, Bernice L. Neugarten, and Jacqueline M. Falk (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1967), pp. 311-319.

Probably the most obvious kind of conflict is between the expectations of the institution and the values of the culture in which the institution exists. For example the school may value intellectual ability, academic achievement, creativity, and independence as important whereas the culture may prize ease and social interaction as most important.

Conflicts between role expectations and personality dispositions may be quite common. This would be the kind of situation where an administrator is expected to act in an authoritarian manner by the superintendent and his own pattern of needs are more nearly congruent with a permissive style of behavior. The individual is faced with a decision as to whether he will try to fulfill individual needs or institutional requirements.

A third source of conflict may be brought about because of contradictory or inconsistent role expectations. This may arise because of disagreements within a particular reference group as when members of a faculty are not agreed on how the principal should behave. Two or more reference groups may have conflicting expectations for the principal as when the community expects certain kinds of behavior on the part of the principal and his faculty holds conflicting expectations. This kind of role conflict would also be found in the case of the principal who is trying to occupy two or more roles with contradictory expectations.

A fourth source of conflict may be seen when the individual has opposing needs from within himself. This may cause him to misperceive expectations placed on him.

Getzels further points out that role expectations and need dispositions are very seldom, if ever, in complete agreement and as a consequence there cannot help but be a certain amount of strain or conflict for the institution and for the individual.

The unique task of administration, at least with respect to staff relations is just this: to integrate the demands of the institution and the demands of the staff members in a way that is at once organizationally productive and individually fulfilling.<sup>1</sup>

Role conflicts occur whenever a role incumbent is required or expected to conform to a number of expectations which are contradictory or at least inconsistent with each other. When placed in a conflicting situation an individual may attempt to resolve it in a number of ways but it is unlikely that the conflicting demands can be met to the satisfaction of all reference groups. The actor may attempt to give equal attention to both roles or he may choose one as his most significant frame of reference. In all likelihood he will choose as his primary role the one that is most nearly congruent with his own need dispositions. Nevertheless he must also consider the consequences of this course of action. There might be another course of action with greater legitimacy of expectations.

In a role conflict situation the sufficient conditions for role effectiveness are the congruence of personality needs and role expectations and the choice of the major role that has the most legitimate expectations.<sup>2</sup>

Bidwell sees the school administrator and the teachers as

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<sup>1</sup>Getzels and Guba, "Social Behavior," p. 430.

<sup>2</sup>J. W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Role, Role Conflict, and Effectiveness: An Empirical Study," American Sociological Review, XIX (April, 1954), p. 173.

participating in a system of reciprocal role expectations.<sup>1</sup> When the teachers see the administrator behaving in a way that is not compatible with role expectations they will be unable to predict accurately the behavior of their administrator and thus will be unable to act effectively toward the administrator. Teachers may then attempt to exert negative sanctions against the administrator.

### Leader Behavior

If leadership is defined as the kind of behavior that an actor engages in for the purpose of changing another person's behavior or for the purpose of altering the behavior of a group, then a discussion of leader effectiveness necessitates that attention be given to styles of leader behavior.

Ross and Hendry<sup>2</sup> concluded that an adequate description of leader behavior must take into account personal traits of leaders, interaction in groups, and the demands of the situation. Fiedler's theory<sup>3</sup> of leader behavior postulates two major styles of leadership. One is primarily a task-oriented leadership style which is directed toward performing the task. The other is directed toward achieving good interpersonal relations. The task-oriented style of leadership

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<sup>1</sup>Charles E. Bidwell, "The Administrative Role and Satisfaction in Teaching," Journal of Educational Sociology, XXIX (Sept., 1955).

<sup>2</sup>Murry G. Ross and Charles E. Hendry, "Three Theories of Leadership," The Government of Associations, ed. by William A. Glasser and David L. Sills (Totowa, New Jersey: The Bedminster Press, Inc., 1966), p. 87.

<sup>3</sup>Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw Hill, 1967), p. 13.

seems to be more effective in group situations which are either very favorable for the leader or very unfavorable for the leader whereas the relationship oriented style is more favorable in situations which are intermediate in favorableness for the leader.

McGrath,<sup>1</sup> in reviewing the literature in the field of leader behavior, has noted that leadership style can be separated generally into two major groups. One group has been given labels such as authoritarian, task-oriented, autocratic, and initiating as opposed to democratic, equalitarian, permissive, and considerate for the other group. While this may be an oversimplification, this investigator believes that observations of individuals placed in varying types of situations will reveal a combination of these types of leader behavior.

The elementary school principal is very likely to find himself facing a variety of situations, not only as he is assigned from one school to another, but as he faces different groups during the course of a school day. For example, working effectively with a group from the local P.T.A. unit may require a leadership style quite different from that required to work effectively with his faculty in improving the instructional program. The demands of the situation, the goals toward which the group is working, the facilities available, and the size of the group with which the principal is working are but a few of the factors which serve as determiners of leader behavior.

### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are to be formulated and tested:

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<sup>1</sup>J. E. McGrath, A Summary of Small Group Research Studies, HSR-TN-6 2/3-GN, (Arlington, Va: Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1962).



Ho<sub>1</sub> There is a positive relationship between the self-expectations of the elementary school principal and his leader behavior as perceived by his faculty.

Ho<sub>2</sub> There is a positive relationship between the leader behavior of the elementary school principal as perceived by his faculty and his perception of the expectations of his faculty.

Ho<sub>3</sub> There is a positive relationship between the elementary school principal's self-expectations and his perception of the expectations of his faculty.

Ho<sub>4</sub> There is a positive relationship between the size of the elementary school faculty and the correlation between the principal's self-expectations and his leader behavior as perceived by his faculty.

Ho<sub>5</sub> There is a positive relationship between the size of the elementary school faculty and the correlation between the principal's perception of his faculty's expectations and his leader behavior as viewed by his faculty.

Ho<sub>6</sub> There is a positive relationship between the size of the elementary school faculty and the correlation between the principal's self-expectations and his perception of the expectations of his faculty.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

#### Design of the Study

The study was designed to investigate the relationship that exists between the leader behavior of the elementary school principal as viewed by his faculty and (1) his self-expectations, and (2) his perception of the expectations of his faculty. An ancillary purpose was to investigate the influence of school size, in terms of number of faculty members, on the magnitude and direction of the relationship. It was believed that an investigation of this nature would contribute, at least in a small way, to the study of role, role perception, and leader behavior.

One of the major considerations regarding the design of the investigation involved the selection of a population and sample. The Oklahoma City Public School System was selected as the population because it seemed desirable to conduct the study in a large metropolitan school system. The rationale for this decision was based on the assumption that the administrative organization should be the same in each of the schools selected. The selection of a single school system made this possible. In addition it was believed that the elementary principals in the system chosen enjoyed a great degree of autonomy with regard to leader behavior.

#### Selection of Sample

There are eighty-seven elementary schools in the Oklahoma City Public School System. Each of these schools has a full time supervising principal. The number of faculty members varies from five to thirty-six.

Since school size was an independent variable in the investigation, the eighty-seven schools were divided into three groups designated as small, medium, and large. This provided for the selection of a stratified-random sample.

For the purposes of the present study a small school was defined as one with twelve or fewer faculty members, a medium-size school as one having from thirteen to twenty faculty members, and a large school as one with twenty-one or more faculty members. From each of the three groups a random sample of ten principals was selected, utilizing a method of sampling described by Downie and Heath as stratified-random sampling.<sup>1</sup> A table of random digits developed by Wineburg and Schumaker<sup>2</sup> was utilized in the sample selection. From the faculty of the schools served by each of the principals selected a random sample of five faculty members was drawn and asked to respond to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Real), (LBDQ-R). Since the unit of analysis for this study was the elementary school principal, the mean score on the LBDQ-R taken by the five faculty members was considered to be the observed behavior score of the principal.

#### The Instruments

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, (LBDQ), is an instrument developed by the Ohio State University Personnel Research Board to provide a technique whereby group members may describe the

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<sup>1</sup>N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods (New York: Harper & Row, 1965), pp. 120-121.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

leader behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. There are two forms of the questionnaire; the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Real), (LBDQ-R), (Appendix B), and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Ideal), (LBDQ-I), (Appendix B). The LBDQ-R contains forty items, each of which describes a specific way in which a leader may behave. It measures observed behavior. The LBDQ-I contains exactly the same forty items as the LBDQ-R, only the directions of administration differ. With the LBDQ-R the subject is asked to describe the behavior of the leader being studied, but with the LBDQ-I the subject is asked to indicate how he thinks the leader ought to behave. The LBDQ-I is constructed to measure expected rather than observed behavior.

The items are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior identified by Halpin and Winer<sup>1</sup> as Initiating Structure and Consideration. Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationships between the leader and members of the group.

Respondents are asked to indicate the frequency with which they perceive the leader to engage in each type of behavior by marking one of five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom, never. For each dimension the scores are then averaged to yield an index of the leader's

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin and Winer, Leadership Behavior.

behavior in regard to that dimension. The estimated reliability by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiating Structure scores and .92 for the Consideration scores, when corrected for attenuation.<sup>1</sup>

#### Procedures for the Study

Permission to conduct the study was granted by the Research Committee of the Oklahoma City Public Schools. (See Appendix A.) Each of the principals and teachers selected was contacted personally by the investigator and the questionnaires were explained. All who were contacted agreed to participate since the subjects were assured that no individual would be identified by name when the results were reported.

Each principal was given two copies of the LBDQ-I. Directions on the first copy asked the respondent to indicate how he felt he should act in regard to each of the items. Directions on the second copy asked the respondent to indicate how he felt his faculty expected him to act in regard to each of the items. It was believed that filling out the questionnaire in this order would lessen the possibility of responses to the first questionnaire influencing the responses to the questionnaire taken last.

The selected teachers were given a copy of the LBDQ-R and asked to indicate their perception of the principal's leader behavior. Each LBDQ-R answer sheet was then scored on each of the two dimensions and the scores from the several teachers were averaged separately by dimension to secure the principal's Initiating Structure and Consideration scores as perceived

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<sup>1</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, Manual of Administration for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1957), p. 1.

by the teachers.

### Statistical Procedures

The data gathered from the questionnaire was plotted on a scattergram and examined for linearity and homoscedasticity. These conditions were met and a Pearson product-moment correlation was obtained between:

1. The observed leader behavior of the principal and the principal's personal role expectations on each of the dimensions.
2. The observed leader behavior of the principal and the principal's perception of his faculty's expectations on each of the dimensions.
3. The personal expectation of the principal and the principal's perception of his faculty's expectations on each of the dimensions.

These correlations were obtained for the small schools, the medium-size schools, and the large schools, yielding a total of eighteen correlation coefficients.

The significance of the Pearson  $r$ 's was determined using a method described by Downie and Heath.<sup>1</sup> Using a table for values of  $r$  for different levels of significance, a correlation of .632 is required for significance at the  $p < .05$  level with 8 degrees of freedom.

Fisher's  $Z$  transformation<sup>2</sup> was used to test the difference between the correlation coefficients derived from the uncorrelated data. The correlations were changed into Fisher's  $Z$  statistic by the use of a table constructed by F. P. Kilpatrick and D. A. Buchanan. This table is

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<sup>1</sup>Downie and Heath, Basic Statistical Methods, pp. 155-56.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 156.

reprinted in Basic Statistical Methods by Downie and Heath.<sup>1</sup> The standard error of the difference between the resulting Z's was then found and tests of the difference between Z's were made.

To test the influence of school size when the variables observed behavior and principal's personal role expectations were considered, a 3 (school size) x 2 (observed behavior, personal role expectations) x 2 (consideration, initiating structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions was performed.

To test the influence of school size when the variables observed behavior and principal's perception of his faculty's expectations were considered, a 3 (school size) x 2 (observed behavior, perception of faculty expectations) x 2 (consideration, initiating structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions was performed.

To test the influence of school size when the variables, personal role expectations and perception of faculty expectations were considered, a 3 (school size) x 2 (personal role expectations, perception of faculty expectations) x 2 (consideration, initiating structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions and repeated measures over the personal expectations and perception of faculty expectations was performed.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 307.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presents the data and resulting analysis of the data concerning the observed leader behavior of the thirty elementary school principals involved in the study, the principals' personal role expectations, and the principals' perceptions of their faculties' expectations. The data were obtained from questionnaires completed by each of the thirty principals and from questionnaires completed by a random sample of five faculty members from each of the thirty schools involved.

The faculty members of each school completed an LBDQ-R describing their principal's leader behavior. The questionnaires were scored on two dimensions, Consideration and Initiating Structure. The two dimension subscores from each faculty member were added and the mean of each was taken as the principal's observed behavior on that dimension.<sup>1</sup>

Each principal completed two copies of the LBDQ-I. The two copies were identical except the directions on one copy asked the principal to indicate how he thought he should behave and the directions on the other copy asked the principal to indicate how he thought his faculty expected him to behave.

Appendix C of this study presents the raw scores from the questionnaire which were utilized in the statistical analysis. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed between the observed leader

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin, Manual of LBDQ, p. 2.



behavior of the elementary school principals (OB) and the principals' personal role expectations (PE), between the observed leader behavior of the elementary principals and the principals' perceptions of their faculties' expectations (PFE), and between the principals' personal role expectations and the principals' perceptions of their faculties' expectations.

Table 1 contains the computed correlation coefficients for each group of schools (small, medium, and large). Each coefficient is assigned a cell number which will be referred to in reporting tests of the difference between correlation coefficients.

TABLE 1  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN OBSERVED BEHAVIOR, PERSONAL  
EXPECTATIONS, AND PERCEPTION OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS

SCHOOL SIZE						
	Small		Medium		Large	
	C	IS	C	IS	C	IS
OB* Vs. PE**	<u>111</u> .492	<u>112</u> -.582	<u>211</u> .513	<u>212</u> .428	<u>311</u> -.013	<u>312</u> .407
OB Vs. PFE***	<u>121</u> .610	<u>122</u> .732	<u>221</u> -.163	<u>222</u> .223	<u>321</u> -.190	<u>322</u> -.659
PE Vs. PFE	<u>131</u> .257	<u>132</u> .148	<u>231</u> -.231	<u>232</u> -.190	<u>331</u> .639	<u>332</u> -.419

\* = Observed Behavior  
\*\* = Personal Expectations  
\*\*\* = Perception of Faculty Expectations

C = Consideration  
IS = Initiating Structure

The size of  $r$  needed to be significant at the  $p < .05$  level with 8 degrees of freedom is .632.<sup>1</sup> In the small schools the correlation between OB and PE was .492 for the Consideration dimension and -.582 for the Initiating Structure dimension. Neither of these was significant at the  $p < .05$  level. The common factor variance (coefficient of determination) was calculated by squaring the correlation coefficients, yielding a common factor variance of 24 percent for the Consideration dimension and 34 percent for the Initiating Structure dimension.<sup>2</sup>

The correlation between OB and PFE for the small schools was a little larger than between OB and PE with .610 for the Consideration dimension and .732 for the Initiating Structure dimension. The correlation of .732 was significant at the  $p < .05$  level. The shared variance for the Consideration dimension was 37 percent. The shared variance for the Initiating Structure dimension was 54 percent.

Correlation coefficients between PE and PFE for the small schools were small in both dimensions. The squared coefficients gave a shared variance of only 7 percent for the Consideration dimension and 2 percent for the Initiating Structure dimension.

In the medium size schools no significant correlation coefficients were found in either dimension (see Table 1). The highest correlations were between OB and PE for the Consideration dimension ( $r = .513$ ,  $p > .05$ ), and between OB and PE for the Initiating Structure dimension ( $r = .428$ ,  $p > .05$ ). The resulting shared variances were 26 percent for Consideration

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<sup>1</sup>Downie and Heath, Basic Statistical Methods, p. 306.

<sup>2</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967), p. 112.

and 18 percent for Initiating Structure.

Large school correlation coefficients were significant in two cells (see Table 1). The correlation between OB and PFE for the Initiating Structure dimension was, surprisingly, significant in a negative direction ( $r = -.659$ ). The common factor variance of 43 percent means that almost half of the variance was accounted for by the relationship between OB and PFE.

The correlation between PE and PFE for the Consideration dimension was only slightly less significant ( $r = .639$ ). The shared variance was 41 percent between PE and PFE when Consideration was considered.

To test the difference between the correlation coefficients

TABLE 2

FISHER'S Z TRANSFORMATION OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN  
OBSERVED BEHAVIOR, PRINCIPALS' PERSONAL EXPECTATIONS, AND  
PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTION OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS

SCHOOL SIZE						
	Small		Medium		Large	
	C	IS	C	IS	C	IS
OB* Vs. PE**	<u>111</u> .536	<u>112</u> -.662	<u>211</u> .570	<u>212</u> .460	<u>311</u> .015	<u>312</u> .430
OB Vs. PFE***	<u>121</u> .709	<u>122</u> .929	<u>221</u> .167	<u>222</u> .229	<u>321</u> .192	<u>322</u> .793
PE Vs. PFE	<u>131</u> .261	<u>132</u> .151	<u>231</u> .234	<u>232</u> .192	<u>331</u> .758	<u>332</u> .448

\* = Observed Behavior  
\*\* = Personal Expectations  
\*\*\* = Perception of Faculty Expectations

C = Consideration  
IS = Initiating Structure

presented in Table 1 each of the coefficients was first changed into Fisher's  $\underline{Z}$  statistic by use of Table VII in Downie and Heath.<sup>1</sup> The resulting  $\underline{Z}$ 's are presented in Table 2 of this study.

Following the above procedure, tests of the difference between correlation coefficients were performed for the variables observed behavior (OB) and principals' personal expectations (PE). Results of the tests are presented in Table 3. The variable numbers correspond to the same numbered cells in the matrix in Tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 3  
TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS  
FOR PRINCIPALS' OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND PRINCIPALS'  
PERSONAL ROLE EXPECTATIONS.

Test Number	Variables	$\underline{r}_1$	$\underline{r}_2$	$\underline{z}_1^*$	$\underline{z}_2^*$	D	$\underline{z}^{**}$
1.	111 vs. 112	.492	-.582	.536	-.662	1.198	2.239***
2.	211 vs. 212	.513	.428	.570	.460	.110	.205
3.	311 vs. 312	-.013	.407	-.015	.430	.445	.822
4.	111 vs. 211	.492	.513	.536	.570	.034	.064
5.	111 vs. 311	.492	-.013	.536	-.015	.551	1.029
6.	112 vs. 212	-.582	.428	-.662	.460	1.122	2.097***
7.	112 vs. 312	-.582	.407	-.662	.430	1.092	2.041***
8.	211 vs. 311	.513	-.013	.570	-.015	.585	1.084
9.	212 vs. 312	.428	.407	.460	.430	.030	.056

\* = Fisher's  $\underline{z}$  transformation of  $\underline{r}$ 's  
 \*\* =  $\underline{z}$  resulting from significance test between two  $\underline{r}$ 's  
 \*\*\* = Significant-- $p < .05$

<sup>1</sup>Downie and Heath, Basic Statistical Methods, p. 307.

A significant difference ( $z = 2.239$ ,  $p < .05$ ) was found between the Consideration dimension correlation for OB vs. PE and the Initiating Structure dimension correlation for OB vs. PE in the small schools. The Consideration and Initiating Structure correlations were not significantly different in the medium-size schools and in the large schools.

No significant differences were found between small school and medium-size school Consideration dimension correlations, between small school and large school Consideration dimension correlations, nor between medium-size school and large school Consideration correlations.

The difference between Initiating Structure correlation coefficients for OB vs. PE in the small schools and the large schools was significant ( $z = 2.097$ ,  $p < .05$ ). A significant difference was also found between the Initiating Structure correlation coefficients for OB vs PE in the small schools and the medium-size schools ( $z = 2.041$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

Tests of the difference between correlation coefficients were performed for the variables observed behavior (OB) and perception of faculty expectations (PFE) using the Fisher's Z transformations presented in Table 2 of this study. The results of the tests are shown in Table 4. The variable numbers correspond to the same numbered cells in the matrices for Tables 1 and 2.

No significant difference was found between any of the correlations involving the Consideration dimension. Two significant differences were found when the Initiating Structure dimension was considered. The correlation between OB and PFE for the Initiating Structure dimension in the small schools was  $r = .732$ . For the large schools it was  $r = .659$ . The difference of 1.722 between the Fisher's Z transformations was significant

( $z = 3.218$ ,  $p < .01$ ). There was a difference between the Initiating Structure  $\underline{z}$  transformations for medium-size schools and large schools of 1.213. This was significant at the  $p < .05$  level ( $z = 2.267$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

TABLE 4

TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS  
FOR PRINCIPALS' OBSERVED BEHAVIOR AND PRINCIPALS'  
PERCEPTION OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS

Test Number	Variables	$\underline{r}_1$	$\underline{r}_2$	$\underline{z}_1^*$	$\underline{z}_2^*$	D	$\underline{z}^{**}$
1.	121 vs. 122	.610	.732	.709	.929	.220	.411
2.	221 vs. 222	-.163	.223	-.167	.229	.396	.740
3.	321 vs. 322	-.190	-.659	-.192	-.793	-.601	1.123
4.	121 vs. 221	.610	-.163	.709	-.167	.876	1.637
5.	121 vs. 321	.610	-.190	.709	-.192	.901	1.684
6.	221 vs. 321	-.163	-.190	-.167	-.192	.025	.047
7.	122 vs. 222	.732	.223	.929	.420	.509	.951
8.	122 vs. 322	.732	-.659	.929	-.793	1.722	3.218***
9.	222 vs. 322	.223	-.659	.420	-.793	1.213	2.267***

\* = Fisher's  $\underline{z}$  transformation of  $\underline{r}$ 's

\*\* =  $\underline{z}$  resulting from significance test between two  $\underline{r}$ 's

\*\*\* = Significant-- $p < .05$

Results of the tests of the difference between correlation coefficients for the variable personal expectations (PE) and perception of faculty expectations (PFE) are presented in Table 5. The variable numbers correspond to the same numbered cells in Table 1 and Table 2.

A significant difference was found between the correlation

coefficient for the Consideration dimension in the large schools and the correlation coefficient for the Initiating Structure dimension in the large schools. The difference between the Fisher's Z transformation for these two correlations was 1.206 ( $z = 2.254$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The difference between the Fisher's Z transformation for the Consideration correlation in the medium-size schools and the large schools was  $-.992$ . This approached but did not quite reach significance ( $z = 1.854$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

TABLE 5

TESTS OF SIGNIFICANCE BETWEEN CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR  
PRINCIPALS' PERSONAL ROLE EXPECTATIONS AND PRINCIPALS'  
PERCEPTION OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS

Test Number	Variables	$r_1$	$r_2$	$z_1^*$	$z_2^*$	D	$z^{**}$
1.	131 vs. 132	.257	.148	.261	.151	.110	.205
2.	231 vs. 232	-.231	-.190	-.234	-.192	-.042	.078
3.	331 vs. 332	.639	-.419	.758	-.448	1.206	2.254***
4.	131 vs. 231	.257	-.231	.261	-.234	.495	.925
5.	131 vs. 331	.257	.639	.261	.758	-.497	.929
6.	231 vs. 331	-.231	.639	-.234	.758	-.992	1.854
7.	132 vs. 232	.148	-.190	.151	-.192	.343	.641
8.	132 vs. 332	.148	-.419	.151	-.448	.599	1.119
9.	232 vs. 332	-.190	-.419	-.192	-.448	.256	.478

\* = Fisher's z transformation of r's

\*\* = z resulting from significance test between two r's

\*\*\* = Significant-- $p < .05$

To test for interactions among the variables school size, observed

behavior, personal expectations, Consideration, and Initiating Structure, a 3 (small school, medium school, large school) x 2 (observed behavior, personal expectations) x 2 (Consideration, Initiating Structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimension was performed on the data. The results of the analysis of variance are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR OBSERVED BEHAVIOR, PERSONAL  
EXPECTATIONS, CONSIDERATION, INITIATING  
STRUCTURE, AND SCHOOL SIZE

Source	df	MS	<u>F</u>	p
A*	2	42.45	1.61	NS
B**	1	132.32	5.03	p < .05
C***	1	832.17	31.62	p < .001
AB	2	12.38	.4	NS
AC	2	27.45	1.04	NS
BC	1	13.30	.50	NS
ABC	2	50.35	1.91	NS
Within (Error)	108	26.31		

\* = School Size

\*\* = Observed Behavior and Personal Expectations

\*\*\* = Consideration and Initiating Structure

The F ratio for the main effect of the independent variable A (school size) was not significant. The F ratio for the main effect of variable B (observed behavior, personal expectations) was significant



( $F = 5.03$ , 1/108 df,  $p < .05$ ), indicating that there was a difference between the way the principals thought they should behave and the way the members of their faculties perceived their leader behavior. The  $F$  ratio for the main effect of variable C (Consideration, Initiating Structure) was significant ( $F = 31.62$ , 1/108 df,  $p < .001$ ) indicating a difference between these two dimensions. This is not surprising since they are different types of behavior. There were no significant first or second order interactions.

In Table 7 are presented the results of the analysis of

TABLE 7

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR OBSERVED BEHAVIOR, PERCEPTION  
OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS, CONSIDERATION,  
INITIATING STRUCTURE, AND SCHOOL SIZE

Source	df	MS	<u>F</u>	p
A*	2	100.5	3.52	$p < .05$
B**	1	9.0	.32	NS
C***	1	976.0	34.15	$p < .001$
AB	2	51.0	1.78	NS
AC	2	5.5	.19	NS
BC	1	50.0	1.75	NS
ABC	2	36.7	1.28	NS
Within (Error)	108	28.58		

\* = School Size

\*\* = Observed Behavior and Perception of Faculty Expectations

\*\*\* = Consideration and Initiating Structure

variance which was performed to test for interactions among the variables school size, observed behavior, perception of faculty expectations, Consideration, and Initiating Structure. A 3 (small school, medium school, large school) x 2 (observed behavior, perception of faculty expectations) x 2 (Consideration, Initiating Structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions was performed on the data.

The F ratio for the main effect of variable A (school size) was significant ( $F = 3.52$ , 2/108 df,  $p < .05$ ), indicating a difference in mean scores between small, medium, and large schools. There was not a significant difference between the way the principals thought the members of their faculties expected them to act and their observed behavior. The F ratios for the main effect of variable C (Consideration, Initiating Structure) was also significant ( $F = 34.15$ , 1/108 df,  $p < .001$ ). There were no significant first or second order interactions.

To test for interactions among the variables school size, personal role expectations, perception of faculty expectations, Consideration, and Initiating Structure, a 3 (small school, medium school, large school) x 2 (personal role expectations, perception of faculty expectations) x 2 (Consideration, Initiating Structure) analysis of variance with repeated measures over the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions and repeated measures over personal expectations and perception of faculty expectations was performed on the data. The results of the analysis of variance

are presented in Table 8. Since this analysis of variance involved repeated measures over two factors the results are presented in a different manner.

TABLE 8  
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR PERSONAL ROLE EXPECTATIONS,  
PERCEPTION OF FACULTY EXPECTATIONS, CONSIDERATION,  
INITIATING STRUCTURE, AND SCHOOL SIZE

Source	SS	df	MS	<u>F</u>	P	Percent of Variance
Between	1,445	59	24.5	--	--	14.00%
B**	831	2	416	37.8	p<.001	8.00%
error <sub>b</sub>	614	57	11	--	--	6.00%
Within	9,158	60	153	--	--	86.00%
A*	375	2	188	.65	NS	3.50%
C***	1,459	1	1,459	16.0	p<.05	13.75%
AB	73	4	43	.15	NS	.68%
BC	3	2	1.5	.02	NS	.02%
AC	6	2	3.0	.05	NS	.05%
ABC	48	4	12.0	.19	NS	.45%
error <sub>1</sub>	5,208	18	289	--	--	49.11%
error <sub>2</sub>	815	9	91	--	--	7.68%
error <sub>3</sub>	1,171	18	65	--	--	11.00%
Total	10,603	119				

\* = School Size

\*\* = Personal Expectations and Perception of Faculty Expectations

\*\*\* = Consideration and Initiating Structure

The F ratio for the main effect of variable B (personal expectations, perception of faculty expectations) was significant ( $F = 37.8, 2/57, p < .001$ ) indicating that principals in the present study did not think the members of their faculties expected them to exhibit the same kind of leader behavior that the principals themselves thought they should exhibit. The F ratio for the main effect of variable A (school size) was not significant. The significant F ratio ( $F = 16.0, 1/9 \text{ df}, p < .05$ ) for the main effect of variable C (Consideration, Initiating Structure) was expected as in the other ANOVA's performed during this study. No significant first or second order interactions were found.

At first glance it may appear that the total sum of squares is not equal to the sum of the parts presented. The total sum of squares is actually equal to the two main sub-totals of the sum of squares between ( $SS_b = 1,445$ ), and the sum of squares within ( $SS_w = 9,158$ ). The three within groups error variances accounted for 67.79% of the total variance while the between groups error variance accounted for 6% of the total variance. A total of 73.79% of the variance was thus accounted for by error variance. First and second order interactions accounted for only 1.2% of the total variance. The main effects of variables A, B, and C thus accounted for only 25% of the total variance.

The results of the three analyses of variance performed for this study indicated that there was a significant difference between the observed behavior of the principals involved in the study and their own personal role expectations. A significant difference was not found

between the principals' observed behavior and their perceptions of their faculties' expectations. The principals' personal role expectations were also significantly different from the way they thought the members of their faculties expected them to behave.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

A review of related literature and research indicated that the study of roles, role-taking, role-perception, role-conflict, and role-conflict resolution has attracted the attention of researchers from several discipline areas. Anthropologists such as Linton, see the individual as filling double roles, as individuals and as units in society.<sup>1</sup> In order to function successfully as a unit in a social order the individual must assume certain forms of behavior which society demands. He refers to these as cultural patterns. The individual finds that many of these cultural patterns are set up to maintain the society rather than to satisfy individual needs. The society's survival is dependent on these cultural patterns being established as habits. The individual is thus able to occupy a particular position in society and to perform the role associated with that position. Linton views the concept of role as a set of behavioral standards rather than the actual behavior of the occupant of a position.

Newcomb<sup>2</sup> also agrees with Linton in describing role as a set of behaviors which society in general expects of any individual who occupies a particular position. As a social psychologist concerned

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<sup>1</sup>Linton, Cultural Background of Personality, p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Theodore M. Newcomb, Ralph H. Turner, and Philip E. Converse, Social Psychology, The Study of Human Interaction (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 327.

with the impact of culture and social structure on an individual's behavior he distinguishes between "role behavior" as the actual behavior of the occupant of a position, and "role" as the ways of behaving that are expected of the occupant of a position.<sup>1</sup> These role prescriptions or expectations may be held for the occupant of a social position by society in general or by those in the interacting group.

When the occupant of a position perceives that he is the focus of incompatible expectations, he is said to be in a role-conflict situation. This may arise because the actor is simultaneously occupying two or more positions which place conflicting demands on him, or he may be exposed to incompatible expectations as a result of his occupancy of a single position. An example of the latter would be where the school principal is the target of conflicting expectations from the parents, the staff, and the superintendent. The important factor is that the role incumbent must perceive that he is subject to conflicting role expectations. He may feel that the conflicting demands are either legitimate or illegitimate. Getzels and Guba<sup>2</sup> stress that the legitimacy of the expectations under question and congruency between personal needs and expectations may be the critical determiner of the direction of resolution. Mishler's studies<sup>3</sup> indicated that persons with different types of personality structures tended to

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<sup>1</sup>Gross, Explorations in Role Analysis, p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Getzels, "Social Behavior," p. 426.

<sup>3</sup>Elliot G. Mishler, "Personality Characteristics and the Resolution of Role Conflicts," Public Opinion Quarterly, XVII (1953), pp. 134-35.

resolve role-conflicts in similar ways. Other studies have indicated that leader behavior can be significantly affected by the size of the group.<sup>1</sup>

Gross, Mason, and McEachern formulated a theory of role-conflict resolution from their study of school superintendents in Massachusetts in 1952-1953.<sup>2</sup> The theory assumes that an individual will perceive whether each set of expectations is legitimate or illegitimate and that he will also know what sanctions are forthcoming for failure to conform to any of the conflicting sets of expectations.

The individual is then classified as one of three personality types according to his predisposition to make certain kinds of decisions. The "moralist" is disposed to give most weight to legitimacy of expectations. The "expedient" gives most weight to the sanctions which may be applied for failure to perform or behave according to expectations. The "moral-expedient" does not give primacy to either legitimacy of expectations nor to sanctions for noncompliance, but tries to balance the two factors.

As an individual interacts with others whose views he deems important, he may perceive that they hold views regarding his behavior or expected behavior which are at variance with his own views or expectations. One approach to resolving this perceived conflict may be that the individual will, over a period of time, internalize the

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<sup>1</sup>J. K. Hemphill, "Relations Between the Size of the Group of the Behavior of Superior Leaders," Journal of Social Psychology, XXXII (1950), pp. 11-22.

<sup>2</sup>Gross, Explorations in Role Analysis, pp. 289-294.



expectations of the relevant others. That is he may come to accept their expectations as his own.

One of the premises on which this study was predicated was that the elementary school principal may perceive that his faculty holds different expectations regarding his leader behavior than he holds for himself. In those cases where this is true, the way in which the principal resolves this perceived conflict will be reflected in his observed leader behavior.

The major objective of the study was to determine the relationship between the observed leader behavior of the elementary school principal and his own personal role expectations. Another objective was to determine the relationship between the observed leader behavior of the elementary school principal and his perception of the way his faculty expects him to act. A third objective was to determine the relationship between the elementary principal's personal role expectations and his perception of what kind of leader behavior his faculty expects from him.

It was hypothesized that each of these would be a positive relationship. Each of the correlation coefficients which were computed were tested for significance. In addition, Fisher's Z transformations were made on each of the Pearson  $r$ 's and they were tested to see if a significant difference existed between the correlation coefficients. An analysis of variance was also performed to test for interactions among the variables.

Data necessary to conduct the study were gathered from thirty elementary school principals in Oklahoma City and a random sample of

five teachers from the faculty of each of the schools served by the principals selected. The instruments used to gather the data were two forms (Real and Ideal) of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The principals each filled out two copies of the LBDQ-I, indicating how they thought they should behave on one copy and how they thought their faculty expected them to behave on the other copy. The faculty members each filled out a copy of the LBDQ-R indicating how they saw their principal as behaving.

### Findings and Conclusions

The theoretical framework developed for this study supports the idea that as an individual interacts with others whose views he deems important, he may come to accept as his own the views of the relevant others. Assuming that a principal sees the members of the faculty assigned to his school as relevant others, it seemed reasonable to hypothesize that the principal's personal role expectations would be positively related to his perception of his faculty's expectations ( $H_03$ ). The hypothesis was not supported by the data gathered. The only significant positive correlation between the principal's personal expectations and his perception of his faculty's expectations was for the Consideration dimension in the large schools. The analysis of variance performed with personal expectations and perception of faculty expectations, indicated that the personal role expectations of the principals involved in this study were significantly different from the way the principals thought they were expected to act. The F ratio for school size was not significant however, indicating that the perceived conflict was not related to the size

of the schools. This was reflected in the tests of significance between correlation coefficients for personal expectations and perception of faculty expectations. There were no significant differences between these correlations when different size schools were compared ( $H_{06}$ ).

The hypothesis of a positive relationship between the principal's perception of his faculty's expectations and his behavior as perceived by his faculty ( $H_{02}$ ) was supported in only one case. A significant positive correlation was found between the observed behavior and perception of faculty expectations Initiating Structure scores in the small schools. The Consideration dimension correlation for the small schools approached significance with a correlation of .610, but a correlation of .632 was needed for significance at the  $p < .05$  level.

No significant positive correlations were found between the principal's personal role expectations and his observed behavior. The first hypothesis ( $H_{01}$ ) was therefore rejected. The strong negative correlation coefficient (-.582) between observed behavior and personal expectations for the small schools Initiating Structure dimension raises some questions, particularly in view of the significant positive correlation between the principal's observed behavior and his perception of his faculty's expectations on the Initiating Structure dimension for the small schools. Since the results of the analysis of variance indicated a difference between the way the principals thought they should behave and the way they thought their faculties expected them to behave, the investigator expected a difference in correlation coefficients between observed behavior and personal expectations and between observed behavior and

perception of faculty expectations. The negative correlation was not expected and came as a surprise.

Examination of the biographical data collected from teachers and principals indicated a tendency for the older principals to be assigned to the larger schools and younger principals to be assigned to smaller schools. The opposite was seen in the assignment of faculty members with younger teachers being assigned to the larger schools and the older teachers being assigned to the smaller schools.

The findings of Cook<sup>1</sup> that smaller schools had an Open Climate may help to explain the correlations for the Initiating Structure dimension in the small schools. The younger principal, perceiving that there is a conflict between the way he thinks he should behave and the way his faculty wants him to behave, may be inclined to "bend over backward" to avoid imposing his structure on the group. At any rate, there is a need for further investigations designed to delve into the relationships between different variables associated with school size.

The hypothesis of a positive relationship between the size of the elementary school faculty and the correlation between the principal's observed behavior and his personal role expectations ( $H_{04}$ ) was not supported by the present study when the Consideration dimension was considered. There were, however, significant differences between different size schools when the Initiating Structure correlation coefficients were examined. Similar results were found when the correlation coefficients between observed behavior and perception of faculty expectations

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<sup>1</sup>Cook, Leadership Behavior.

were considered ( $H_05$ ). Significant differences were found between the Initiating Structure correlations in the different size schools but not between the Consideration correlations.

The Initiating Structure correlation coefficient between observed behavior and personal expectations in the large schools was significantly different from the Initiating Structure correlation coefficient between observed behavior and perception of faculty expectations. The greater positive correlation was between observed behavior and personal expectations. The Initiating Structure correlation coefficient between personal expectations and observed behavior in the small schools was also significantly different from the Initiating Structure correlation coefficient between observed behavior and perception of faculty expectations. In the small schools the greater positive correlation was between observed behavior and perception of faculty expectations.

When the other correlation coefficients between observed behavior and personal expectations were compared with observed behavior and perception of faculty expectation correlation coefficients the differences were not significant. In every case, however, the greater positive correlation was between observed behavior and personal expectations in the medium-size schools and large schools while in the small schools both Consideration and Initiating Structure correlations indicated that principals in small schools tend to behave more like they think the members of their faculty expect them to behave. This is commensurate with other studies which have shown that leader behavior can be significantly affected by the size of the group.

### Implications for Further Study

One of the questions left unanswered by this study is why no significant differences were found in Consideration correlation coefficients when different size schools were compared. All of the significant differences between correlations were between Initiating Structure correlation coefficients. It is doubtful that any study is an entity in itself. This is especially true of studies conducted in the behavioral sciences since behavior is contingent upon the interaction of groups as well as individuals--the present study is no exception. Further studies concerning the relationship of independent variables peculiar to the field of educational administration are necessary if an acceptable theory of leader behavior in education is to be developed.

Among the independent variables which could be considered in future studies are age, sex, incumbency in the school, and marital status of the principals being studied. The same variables, and possibly others, in relation to faculty members might also yield relevant data. Independent variables describing the school as an organization could be expanded to include dimensions other than the size of the faculty. A combination of instruments could be used to gather data which would shed some light on the complex interrelationships of multiple variables.

Gross, Mason, and McEachern<sup>1</sup> suggest that the important research question is the isolation of different conditions under which interactions occur. Terms and concepts should be capable of being defined operationally, and the subject or object of study should be clearly specified.

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<sup>1</sup>Gross, Mason, and McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis.

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## APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF PERMISSION

OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

900 North Klein

Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73106

November 6, 1969

Mr. Howard G. Morrow  
8501 South Victoria Drive  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Dear Howard:

The Research Committee has approved your request to conduct research in the Oklahoma City Public Schools according to the application you recently submitted.

We request that you coordinate the activities in connection with the study with Dr. John Brothers, Director of Elementary Education.

We would appreciate receiving a copy of the completed study for our files.

Sincerely yours,

William L. Shell  
Director  
Research and Statistics

WLS/ys

cc: Dr. John Brothers

## APPENDIX B

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE STATEMENT OF POLICY

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (REAL)

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (IDEAL)

## STATEMENT OF POLICY

## Concerning the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and Related Forms

Permission is granted without formal request to use the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire and other related forms developed at The Ohio State University, subject to the following conditions:

1. Use: The forms may be used in research projects. They may not be used for promotional activities or for producing income on behalf of individuals or organizations other than The Ohio State University.
2. Adaptation and Revision: The directions and the form of the items may be adapted to specific situations when such steps are considered desirable.
3. Duplication: Sufficient copies for a specific research project may be duplicated.
4. Inclusion in Dissertations: Copies of the questionnaire may be included in theses and dissertations. Permission is granted for the duplication of such dissertations when filed with the University Microfilms Service at Ann Arbor, Michigan.
5. Copyright: In granting permission to modify or duplicate the questionnaire, we do not surrender our copyright. Duplicated questionnaires and all adaptations should contain the notation "Copyright, 19--, by The Ohio State University."
6. Inquiries: Communications should be addressed to:

Center for Business and Economic Research  
The Ohio State University  
1775 South College Road  
Columbus, Ohio 43210



BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please place a check mark (✓) to the right of the appropriate category.

Sex	Man	1. _____
	Woman	2. _____
Age	20 - 29	1. _____
	30 - 39	2. _____
	40 - 49	3. _____
	50 - 59	4. _____
	60 or over	5. _____
Years of experience in education	0 - 3	1. _____
	4 - 9	2. _____
	10 - 19	3. _____
	20 - 29	4. _____
	30 or over	5. _____
Years at this school	0 - 3	1. _____
	4 - 9	2. _____
	10 - 19	3. _____
	20 or over	4. _____
Marital status	Married	1. _____
	Single	2. _____
Highest Academic Degree held	Bachelor	1. _____
	Masters	2. _____
	Doctorate	3. _____

## LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of  
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

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DIRECTIONS

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your principal. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable.

Read each item carefully.

Think about how frequently the 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.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

Example:

He does personal favors for group members.      A   B   C   (D)   E

In this example the respondent circled D to indicate that the principal seldom engages in the activity described.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

- |   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 1. He does personal favors for group members.                             | A B C D E |
| 2. He makes his attitudes clear to the group.                             | A B C D E |
| 3. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | A B C D E |
| 4. He tries out his new ideas with the group.                             | A B C D E |
| 5. He acts as the real leader of the group.                               | A B C D E |
| 6. He is easy to understand.  | A B C D E |
| 7. He rules with an iron hand.  | A B C D E |
| 8. He finds time to listen to group members.                              | A B C D E |
| 9. He criticizes poor work.   | A B C D E |
| 10. He gives advance notice of changes.                                   | A B C D E |
| 11. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.                           | A B C D E |
| 12. He keeps to himself.  | A B C D E |
| 13. He looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members.    | A B C D E |
| 14. He assigns group members to particular tasks.                         | A B C D E |
| 15. He is the spokesman of the group.                                     | A B C D E |
| 16. He schedules the work to be done.                                     | A B C D E |
| 17. He maintains definite standards of performance.                       | A B C D E |
| 18. He refuses to explain his actions.                                    | A B C D E |
| 19. He keeps the group informed.  | A B C D E |
| 20. He acts without consulting the group.                                 | A B C D E |

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

- |   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 21. He backs up the members in their actions.                                       | A B C D E |
| 22. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.   | A B C D E |
| 23. He treats all group members as his equals.                                      | A B C D E |
| 24. He encourages the use of uniform procedures.                                    | A B C D E |
| 25. He gets what he asks for from his superiors.                                    | A B C D E |
| 26. He is willing to make changes.  | A B C D E |
| 27. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members. | A B C D E |
| 28. He is friendly and approachable.  | A B C D E |
| 29. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations.               | A B C D E |
| 30. He fails to take necessary action.  | A B C D E |
| 31. He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.                     | A B C D E |
| 32. He lets group members know what is expected of them.                            | A B C D E |
| 33. He speaks as the representative of the group.                                   | A B C D E |
| 34. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation.                           | A B C D E |
| 35. He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity.                    | A B C D E |
| 36. He lets other people take away his leadership in the group.                     | A B C D E |
| 37. He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.              | A B C D E |
| 38. He gets group approval in important matters before going ahead.                 | A B C D E |

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

39. He sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated.

A B C D E

40. He keeps the group working together as a team.

A B C D E

## LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

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The Ohio State Leadership Studies

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DIRECTIONS

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe your leader behavior as you think you should act. Please do not evaluate the items in terms of good or bad behavior.

Read each item carefully.

Think about how frequently a leader should engage in the behavior described by the item.

Draw a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

Example:

What the Ideal Leader should do:

Criticize poor work.

A B C (D) E

In this example the respondent circled D to indicate that the ideal leader should seldom engage in the activity described.

Please mark your answer clearly. Please be sure to respond to all items.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Do personal favors for group members.                             | A B C D E |
| 2. Make his attitudes clear to the group.                            | A B C D E |
| 3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | A B C D E |
| 4. Try out his new ideas with the group.                             | A B C D E |
| 5. Act as the real leader of the group.                              | A B C D E |
| 6. Be easy to understand.  | A B C D E |
| 7. Rule with an iron hand.   | A B C D E |
| 8. Find time to listen to group members.                             | A B C D E |
| 9. Criticize poor work.  | A B C D E |
| 10. Give advance notice of changes.                                  | A B C D E |
| 11. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.                          | A B C D E |
| 12. Keep to himself.   | A B C D E |
| 13. Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members.   | A B C D E |
| 14. Assign group members to particular tasks.                        | A B C D E |
| 15. Be the spokesman of the group.                                   | A B C D E |
| 16. Schedule the work to be done.                                    | A B C D E |
| 17. Maintain definite standards of performance.                      | A B C D E |
| 18. Refuse to explain his actions.                                   | A B C D E |
| 19. Keep the group informed.   | A B C D E |
| 20. Act without consulting the group.                                | A B C D E |

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

- |   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 21. Back up the members in their actions.                                       | A B C D E |
| 22. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines.   | A B C D E |
| 23. Treat all group members as his equals.                                      | A B C D E |
| 24. Encourage the use of uniform procedures.                                    | A B C D E |
| 25. Get what he asks for from his superiors.                                    | A B C D E |
| 26. Be willing to make changes.   | A B C D E |
| 27. Make sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members. | A B C D E |
| 28. Be friendly and approachable.   | A B C D E |
| 29. Ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.               | A B C D E |
| 30. Fail to take necessary action.  | A B C D E |
| 31. Make group members feel at ease when talking with them.                     | A B C D E |
| 32. Let group members know what is expected of them.                            | A B C D E |
| 33. Speak as the representative of the group.                                   | A B C D E |
| 34. Put suggestions made by the group into operation.                           | A B C D E |
| 35. See to it that group members are working up to capacity.                    | A B C D E |
| 36. Let other people take away his leadership in the group.                     | A B C D E |
| 37. Get his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members.              | A B C D E |



- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

- |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead. | A | B | C | D | E |
| 39. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated.    | A | B | C | D | E |
| 40. Keep the group working together as a team.                  | A | B | C | D | E |

## LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

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DIRECTIONS

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the way you think your teachers expect you to act. Please do not evaluate the items in terms of good or bad behavior.

Read each item carefully.

Think about how frequently your teachers expect you to engage in the behavior described by the item.

Draw a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

Example:

What the Ideal Leader should do:

Criticize poor work.

A B (C) D E

In this example the respondent circled C to indicate that the ideal leader should occasionally engage in the activity described.

Please mark your answer clearly. Please be sure to respond to all items.

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Do personal favors for group members.                             | A B C D E |
| 2. Make his attitudes clear to the group.                            | A B C D E |
| 3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. | A B C D E |
| 4. Try out his new ideas with the group.                             | A B C D E |
| 5. Act as the real leader of the group.                              | A B C D E |
| 6. Be easy to understand.  | A B C D E |
| 7. Rule with an iron hand.   | A B C D E |
| 8. Find time to listen to group members.                             | A B C D E |
| 9. Criticize poor work.  | A B C D E |
| 10. Give advance notice of changes.                                  | A B C D E |
| 11. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.                          | A B C D E |
| 12. Keep to himself.   | A B C D E |
| 13. Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members.   | A B C D E |
| 14. Assign group members to particular tasks.                        | A B C D E |
| 15. Be the spokesman of the group.                                   | A B C D E |
| 16. Schedule the work to be done.                                    | A B C D E |
| 17. Maintain definite standards of performance.                      | A B C D E |
| 18. Refuse to explain his actions.                                   | A B C D E |
| 19. Keep the group informed.   | A B C D E |
| 20. Act without consulting the group.                                | A B C D E |

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 21. Back up the members in their actions.  | A B C D E |
| 22. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines.  | A B C D E |
| 23. Treat all group members as his equals.   | A B C D E |
| 24. Encourage the use of uniform procedures.                                       | A B C D E |
| 25. Get what he asks for from his superiors.                                       | A B C D E |
| 26. Be willing to make changes.  | A B C D E |
| 27. Make sure that his part in the organization<br>is understood by group members. | A B C D E |
| 28. Be friendly and approachable.  | A B C D E |
| 29. Ask that group members follow standard rules<br>and regulations.               | A B C D E |
| 30. Fail to take necessary action.   | A B C D E |
| 31. Make group members feel at ease when talking<br>with them.                     | A B C D E |
| 32. Let group members know what is expected of them.                               | A B C D E |
| 33. Speak as the representative of the group.                                      | A B C D E |
| 34. Put suggestions made by the group into operation.                              | A B C D E |
| 35. See to it that group members are working up to<br>capacity.                    | A B C D E |
| 36. Let other people take away his leadership in the<br>group.                     | A B C D E |
| 37. Get his superiors to act for the welfare of the<br>group members.              | A B C D E |

- A Always
- B Often
- C Occasionally
- D Seldom
- E Never

What the Ideal leader should do:

38. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead.

A B C D E

39. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated.

A B C D E

40. Keep the group working together as a team.

A B C D E

APPENDIX C

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE RAW SCORES

## OBSERVED BEHAVIOR RAW SCORES

CONSIDERATION DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
31	49	41
55	51	51
59	45	50
39	30	37
48	53	50
38	52	51
43	51	45
53	48	49
49	53	39
42	48	43

## OBSERVED BEHAVIOR RAW SCORES

INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
51	36	41
39	38	43
43	43	46
44	46	43
33	45	48
45	47	34
35	45	50
46	42	42
46	38	45
43	40	39



## ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' PERSONAL EXPECTATIONS RAW SCORES

CONSIDERATION DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
43	54	47
51	54	52
56	49	49
51	49	44
47	55	45
43	52	44
51	53	49
46	48	51
44	51	52
44	48	54

## ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' PERSONAL EXPECTATIONS RAW SCORES

INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
46	41	43
29	46	38
37	46	46
46	47	43
43	39	47
38	40	39
52	50	48
40	39	50
43	47	43
43	48	41

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTION OF  
FACULTY EXPECTATIONS RAW SCORE

CONSIDERATION DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
42	45	47
49	43	50
53	52	59
49	53	50
50	53	40
38	47	36
46	43	50
45	47	52
42	60	47
46	47	56

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTION OF  
FACULTY EXPECTATIONS RAW SCORE

INITIATING STRUCTURE DIMENSION		
Small Schools	Medium-Size Schools	Large Schools
36	41	43
39	44	36
49	47	16
40	43	36
40	39	47
31	45	33
49	48	46
37	45	50
37	48	47
41	50	48

## APPENDIX D

### CALCULATIONS NECESSARY FOR ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TEST

## SMALL SCHOOLS

CONSIDERATION

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 457$	$\Sigma X = 476$	$\Sigma X = 456$
$\bar{X} = 45.7$	$\bar{X} = 47.6$	$\bar{X} = 45.6$
$\Sigma X^2 = 21,559$	$\Sigma X^2 = 22,834$	$\Sigma X^2 = 20,988$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 208,849$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 226,576$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 207,936$
$\Sigma x^2 = 674.1$	$\Sigma x^2 = 176.4$	$\Sigma x^2 = 194.4$

INITIATING STRUCTURE

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 414$	$\Sigma X = 417$	$\Sigma X = 386$
$\bar{X} = 41.4$	$\bar{X} = 41.7$	$\bar{X} = 38.6$
$\Sigma X^2 = 17,326$	$\Sigma X^2 = 17,737$	$\Sigma X^2 = 15,094$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 171,396$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 173,889$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 148,996$
$\Sigma x^2 = 186.4$	$\Sigma x^2 = 348.1$	$\Sigma x^2 = 194.4$

## MEDIUM-SIZE SCHOOLS

CONSIDERATION

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 480$	$\Sigma X = 513$	$\Sigma X = 490$
$\bar{X} = 48.0$	$\bar{X} = 51.3$	$\bar{X} = 49.0$
$\Sigma X^2 = 23,458$	$\Sigma X^2 = 26,381$	$\Sigma X^2 = 24,272$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 230,400$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 263,169$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 240,100$
$\Sigma x^2 = 418.0$	$\Sigma x^2 = 64.1$	$\Sigma x^2 = 262.0$

INITIATING STRUCTURE

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 410$	$\Sigma X = 443$	$\Sigma X = 450$
$\bar{X} = 41.0$	$\bar{X} = 44.3$	$\bar{X} = 45.0$
$\Sigma X^2 = 17,032$	$\Sigma X^2 = 19,777$	$\Sigma X^2 = 20,354$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 168,100$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 196,249$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 202,500$
$\Sigma x^2 = 222.0$	$\Sigma x^2 = 152.1$	$\Sigma x^2 = 104.0$

## LARGE SCHOOLS

CONSIDERATION

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 456$	$\Sigma X = 487$	$\Sigma X = 488$
$\bar{X} = 45.6$	$\bar{X} = 48.7$	$\bar{X} = 48.8$
$\Sigma X^2 = 21,048$	$\Sigma X^2 = 23,833$	$\Sigma X^2 = 24,230$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 207,936$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 237,169$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 238,144$
$\Sigma x^2 = 254.4$	$\Sigma x^2 = 116.1$	$\Sigma x^2 = 415.6$

INITIATING STRUCTURE

OB	PE	PFE
$\Sigma X = 431$	$\Sigma X = 438$	$\Sigma X = 402$
$\bar{X} = 43.1$	$\bar{X} = 43.8$	$\bar{X} = 40.2$
$\Sigma X^2 = 18,765$	$\Sigma X^2 = 19,322$	$\Sigma X^2 = 17,124$
$(\Sigma X)^2 = 185,761$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 191,844$	$(\Sigma X)^2 = 161,604$
$\Sigma x^2 = 188.9$	$\Sigma x^2 = 137.6$	$\Sigma x^2 = 963.6$



APPENDIX E

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

# BIOGRAPHICAL DATA FOR TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

		SMALL SCHOOLS		MEDIUM-SIZE SCHOOLS		LARGE SCHOOLS	
		Teachers	Principals	Teachers	Principals	Teachers	Principals
Sex	Man	5	7	5	7	4	5
	Woman	42	3	40	3	41	5
Age	20-29	14	1	10		22	
	30-39	11	1	9	3	6	1
	40-49	7	3	6	1	7	1
	50-59	12	4	14	4	6	4
	60+	3		6	2	4	1
Years in Education	0 - 3	11		9		26	
	4 - 9	14	2	8	3	9	
	10-19	14	2	9		3	4
	20-29	3	2	12	3	3	2
	30+	5	4	6	4	4	4
Years at This School	0 - 3	32	7	20	6	32	6
	4 - 9	12	2	10	4	8	1
	10-19	3	1	11		4	3
	20+			4		1	
Marital Status	Married	41	9	37	7	35	6
	Single	6	2	8	3	10	4
Degree	Bachelors	30		24		31	
	Masters	16	10	21	10	14	10
	Doctors						